INFLUENCE OF INSTITUTIONAL FACTORS ON GIRL CHILD＇S PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KAJIADO NORTH DISTRICT，KENYA

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## INIVERSIIT OF WAIFOK内䋐しYU midRARy <br> 

A Research Project Presented for Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Award of the Degree of Masters Degree in Education Administration， University of Nairobi

## DECLARATION

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


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## DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my daughter Winnie Sankok.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First I thank Almighty God for guiding and supporting me throughout and for His grace to complete this research project.

I would like to thank my supervisors, Dr. Ibrahim Khatete and Dr. Daisy Matula for their scholarly guidance and the assistance they gave me throughout the study. I would also like to appreciate my lecturers in the department of Educational Administration and Planning who through great devotion and wisdom took me through the course.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| ASAL | Semi Arid Land |
| :--- | :--- |
| BEA. | Basic Education for All |
| BNWLA | Bangladesh National Women Lawyers' Association, |
| D.E.O | District Educational Officer |
| EFA | Education For All |
| FGM | Female Genital Mutilation |
| FPE | Free Primary Education |
| GCN | Girl Child Network |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goal |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |
| NARC | National Rainbow Coalition |
| UDHR | Universal Declaration of Human Right |
| UNCRC | United Nation Convection on the Rights of the Child |
| UNESCO | United Nations for Education and Social Cultural Organization |


#### Abstract

The study sought to establish the institutional factors that influence girl child participation in education in public secondary schools in Kajiado North District. The objectives of the study focused on the influence of girl child harassment by teachers, teachers' characteristics, availability of sanitary towels, and principals' adherence to the government educational policies on girl child participation in education. The literature review focused on both broad and specific institutional factors responsible for girl child participation in education. The study adopted a descriptive survey since the variables were not to be manipulated; the target population included all the ten public secondary schools in Kajiado north district and the sample size comprised ten principals, 10 class teachers and 248 form four students.

After data analysis the study established that, the headship of schools was dominated by male teachers at $70 \%$ and female principals constitute $30 \%$ this indicates that girls consider education as preserve for men as indicated by more male teachers than female teachers. The study also established that the reasons for girls not fully participating in schools in Kajiado north district was harassment of girls by both boys and male teachers, girls being forced to do household chores at the expense of education and non adherence to educational policies that protect girl child by the principals.

The study also established that $25 \%$ of the students dropped out of school within a year of which the majority was girls $70 \%$ compared to boys $30 \%$. The study also established that there was sexual harassment of girls in schools by both teachers and male teachers. On gender parity, $54 \%$ of the students said that boys are not given equal opportunities to access education. Some of the reasons given for unequal opportunity include; discrimination of female on gender grounds ( $38 \%$ ), having less girls schools in the district, some parents not willing to take their children to school. The study also revealed that $60 \%$ of the school principals adhere to the policies that protect the girl child.

The study also established that girl child participation in education is hindered by quite a number of factors which needs to be addressed. This includes; sexual harassment by male students and male teachers, provision of sanitary towels, lack of role models and adherence of government education policies by school principals. The key recommendations established includes; the government of Kenya and other stakeholders should provide sanitary towels to menstruating girls in schools, school principals should adhere to government education policies, there should be teachers who are good role models to girls in schools, girls needs to be sensitized on career, and there should be no forced repetitions for girls in schools.


## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Education is perceived as a cornerstone for economic development, social development and as a principal means of improving welfare of individual (Orodho, 2000). In the economic and political development, education is perceived to have key impacts on helping people make informed decisions and choices. Education is a contributor to formulation and implementation of sound economic and social policies by promoting good governance, evolution of a civil society through community and natural capacity building (Orodho 1997, World Bank 1990).

Globally countries are striving to attain the goal of providing secondary education for all people without discrimination. This is demonstrated by the G8's St. Petersburg summit in 2006, later United Nations for Social Education and Cultural Organization ( UNSECO) carried out a study to establish the level of compliance to St. Petersburg declaration, the study established that, countries like Canada, France, and United Kingdom registered high degree of compliance while countries like Germany, Italy, Japan and Russia registered low level of compliance to the St. Petersburg declaration that championed the equity in education in order to achieve the United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of eliminating gender disparity in education by the year 2015.

Due to contribution of education in political, social and economic development, the Kenyan government adopted the United Nation Convection on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC 1989) which sets out the right to education to which every child is entitled. Article 29 of the convention also attaches importance to the process by which the right to education is to be promoted (United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child. 1989). In line with the Millennium Development Goals (MOG) on Universal Primary Education (UPE) to be achieved in year 2010 and Education For All (EFA) to be achieved in 2015 alongside vision 2030, the government of Kenya introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003 and subsidized Secondary Education in 2008 to achieve the set targets.

Issues of gender and access to education have been the concern to researchers for quite some time now. This is because of wastage rates are experienced in secondary schools in Kenya. According to Orodho and Njeru (2003) and the Sessional Paper 1, (2005), only a small percentage of students who enroll in secondary school education complete the cycle. The Koech report of (1999) revealed that gender disparity continues to persist in Kenyan secondary schools. A study carried out by the Kenya National Population Census Centers Bureau of Statistics in 2002 revealed that gender disparity among secondary school students aged between 15-18 years was 41\%.

This declaration was geared towards funding developing countries in order to achieve the UN's Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of eliminating gender disparity in education by the year 2015 despite the efforts of eliminating gender
disparities in education, in many developing nations gender disparities in education still persist. Many countries therefore, have yet to realize the universal secondary education for their entire citizens with its full benefit. This is due to social-economic, cultural and institutional factors that acts as an impediments, for instance a study by Chanika (2003), shows that student drop out of school due to lack of role models within the community and immediate family cycle, He further asserts that children especially girls in Malawi drop out of schools at early age not necessary because of poverty but because they see no tangible benefits of continuing with school within district context or immediate family.

On the other hand According to Weisfield (2008), Sexual harassment, often known as "eve teasing", is a regular occurrence for the women and girls of Bangladesh. A study by the Bangladesh National Women Lawyers' Association, (BNWLA) showed that almost 90 percent of girls aged 10-18 have undergone the experience hence affecting their participation in education. Other institutional factors that affect girl child participation in education on a global perspective include compliance of the schools heads on educational policies geared towards protecting girl child, availability of sanitary towels, and performance in examinations.

Kenya is among the developing countries that have shown great improvement in the process of attaining parity in the provision of Basic Education for All (BEA). However, such improvement is not evident in all parts of the country. The most affected districts as far as gender disparities are concerned are those in Arid and
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Semi Arid Land districts (ASAL). The arid and semi arid region covers the North Eastern parts of Rift valley, Eastern Province and Coast Province in Kenya. Kajiado North District of the Rift valley Province of Kenya is one of the ASAL areas in Kenya. According to Government of Kenya (2005), although the secondary school going children aged 14-17 years in Kajiado district were 35,754 ( 18,069 boys and 17,685 girls) in 1999, only 2,918 boys and 1,855 girls were enrolled in Secondary Schools Thus, high rate of gender disparity in terms of access to education. According to records at the DEOs office in Kajiado North district gender disparity in relation to access to education is very high. This is shown in table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1 Children rate of participation in secondary schools in Kajiado North

## District.

| Year | $\mathbf{2 0 0 7}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 8}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 0 9}$ | $\mathbf{2 0 1 0}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Boys | 1165 | 1213 | 1705 | 2000 |
| Girls | 710 | 902 | 1195 | 1500 |
| Total | 1875 | 2015 | 2900 | 3500 |

Table 1 show that there is high rate of gender disparity in relation to access to education in Kajiado North district. Since other studies by Studies by Mutegi (2005), Mutuma (2005) and Mwove (2010) addressed social-economic and cultural factors affecting girl child participation in education, this study will therefore endeavor to establish the institutional factors like sanitary towels provision, role model from
female teachers, and implementation of government policies on girl child protection affecting girl child education in public secondary schools in Kajiado North District.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

The discussion shows that efforts have been put in place to make sure access to education by all children worldwide as shown by the international convections of children rights. In a bid to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of eliminating gender disparity in education by the year 2015, the government of Kenya employed mechanisms like introduction of free secondary education and affirmative action, all geared towards protecting girl child more particularly in access to education United Nations Education and Social Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2009). Studies by Mutegi (2005), Mutuma (2005) and Mwove (2004) addressed social economic and cultural factors affecting girl child participation in education. This study will therefore endeavor to establish the institutional factors like of sanitary towels provision, role model from female teachers, sexual harassment by male students and male teachers, adherence to government policies by secondary school principals in Kajiado North District.

Despite the efforts put in place to address the gender equity in education by the government of Kenya, gender disparities sti'l persists. This study therefore endeavored to establish the institutional factors like sanitary towels provision, role model from female teachers, and implementation of government policies on girl
child protection affecting girl child education in public secondary schools in Kajiado North.

### 1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study sought to establish the influence of institutional factors that affect girl child participation in education in public secondary schools in Kajiado North District.

### 1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to establish the institutional factors affecting girl child participation in education in Kajiado North district. The specific objectives of the study were;
i) To establish the effect of girl child sexual harassment by male students and male teachers on participation in education
ii) To establish the influence of teachers characteristics on girl child participation in education
iii) To establish the influence of sanitary towels availability on girl child participation in education
iv) To establish the influence of principals' adherence to educational policies that protects girl child education on girl child participation in education.
v) Establish the measures that can be employed to protect girl child education.

### 1.5 Research Questions

To achieve the above objectives the study used the following research questions
i) To what extent does girl child sexual harassment by male students and male teachers influence girl child participation in education
ii) To what extent do female teachers as role models influence girl child participation in education
iii) To what extent does the availability of sanitary towels affect girl child participation in education
iv) How does principal's adherence to the government educational policies protects girl child education
v) What measures can be put in place to improve girl child participation in education

### 1.6 Significance of the Study

This study on influence of institutional factors on girl-child participation in education in public secondary schools may be useful to all stakeholders of education. First, it will create awareness on the disparity rate and enrolment of secondary school students in the District. Secondly, it may provide documentation of the institutional factors contributing to this state in secondary schools. The researcher hopes that the school administrators may use the findings to improve girl child participation in education. The students may also use the findings of the study to work on their performances as a result of subsidized secondary education.

The study enlightens other education stakeholders on institutional factors affecting girl child education in Kenya and takes necessary measures to address the problem appropriately. Other district, in the country, with similar problems can find the results of the study useful in addressing the problem of drop out of female students. The study can also be of help to the Ministry of Education Science and Technology when addressing gender imbalances in the provision of secondary education in the country. Hence aid in attainment of Millennium Development goal on UPE and EFA.

### 1.7 Limitation of the Study

One of the limitations of the study was that time and financial resources constrained the researcher in carrying out the research and the study required both qualitative and quantitative methods of data gathering which was not possible. Also the study required a lot of travelling and getting permission to give questionnaire to the respondents was a problem since the researcher is a full time government employee.

### 1.8 Delimitation of the Study ? ? ?

Data accuracy depended on respondents' honesty in answering all the questions. However to minimize any effect, complete instructions were given in each section of the questionnaire. The researcher carried an introductory letter to the authority as she made a request for permission to collect data. The researcher also informed the respondents of the intended exercise earlier in advance. The study also sought views of the Teachers, students and the principals only.

### 1.9 Assumption of the Study

The study was based on the assumption that the respondents will cooperate and give genuine responses

The other assumption was that there were some girls who do not participate in education as a result of institutional factors

### 1.10 Definitions of Operational Terms

This section gives definition of terms as used in the study
Completion rate is the number of students who successfully complete form four compared to the number enrolled when the same group of pupils was in form one.

Culture is the totality of learned behaviors transmitted from one generation to the other.

Drop-out rate is the number of students leaving school before they complete the designated program.

Enrolment is the act or state of being registered in a certain level of education.
Gender bias is the kind of a discrimination which operates in favor of an individual to the disadvantage of another person due to his or her sex

Gender gap is the numerical difference between the number of male and females in a given content, in this case secondary education.

Gender parity is the equal opportunities for both male and female student's access education.

Gender is the social expectations held to characterize male and female behavior.
Institutional factors is the aspect of the school that affect the girl child education

Performance is the manifestation of whether learning has taken place or not, and is measured by the administration of continuous assessment task.

Policy is written principles or guidelines that influence action or practice. In this study it refers to the ministry of education documented guidelines on how to conduct the various tasks in the education process.

Transition is the process of moving from class eight to form one in secondary school and from form to university or college.

### 1.11 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in five chapters, Chapter one comprises of background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research questions, significance, delimitations, basic assumption and definition of terms, Chapter two deals with literature review and chapter three consists of research methodology focusing on research design, target populations, sample and sampling procedures, research instrument, validity and reliability of the research instrument, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Chapter four constitutes data analysis, data interpretation and findings while chapter five deals with the summary of the study, conclusion of the findings, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

## CHAPTER TWO

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature on factors contributing to gender disparity in secondary education. Literature on both broad and specific factors that are responsible for gender disparity will be examined, analyzed and discussed. Through literature review the researcher will identify two sub-topics, general trends of disparity in education and broad and specific institutional factors responsible for gender disparity in education.

### 2.2 International convention on provision of education for girls

Girls' education on the African Continent has reached a crossroads. The gender gap has lessened significantly over the last 15 years, particularly in primary education, with the high priorities placed on girls' education in national, continental and international education policies.

The Beijing Conference in 1995, the fourth World Conference for women, set out a Broad Platform of Action (BPFA) concerning the girl child Drawing on baseline statistics from 1990, 130million children worldwide had no access to primary education of which 81 million were girls. Strategic objective stated the need to eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training. Without significant change to traditional curricular representation of women in roles of inferiority, girls would find it difficult to aspire to transcend these roles and work
towards gender parity. Moreover, female teachers must be trained and placed in schools to serve as positive role models for young girls, both in primary and secondary schools. Through these threefold changes, Beijing set out a transformative path for the $21^{\text {st }}$ century towards gender equality for the girl child.

The World Educational Forum, held in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, established a framework of Action to achieve Education for All (EFA) by 2015. EFA Goal is to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) and to remove gender disparities and inequalities in education. Girls and boys should have equal and full access to primary education Worldwide and should complete primary school with equal preparation and assistance to facilitate passage of required examinations and entrance into secondary school. Throughout schooling, girls and boys should experience both equal preparation and treatment within the classroom by teachers and by school advisors, such that girls and boys will emerge with comparable skills sets to enter the workforce.

The MDGs established also in 2000 at the United Nations Millennium Summit and signed by 189 heads of state around the world; outline a list of goals for developing countries to achieve by 2015 . Among the goal is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2015 and to measure the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women, in the ration of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. Thus MDG sets a high priority on
ensuring girls' equal access to primary and secondary education in order to achieve the broader objective of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls.

Most governments in Africa have now incorporated gender in their national education plan where deliberate effort is directed at eliminating the gender gap in access to education. A few governments have also started addressing the gender constraints to retention and achievements although much remains to be done in this area. Most education related international, regional and local NGO's operating in Africa have a component on gender and particularly girl's education in their programmes (ODESCRIA Bulletin, 2006).

All over the world female encounter problems as consumers and providers of education. By comparison with their male counterparts they under participate in formal education, tend to under achieve in post primary education especially in science, mathematics and technology related subjects, and are under-represented in senior and promoted posts in education service, whose decision making bodies tend to suffer from the man-as-the norm syndrome. Until recently these problems had been neglected for reasons which include: Persistent confusion between sex and gender, the prevailing power of traditional assumptions, the invisibility of important evidence and pervasiveness of gender typing.

The main question is how the education system should respond to gender disparity. There is widespread evidence that the education content, process and organization of
formal education all tend to reinforce rather than counteract the gender typing tendencies of society, the world of work and family life combining an awareness of the problems with a willingness to learn from successful experiments in different parts of the world. Education systems can overcome many of women's difficulties. Nowhere in the world do women participate equally with men. In the third world countries male enrolment out numbers female by a factor of two to three times Eshiwan (1985) and later on the gap between the enrolments of each sex grows exponentially for each year of education. Where primary education is universal and free, girls tend to do as well as boys and sometimes better. However, once out of the primary school enrolment, females under-achieve in a variety of subjects especially in physical science engineering and technology related subject (Eshiwan, 1985).

Differences due to gender should be stable and appear in all cultures if they are genuinely biologically determined; however gender differences vary widely from one culture to another. They may reflect, exaggerate or be quite independent of sex differences about gender typing. Many western countries, for example, define the family in relation to its male members; a man is automatically assumed to be the head of the house hold and families are said to die out if there are no male heirs. Countries which preserve the mothers surname are unusual.

There is a widespread controversy over the evidence about sex differences in ability. A huge field of research known as psychology of sex differences has developed and vast numbers of studies have been conducted seeking to demonstrate how sex is linked to mental differences Macoby and Jacklin (1997).

Environmental theories tend to attribute gender differences to consistently different treatment in early upbringing different pressures and expectations from the family and peer group and effects of stereotyping in society at large. There is evidence from all over the world that education systems exaggerate the effects of gender differences and do so in ways which limit the educational opportunities of females in particular. Educational delivery systems have largely been devised by men. It is hardly surprising that they suit typically male patterns of education and working life fairly well, while suiting typically female patterns rather poorly.

The most important single factor influencing women access to schooling is, whether suitable schooling is made available and accessible. Since that is a matter of public policy, it can be changed if the will is there. Women have received little attention in the history of educational thought. They have been denied the opportunity to understand and evaluate the range of ideals that educational thinkers of the past have held for them. Both Rousseau in his book Emile, and Plato in his book Republic, indicate that a gender sensitive educational ideal is required for women. A gender sensitive ideal would not imprison women in Gender.

Though research in this area is fragmentary, enough is known to establish that throughout most of the third world, females do not attend school at rates equivalent to those of males. This has been due to factors such as social background characteristic of women, cultural and religious milieu, the level of nation's economic development, availability of schooling and the schooling types offered, stereotype vocational courses, and societal attitude.

### 2.3 International Call for Provision of Education for All

Education is one of the key sectors that have been adequately documented in literature for it serves as the spring board for social and economic change. The Universal Declaration of Human Right adopted in 1948 declared that "everyone has a right for education" This call is further supported by the World Conference of Education for all held in Jamtien, Thailand in 1990 where presentation from 155 countries and 100 organizations pledged to provide education for all by the year 2000. The intentions of these country representations were that children, youth and adult would benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs. The world declaration of education for all thus defined a bold new direction in education.

The Education for all decade which culminated at the World education forum 26-28 April 2000 Dakar, Senegal, adopted the Dakar framework for actors' Education for All. This forum provided the opportunity to access the achievements, lessons and failures of the decade. The EFA 2000 assessment represented an unparallel effort to take stock of the state of basic education in the world. It is included in National assessment of the progress achieved since the Jamtein conference attended by 183 countries. They highlighted the problem encountered and gave recommended for future action.

The Forum produced a document, meeting our collective commitments, which committed governments to achieve quality basic education for all by the year 2015. Particular emphasis was put on girls schooling and a pledge from donor countries
and institutions that no country seriously committed to basic education would be thwarted in the achievement of this goal by lack of resources (World Education Forum 2000).

To achieve the EFA goals, the governments, organizations Agencies groups and associations represented at the forum pledged themselves to; mobilize strong national and international political commitment for education for all, develop national action plans and enhance significant investment in basic education. They also committed themselves to promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well integrated sector framework clearly linked to foster education and development strategies. Implement and monitoring of strategies for educational development, develop responsive, participation and an accountable system of educational governance and management (World Education Forum 2000).

Since basic education is key for development of any country, it is necessary to acquire it. From independence in 1963, Kenya in particular has been on the move trying to ensure that education is provided to all the citizens. For example, in the 1963 elections when the Kenya National Union KANU became the ruling party, it published a Manifesto entitled "What a KANU government offer you" which committed the party to offering a Minimum of seven years of free primary education (Sifuna 1990). In the 1969 (KANU) election Manifesto, the party again re-echoed its commitment to providing seven years of free primary education. A second presidential decree on 12 December 1973 during the celebration of the ten great
years of independence claimed to have brought the country close to achieving "universal free primary education". The directive provided free education for children in standard I-IV in all districts of the country.

In 1971 a presidential decree abolished tuition fees for districts with unfavourable climatical conditions because the majority of population in those areas was poor (Sifuna 1990). The aim of free primary education programme was to provide more school opportunities, especially for the poor communities notably communities in the Arid and Semi Arid Lands (ASALs). The argument was that the payment of school fees tended to prevent large proportion of children from attending school. The government also pledged to continue its programmes to building primary and secondary schools so that every child in the areas which had below average enrolment, could get an opportunity to attend school. These areas included NorthEastern province, the districts of Marsabit, Isiolo, Samburu, Turkana, West-Pokot and Mwala among others. After the directive, enrolments almost doubled in most districts except those in ASAL (Sifuna 1990).

During the 2002 general elections in Kenya, the party which formed the government National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) made the provision of Free Primary Education part of its election manifesto. Following this announcement by the government an estimated 1.5 million children who were previously out of school reported to school (Daily Nation February $3^{\text {rd }} 2003$ ). The same move was done in 2007 and in 2008 the government started Subsidised secondary education. Apparently the move did not have a great impact among the arid and semi arid area in the country.

### 2.4 The need for girls' education

The World Bank has stressed the high social rates of return to female education as an important development strategy for developing countries and this strategy is broadly agreed across a range of agencies and, governments. It is widely claimed that educated women marry later, want fewer children and are more likely to use effective methods of contraception. Large differences in fertility rates are found between those who have completed at least seven years of education and women who have not completed primary education (UN, 1995). The more educated the mother, the lower is maternal mortality and the healthier is the child produced (World Bank, 1995).

It is calculated that child mortality falls by about eight percent for each additional year of parental schooling for at least the first eight to ten years of schooling. This is explained through the use of medical services and improved household health behavior, resulting from attitudinal changes and ability to afford better nutrition and health services. Furthermore, it is stated that education increases economic productivity (World Bank 1995). Girls' education helps to achieve the goal of empowerment and autonomy of women and improves their political, social, and economic status. This is a highly important end in itself and is essential for the achievement of sustainable development. Although the World Bank has accepted the argument that investment in female education pays off through higher social benefits, this calculation has been criticized. Berhman (1991) explains that the externalities to female education are not as great as it is often claimed and are
actually realized as private benefits. Furthermore, he argues that child health and welfare and fertility reduction may be gained in a more cost-effective way by spending directly on child health and family planning rather than on female education (Baden and Green 1994).

Struggling to access education and equal rights has a long history in feminism. In the United States, feminist politics followed two initial paths in the 1960s. First from the early 1960 s, the Women's rights movement included many professional women who campaigned for equality in education employment. Education must start with girl children for they are the future women of the nation. Liberal feminists agitate for women's and girls' education to enable them move beyond the emotional, private sphere of the home into the rational, public sphere of citizenship. Tong represented this spatial division in vivid terms, writing that eighteenth century married women were birds confined to cages, with nothing to do except plume themselves and stalk with mock majesty from perch to perch (Tong, 1989). The relationship between women and their daughters is girls following the path of their mothers who are not empowered in the Ugandan societies and hence limited decision making in matters affecting their equal rights to education. Liberal feminist ideas have been extremely influential in advocating for women's rights and the need to value females as well as males (Agaba, 2007:26)

### 2.5 General Trends of girls participation in education

All over the world girls encounter problems as consumers and providers of education. By comparison with their boys counterparts they under participate in formal education, tend to under achieve in post primary education (especially in science, mathematics and technology related subjects, and are under-represented in senior and promoted posts in education service, whose decision making bodies tend to suffer from the man-as-the norm syndrome. Until recently these problems had been neglected for reasons which include: Persistent confusion between sex and gender, the prevailing power of traditional assumptions, the invisibility of important evidence and pervasiveness of gender typing.

The main question is how the education system should respond to gender disparity. There is widespread evidence that the education content, process and organization of formal education all tend to reinforce rather than counteract the gender typing tendencies of society, the world of work and family life combining an awareness of the problems with a willingness to learn from successful experiments in different parts of the world. Education systems can overcome many of women's difficulties. Nowhere in the world do women participate equally with men. In the third world countries male enrolment out numbers female by a factor of two to three times Eshiwani (1993) and later on the gap between the enrolments of each sex grows exponentially for each year of education. Where primary education is universal and free, girls tend to do as well as boys and sometimes better. However, once out of the
primary school enrolment, females under-achieve in a variety of subjects especially in physical science engineering and technology related subject (Eshiwani, 1993).

Differences due to gender should be stable and appear in all cultures if they are genuinely biologically determined; however gender differences vary widely from one culture to another. They may reflect, exaggerate or be quite independent of sex differences about gender typing. Many western countries, for example, define the family in relation to its male members; a man is automatically assumed to be the head of the house hold and families are said to die out if there are no male heirs. Countries which preserve the mothers surname are unusual.

There is a widespread controversy over the evidence about sex differences in ability. A huge field of research known as psychology of sex differences has developed and vast numbers of studies have been conducted seeking to demonstrate how sex is linked to mental differences Macoby and Jacklin (1997).

Environmental theories tend to attribute gender differences to consistently different treatment in early upbringing different pressures and expectations from the family and peer group and effects of stereotyping in society at large. There is evidence from all over the world that education systems exaggerate the effects of gender differences and do so in ways which limit the educational opportunities of females in particular. Educational delivery systems have largely been devised by men. It is hardly surprising that they suit typically male patterns of education and working life fairly well, while suiting typically female patterns rather poorly.

The most important single factor influencing women access to schooling is, whether suitable schooling is made available and accessible. Since that is a matter of public policy, it can be changed if the will is there. Women have received little attention in the history of educational thought. They have been denied the opportunity to understand and evaluate the range of ideals that educational thinkers of the past have held for them. Both Rousseau in his book Emile, and Plato in his book Republic, indicate that a gender sensitive educational ideal is required for women. A gender sensitive ideal would not imprison women in Gender.

Though research in this area is fragmentary, enough is known to establish that throughout most of the third world, females do not attend school at rates equivalent to those of males. This has been due to factors such as social background characteristic of women, cultural and religious milieu, the level of nation's economic development, availability of schooling and the schooling types offered, stereotype vocational courses, and societal attitude.

### 2.6 Factors leading to low participation of girls in secondary school

There are several factors that lead to low girl child participation in education. These factors are: Social-cultural factors, in-school factors and out -of school factors. Parents level of education, Religious factors and Economic factors

### 2.6.1 Institutional Factors Affecting Girl Child Education

The most significant factor identified was that of access to education by both genders. Girls either do not get a chance to attend school or they are pulled out first
when circumstances dictate, for example to help with agricultural duties, household duties at home to care for younger siblings or older relatives (particularly in light of the HIV/AIDS pandemic) (UNESCO2003).

Barriers preventing girls from attending school deepen in emergency situations where it is the task of the government to receive refugees being traumatized and excluded from school. Girls in this situation are disadvantaged because many get pregnant, there are long distances between home and school, and in most of the emergency settings there is shortage of proper sanitation facilities for girls. Sexual harassment by boys and male teachers is also rampant.

### 2.6.2. The influence of role models on girl child participation in school

According to Ammie Chanika (2003), student drop out of school due to lack of role models within the community and immediate family cycle, Ammie (2003) further asserts that children especially girls in Malawi drop out of schools at early age not necessary because of poverty but because they see no tangible benefits of continuing with school within district context or immediate family.

The role models in school set up that were sought is the number of female teachers in a schools and the number of schools headed by female teachers. FAWE (1997) observed that there are few female head teachers in Kenya especially in remote areas. This would be one way of boosting girl participation. Teacher attitude and views about girl participation also influence girl education. Some teachers for
example may carry society's sexist attitude to school unawares and this affects pupil's participation in learning (Mutuma, 2005).

### 2.6.3 The influence of sexual harassment on girl child participation in education

 Sexual harassment is unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, which can include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal, nonverbal, or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Thus, sexual harassment prohibited by Title IX can include conduct such as touching of a sexual nature; making sexual comments, jokes, or gestures; writing graffiti or displaying or distributing sexually explicit drawings, pictures, or written materials: calling students sexually charged names; spreading sexual rumors; rating students on sexual activity or performance; or circulating, showing, or creating e-mails or Web sites of girls who are nude.Originally coined in reference to behavior in the workplace (Mwove, 2010) the term sexual harassment also refers to unwanted sexual conduct at school. In the school setting, sexual harassment includes unwanted sexual behavior that interferes with a student's educational opportunities. Sexual harassment at school can include making verbal or written comments, making gestures, displaying pictures or images, using physical coercion, or any combination of these actions. It can take place in person or through electronic means such as text messages and social media. School staff can be harassers, but student peer-to-peer sexual harassment makes up the bulk of sexual harassment at middle and high schools (Mwove, 2010). Students who sexually harass other students are likely to have been sexually harassed themselves. Harassment
based on a victim's failure to conform to gender norms is recognized as sexual harassment. Antigay and -lesbian slurs are frequently used in gender harassment, but any student who is perceived as failing to conform to social gender norms can be the target. For example, girls may be called "lesbian" if they appear "masculine," and boys may be called "gay" or "fag" if they seem "feminine." Conversely, harassers may call girls who mature earlier than their peers "slut" or "whore" if the harasser deems them to be "too sexual" or wants to fuel rumors about their alleged sexual behavior. Gender harassment is not necessarily sexual in intent or action, but it does address the targeted student's sexuality and is used as a general pejorative to manipulate or control other students. While it also happens in high school, gender harassment is especially common in middle school (Sifuna, (1998)). The courts have recognized gender harassment as a part of sexual harassment, and thus it is subject to Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, a law that prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex at all schools that receive federal funding (Graves, 2011).

Sexual harassment in school is sometimes considered a form of bullying (Ashbaugh \& Cornell, 2008; Brown et al., 2007). Indeed, both terms refer to harming a peer or subordinate at school or work. Both bullying and sexual harassment can have negative psychological effects that interfere with education or work, and a few behaviors, such as calling someone gay or lesbian in a negative way, are sometimes considered bullying or sexual harassment or both. Distinguishing between the terms is important because they have different definitions and are regulated by different laws. Too often, the more comfortable term bullying is used to describe sexual
harassment, obscuring the role of gender and sex in these incidents (Stein \& Mennemeier, 2011). Schools are likely to promote bullying prevention while ignoring or downplaying sexual harassment (Gruber \& Fineran, 2007). As stated before, sexual harassment at school is unwanted sexual behavior (in person and online) that interferes with a student's education. Bullying is usually defined as repeated unwanted behavior that involves an imbalance of power through which the bully intends to harm the bullied student or students (Espelage \& Swearer, 2011).

Bullying is not necessarily sexual in nature, and the bully may pick a victim for any or no reason. The victim may be chosen simply because she or he is a convenient target for the bully. Sexual harassment and bullying differ in the typical age of the involved students. Bullying occurs throughout childhood, whereas sexual harassment typically begins with adolescence. Researchers have found that sexual harassment can begin as early as elementary school, but the prevalence increases in higher grades as more students enter puberty (Petersen \& Hyde, 2009). Sexual harassment at younger ages is not typically about sex itself but about gender identity. A study of middle and high school students in Canada found that sexual harassment at school appeared to increase from 6th grade to 10th grade, after which it leveled off (Pepler et al., 2006). Sexual harassment and bullying are also regulated by different laws. As explained earlier, sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Since Title 1X is a federal law, all schools that receive federal funding are regulated by it. In contrast, no federal law exists for bullying, although most states have anti-bullying legislation. Since state laws and
their effectiveness vary, numerous organizations. including AAUW, advocate for a federal anti bullying law. In April 2011 the Safe Schools Improvement Act was introduced in both the U.S. House (H.R. 1648) and Senate (S. 506). If enacted, this law would amend the Elementary and Secondary Education Act to require schools receiving federal funds to adopt codes of conduct specifically prohibiting bullying and harassment based on sexual orientation and gender identity.4school

Earlier studies have shown that girls were more likely than boys to say that they had been negatively affected by sexual harassment-a finding that confirms previous research by AAUW (2001) and others. Not only were girls more likely than boys to say sexual harassment caused them to have trouble sleeping ( 22 percent of girls versus 14 percent of boys), not want to go to school ( 37 percent of girls versus 25 percent of boys), or change the way they went to or home from school ( 10 percent of girls versus 6 percent of boys), girls were more likely in every case to say they felt that way for "quite a while" compared with boys. Too often, these negative emotional effects take a toll on students' and especially girls' education, resulting in decreased productivity and increased absenteeism from school (Chesire, 2004). Thus, although both girls and boys can encounter sexual harassment at school, it is still a highly "gendered phenomenon that is directly and negatively associated with outcomes for girls" (Ormerod et al., 2008).

According to Ammie (2003), the sex harassment is prevalent in schools in Malawi; this is seen through teachers who consider the Childs Rights Clubs as eroding their
authority. The study revealed that the school head is often seen as having absolute authority and therefore girls can do whatever they are requested to do by the head teacher including sexual advances, the study also revealed that disciplinary action is often arbitrary administered by teachers so girls are often more frightened than the boys of being punished, this makes them prone to abuse and in return they (girls) respond by seeking favours from the teachers by exchanging the favour with sex. This unbecoming behaviour by teachers is a cause of school dropout in Malawi due to Pregnancies among girls and possibly can encourage the spread of HIV/AIDS.

According to Emma Weisfield (2008), Sexual harassment, often known as "eve teasing", is a regular occurrence for the women and girls of Bangladesh. A study by the Bangladesh National Women Lawyers' Association, (BNWLA) showed that almost 90 percent of girls aged 10-18 have undergone the experience. The harassment can take a variety of forms and the perpetrators come from multiple walks of life; they are rich and poor, educated and uneducated; according to the BNWLA study, teenage boys, rickshaw pullers, bus drivers, street vendors, traffic police and often supervisors or colleagues of the working women had all been cited as "eve teasers". The study further revealed that Sexual harassment in Bangladesh increases girls' drop-out rate from school. Parents concerned about their daughter's honor or safety sometimes keep their daughters home and/or marry them off at an early age.

### 2.6.4 Government Policies on Girl Child Education

In many African countries girls' education problem and initiatives are conceptualized within the broader education system. Besides, in most cases governments focus on out of school factors and ignore in-school factors that inhibit girls' effective participation in education. There is need for a closer, responsive and formal collaboration and multi-sectoral approach to address gender issues in education in general and the education of girls and other vulnerable groups in particular.

There is need to go to the drawing board, analyze and debate the draft "Policy of Gender and Education" (2003) with an aim of making it responsive to the gender gaps in general and to the girl child in particular. As it stands today the strategies in the draft policy are too general and not focusing on the in-school factors that inhibit girls' education. Practical and sustained modalities and initiatives should be put in place and enforce to deal with and stamp out sexual harassment, gender based violence, and love affairs at the school. Parents, pupils and teachers should be sensitized on these issues and offenders dealt with severely.

The participation of GoK in the Jomtien Conference in 1990, and its subsequent endorsement of EFA Declaration, re-enforced tile commitment Kenya has on the provision of education to its citizens. The events related to the development of education sector in the country following the Jom‘ien Conference exhibit how Kenya has tried to domesticate the EFA Declarations. This was raised in National

Conference on Education for All held in Kisumu in 1992, and National Symposium on the Education of the Girl-Child held in Machakos in 1994. The participants in the two conferences who included the policy recommended for considerable expansion of educational opportunities during the period for both boys and girls. Consequently, The Government and other partners, including parents and communities, civil society, private investors, educationists and donors intensified efforts to reverse the declining enrolments and improve on quality and relevance of education and training. The provision of educational opportunities has been a standing objective of the Government of Kenya (GoK) since independence in 1963 for it is considered by different stakeholders in the country as an important vehicle for self-advancement socio-economic and political development. It has also now become clear that when educational opportunities are opened to girls and women, such benefits are even greater.

### 2.6.5 The influence of Sanitary Towels on girl child participation in education

The possible role for menstruation in limiting school attendance has received significant attention in popular media, nearly all of which argues that menstruation is likely to be a significant factor in schooling (Anne Mawathe 2006; Paulus Kayiggwa 2007; Nicholas D. Kristof and Sheryl WuDunn 2009; BBC News 2010). For example, Kristof (2009) writes: "education experts increasingly believe that a costeffective way to keep high school girls from drop;ing out in poor countries is to help provide them with sanitary products." These arguments are based largely on
anecdotal evidence; girls report missing school during their period and report limited access to modern sanitary products.

In response, a number of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and sanitary product manufacturers have begun campaigns to increase availability of sanitary products, with a stated goal of improving school attendance (Jeanette Cooke 2006; Claudia H. Deutsch 2007; Lynn Clark Callister 2008). The largest of these is a program by Proctor and Gamble, which has pledged $\$ 5$ million toward providing puberty education and sanitary products, with the goal of keeping girls in school (Deutsch 2007). The Clinton Global Initiative has pledged $\$ 2.8$ million to aid businesses who provide inexpensive sanitary pads in Africa; again, the stated goal is improvement in school and work attendance. In addition to these large scale efforts, a number of smaller NGOs (UNICEF, FAWE, CARE) have undertaken similar programs (Sowmyaa Bharadwaj and Archana Patkar 2004, Cooke 2006).

Despite the money being spent on this issue, and the seeming media consensus on its importance, there is little or no rigorous evidence quantifying the days of school lost during menstruation or the effect of modern sanitary products on this time missed. Existing evidence is largely from anecdotes and self-reported survey data. This fails to give a sense of the depth of the issue. Even if every girl reports missing school one day a year during her period, the problem may be widespread, but not large in magnitude. The evidence on sanitary products has similar problems. In this paper, we provide the first rigorous evidence on how much school girls actually miss during
their periods, and the causal effect of modern sanitary technology on school attendance. We collected daily data in Nepal on girls' school attendance and menstrual calendars for up to a year. This allows us to directly estimate the impact of periods on school attendance. Further, we randomized access to a menstrual cup (a sanitary product which is used internally during menstruation), and we evaluate the attendance impact. We first present estimates of the effect of menstruation on school attendance using official attendance data for every day of the study and time diary data for a subset of days. a studyby Emily Oster and Rebecca Thornton (2011) estimated the difference in attendance rates between days on which the girl had her period and days on which she did not, controlling for individual and calendar date fixed effects. The study established that the impact of menstruation on school attendance was significant and negative, but extremely small. In the official attendance data, girls were 2.4 percentage points less likely to attend school on days they had their period. Because girls have their period on about 8 percent of school days, this amounts to missing 0.35 days in a 180 day school year.

Other studies have shown that globally, 150 million children currently enrolled in school may drop out before completing primary school. At least 100 million of these are girls. Menstruation for girls without access to sanitary pads and underpants is a major contributor to girls dropping out of the school. Kenyan primary and secondary schools have at least 1.5 million menstruating girls, at least three fifths, or 872,000 of whom fail to attend school for four to five days of school per month due to a lack of funds to purchase sanitary pads and underwear combined with inadequate sanitary
facilities at their schools (G.C.N and M.O.E, 2006). 3.5 million Lost learning days each month impede their ability to compete in the classroom and lead to low selfesteem, high drop-out rates resulting in lower future wages and diminished economic productivity. It also makes them vulnerable to early marriage pregnancy and HIV.

On the other hand as a coping mechanism girls who lack sanitary pads often use crude and unhygienic methods, including using dry dung, or inserting cotton wool into their uterus to try to block the flow. In urban slums, girls are widely known to collect used pads from garbage dumps and wash them for their own use. These measures often result in serious health complications.

Globally, 150 million children currently enrolled in school may drop out before completing primary school - at least 100 million of these are girls. Menstruation for girls without access to sanitary pads and underpants is a major contributor to girls dropping out of school. Kenyan primary and secondary schools have at least 1.5 million menstruating girls, at least three-fifths, or 872,000 of whom become absent from school four to five days of school per month due to a lack of funds to purchase sanitary pads and underwear combined with inadequate sanitary facilities at their schools (GCN and MOE, 2006). These 3.5 million lost learning days each month impede their ability to compete in the classroom, and leads to low self-esteem, higher drop-out rates resulting in lower future wages ard diminished economic productivity, and makes them vulnerable to early marriage, pregnancy, and HIV.

On the other hand as a coping mechanism Girls who lack sanitary pads often use crude and unhygienic methods, including using dry cow dung, or inserting cotton wool into their uterus to try to block the flow. In urban slums, girls are widely known to collect used pads from garbage dumps, and wash them for their own use. These measures often result in serious health complications.


The foregoing literature shows that issues of gender equity in education have been of concern in many countries, for instance in Kenya studies by Mutegi (2005), Mutuma (2005) tried to address issues related to girl child participation in education. However, these studies focused more on internal efficiency of education with the aim of establishing causes of dropout rates, repetition rates, and low transition rates. These studies established that girl register low rates of enrolment in secondary schools, high rates of drop-out, low completion rates and high repetition rates due to cultural factors such as early marriages, Female Genital mutilation, parents preference to take girls to school, distance of the school from household, inadequate secondary schools and the high cost of education. On the other hand a study by Mwove (2010) focused on social-cultural factors affecting the girl child education in Kenya and never addresses institutional factors like administrations ability to implement government policies that address girl child access to education, provision of sanitary towel, gender imbalances in terms of female in relation to male teachers and role models. This study therefore endeavoured to address these factors.

### 2.8 Theoretical Framework

This study is based on the theory of participation by Quito (2009), the theory asserts that girl child participation in education in education strengthens and protects them from the face of the violation of rights. The theory further assets that when girls participate in education the levels of vulnerability and risk descend. According to the theory, some of the causes and conditions of the most serious violations of the rights of children are rooted in the persistence of the vulnerability of children and the asymmetry of power in the face of adults. The theory suggests that there are Social and culturally constructed conditions that lead to enveloping these situations in a cloak of silence and invisibility, which becomes the main accomplice of exploiters and abusers. This includes violence within the family and within institutions, commercial and non-commercial sexual exploitation, the provision of alcohol and drugs and all the worst forms of child labour. This theory is suitable to the study because failure of girl child to participate in education increases their vulnerability for exploitation. Therefore the study will seek to establish institutional factors like, availability of sanitary towels, head teachers commitment to the policies that protect girls child, and lack of role model.

### 2.9 Conceptual Framework

According to Orodho (2003), a conceptual framework is a model of presentation where a researcher conceptualizes or represents the relationship between variables in the study and shows the relationship graphically or diagrammatically

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework


Figure 2.1 shows that girl child participation in education is interplay of many institutional factors like Head teacher adherence to educational policies that protect girl child, provision of sanitary towels, and sexual harassment of girls in school and lack of role models from the female teachers.

## CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a detailed outline of how the study was carried out. It described the research design, the target population, the sample and sampling procedure, research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments data collection and data analysis procedure.

### 3.2 Research Design

According to Borg and Gall (1989), research design is a process of creating an empirical test to support or refute knowledge. It is also a plan and structure of investigation used to obtain answers to research questions. This study adopted a descriptive survey design, which examines variables in retrospect to establishing events which have already occurred. In this case the variables such as drop out, repetition and retention rates had already taken place and therefore they were not manipulated. The descriptive research design was suitable for this study because the researcher did not manipulate any variable since the phenomenon being observed had already taken place.

### 3.3 Target Population

A population is defined as a complete set of individual, cases or objects with similar characteristics (Mugenda, 1994). The target population for this study included all the ten secondary schools in Kajiado North District with a population of 3500 students and 200 teachers.

### 3.4 Sample size and Sampling Procedure

According to Chandran (2003) sample size is a small proportion of an entire population; a selection from the population. The sample is therefore used to make a generalization of the characteristics being investigated within the entire population.

To select the participating schools, the researcher used purposeful random sampling. This is because the study was on gender disparity and this could only be observed well in mixed schools. Since the target population is small, all the ten mixed secondary schools participated in the study. However to determine sample size for the students and teachers, the researcher used Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) who said that $10 \%$ of the total population can be sampled. Therefore guided by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) out of 700 pupils 240 of them were picked to represent $34 \%$ of the population which is way above the $10 \%$ recommended by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). To ensure equal representation simple random sampling was used to get 24 students from every school. For the teachers, 20 of them were purposively sampled where one male teacher and one female teacher was sampled. This was done to ensure that the views of both genders were sought. For the head teachers, all the ten head teachers of the participating schools were considered to participate in the study. This totaled to 270 respondents that is 240 students, 20 teachers and 10 headteachers.

### 3.5 Research Instrument

Questionnaires were the main tool for data collection. Different questionnaires were used, one category for the students, the other one for the teachers and another one for the Principals. The questionnaires had both closed and open ended questions, all the questionnaire had section A and B , where section A gathered the information on demographic information and section B gathered information on institutional factors affecting girl child participation in education.

### 3.5.1 Instrument Validity

Pre-testing was conducted to assist in determining accuracy, clarity and suitability of the research instrument (Mugenda and Mugenda 2003). The purpose of the pre-test was to assist the researcher to identity the items which were inappropriate so as to make necessary corrections, examine responses to determine the level of ambiguity of the questions and determine the percentage of responses. Pilot study was carried to validate the instruments. Two schools from neighboring districts with similar characteristics were used. Content validity was used to examine whether the instruments answered the research questions. The responses were also checked to verify whether they answered what they were intended to answer in order to ensure instruments validity. Based on the analysis of the pre-test, the researcher was able to make corrections, adjustments and additions to the research instruments.

### 3.7 Instrument reliability

In the study, reliability was assessed through the results of piloting, which was done using test-retest technique. The research instrument was administered to the same group of subjects twice in the pilot study. A two week lapse between the first and the second test was allowed.

The scores from both tests were correlated to geit the coefficient of reliability using Pearson's product moment formulae as follows: Pearson's coefficient of correlation r

$$
\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{xy}}=\frac{\mathrm{N} \sum \mathrm{xy}-\left(\sum X\right)\left(\sum Y\right)}{\sqrt{\left[N \sum X^{2}-\left(\sum X^{2}\right)\right]\left[N \sum Y^{2}-\left(\sum Y^{2}\right)\right]}}
$$

Where

N number of respondents
X scores from the first test
Y scores from the second test
The value of $r$ lies between $\pm 1$, the closer the value was to +1 the stronger the congruence. From the 10 questionnaires administers in two schools in different district for the purpose of piloting, the calculation was done and reliability coefficient was found to be 0.89 meaning that the instrument was very reliable.

### 3.6 Data Collection Procedure

Before the data was corrected permit was sought from the ministry of Education Science and Technology. The researcher then went to the schools to collect data. The questionnaires were then administered to the headteacher, teachers and the students. The researcher explained the importance of the study to the respondents and then administered questionnaires and waited for the questionnaires to be filled. The questionnaires were them picked immediately after they were filled up.

### 3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis was based on the research objectives. Responses in the questionnaire were coded and entered into the computer after creating template using the S.P.S.S (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). After data entry the data was cleaned to ensure that all the responses were correctly entered during data entry process. The data was them processed where frequency distribution tables were generated. The data was then presented using frequency distribution tables. To break the monotony pie charts and bar graphs were used. This was done by extracting data from the frequency tables generated through SPSS and then fed into Excel programme which was used to draw pie charts and bar graphs

## CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter focus on questionnaire return rate, demographic information of the respondents, data presentation, interpretation and discussion of findings. The presentation is done based on the research questions.

### 4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

Questionnaire return rate is the proportion of the questionnaires that are returned after they have been administered to the respondents. All the ten questionnaires administered to the head teachers, 20 questionnaires administered to the class teachers and 248 questionnaires administered to the form four students were returned making questionnaire return rate to be $100 \%$. This was possible because the researcher administered the questionnaires to the respondents in the morning hours and then waited for them to be filled and picked in the afternoon hours. This was done to minimize the cost of going back to pick the questionnaires and to ensure that all the questionnaires were picked.

### 4.3 Demographic Information of Respondents

This area focus on the demographic information of the respondents such as age, gender and level of education for Head teachers, form four students and form four class teachers in Kajiado North district.

### 4.3.1. Gender of the Respondents

The respondents were asked to indicate their gender, this aimed at establishing whether both gender participate in study on equal basis. The gender distribution of the respondents was as indicated in table 4.1

Table 4.1 Gender of the Respondents

| Category | Male |  | Female | total | total |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |  |
| Head teachers | 7 | 70 | 3 | 30 | 10 |
| Class teachers | 10 | 50 | 10 | 50 | 20 |
| Form 4 students | 150 | 60 | 98 | 40 | 248 |

From table 4.1 there is gender imbalance among the head teachers and form four students. For the head teachers male dominate at $70 \%$. The form four gender representation maintains the same trend with males constituting $75 \%$. However, for the class teachers there was no gender imbalance as both males and females constituted $50 \%$. A study by Chanika (2003) indicated that male teachers are the majority. The less number of female teachers as established by this study indicates that girl child participation in education is low because there are no role models for the girls to emulate since they think that education is a preserve of males.

The form four students were asked to indicate their age. This aimed at establishing the influence of institutional factors on girl child participation in education in public secondary schools. The results are as shown in table 4.2

Table 4.2 Age of the Respondents (form four students)

| Age | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $16-17$ | 50 | 20 |
| $18-19$ | 169 | 68 |
| 20 above | 29 | 12 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.2 the majority of form four students are of age bracket 18 -19 at $68 \%$ while those above 20 years were the minority. The study by Chanika (2003) agrees with this study that most of the girls in form four are between 18-19 years, so girls feel uncomfortable and shy of their age in class and this can make them have a negative attitude towards Education. The study indicates that, age is very important in Education especially girls needs to be between 16-17 years and not being too old for them to participate fully in education.

### 4.4 Student Enrolment and Aspirations

The study also sought to establish the numbers of students enrolled in form four by gender as well as the aspiration of the students in attainment of education. The
teachers were asked to indicate the number of students enrolled in from four by gender and the results are as in table 4.3

Table 4.3 Enrolment Rates in Schools

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Boys | 154 | 62 |
| Giris | 94 | 38 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.3 there were more boys than girls enrolled in secondary school at $62 \%$.
Teachers were asked to give reasons for the disparities in enrolment for the boys and girls, the results are as indicated below in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Reasons for More Boys in School than Girls

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Girls being married soon after standard 8 | 55 | 22 |
| Girls sexually harassed by both teachers and students | 50 | 20 |
| Girls being forced to do household chores as boys go to school | 45 | 18 |
| Cultural practices that barred girl child from advancement | 25 | 14 |
| Non-payment of school fees for girls in favor of boys | 24 | 10 |
| Dropout due to pregnancy/early marriages | 24 | 10 |
| Other | 14 | 6 |

From table 4.4 the main reasons given by teachers on the girl child participation in education in secondary schools is that girls were married soon after completing standard 8 as indicated by ( $22 \%$ ) of the respondents, sexual harassment of girls by male students and teachers forcing them to drop out secondary. The findings indicate that retrogressive practices are practiced on girls hindering from participating fully in Education in Kajiado North District. Other reasons included girls dropping out of school due to non-payment of school fees in favor of boy child and girls dropping out due to pregnancy/early marriages among others. The findings agree with that of Chanika (2003) that sexual harassment is prevalent in secondary schools in Kajiado North District. The findings according to this study show that male teachers and male students harass girls sexually and this makes them not able to participate fully in Education.

The study also sought to establish the dropout rates in schools. The teachers were asked to indicate the dropout rates in schools from teachers. The results are as in Tables 4.5

Table 4.5 Students Opinion on Whether Students Drop out of School

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 62 | 25 |
| No | 186 | 75 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.5, $25 \%$ of the students said that there are some students who drop out of school in the course of the year. However, the respondents were also asked to indicate the number of girls who drop out of school. The result indicated that most girls do not complete their education instead they drop-out because of lack of interests and other factors like age.

The study also sought to establish the factors contributing to high dropout rates for the girls compared to that of boys. The results are as in Table 4.6

Table 4.6 Reasons for Girls Dropping Out of School

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Male child preference at the expense of girls | 104 | 42 |
| Fear of sexual harassment | 50 | 20 |
| Early pregnancy | 45 | 18 |
| Being forced to repeat a particular class | 25 | 10 |
| Giving up due to continuous poor performance | 12 | 5 |
| Other | 12 | 5 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 4 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

From table 4.6, male child preference is the main factor contributing to girls dropping out of school; this was as attested by $42 \%$ of the students. The other factor contributing to girls dropping out of school include, fear of sexual harassment, early pregnancies, students being forced to repeat classes and girls giving up due to
continuous poor performance in examinations in that order. This shows that most of the girls feel uncomfortable once at school making them drop out or develop negative attitudes resulting into low participation in Education.

### 4.5 Sexual Harassment of Girl Child by Male Students and Male Teachers

The first objective of the study was to establish the extent to which sexual harassment hinders girl child participation in education in Kajiado north. The students were asked to indicate whether there is any sexual harassment in schools. The results are as in table 4.7

Table 4.7 Student's Opinion on Whether there is Sexual Harassment in

## Secondary Schools

| Sexual harassment of girls in schools by | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| male students and male teachers |  |  |
| Yes | 196 | 79 |
| No | 52. | 100 |
| Total | 248 |  |

From table 4.7, that there is sexual harassment in schools as reported by the majority of the students. When asked who was responsible for sexual harassment, majority students reported that it was male students, male teachers, neighbor's and other people. The students were further asked to indicate the forms of sexual harassment reported by the students. Some of the sexual harassment forms reported were vulgar language used by the boys directed towards girls. bad comments on the physical
appearance of the girls by the male students, negative comments by the teachers concerning women, emotional harassment through suggestive sexual talks and physical sexual harassment such as touching their sexual related organs and coercing them to sexual affairs. The response rate reflects that the greatly held belief on sexual harassment is basically a great problem that affect girl child participation in education and thus policies need to be put in place with specific emphasis on protecting girl child. In line with sexual harassment, the students were asked whether the school administration take measures to eliminate sexual harassments. The results are as in table 4.8

Table 4.8 Students' Opinion on Whether School Administration Takes
Measures to Curb Sexual Harassment

| Response | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 186 | 75 |
| No | 62 | 25 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.8, of the students were of the opinion that administrators take action to eliminate sexual harassment in schools. The students were also asked to indicate the actions taken by the administrators to curb sexual harassment and some of the actions reported includes, condemning sexual harassment verbally, organizing the guidance and counseling sessions for the boys and sensitize them on the dangers of sexual harassment, organizing guidance and counseling sessions for the girls to
enlighten them on the forms of sexual harassment, punishing the boys who sexually harass girls through suspension from school and interdicting teachers involved in sexual harassment. This results concurs with the situation in Malawi where disciplinary action is often arbitrary administered by teachers so girls are often more frightened than the boys of being punished, this makes them prone to abuse and in return they (girls) respond by seeking favors from the teachers by exchanging the favor with sex (Weisfield 2008)

### 4.6 The Influence of Teachers' Characteristics on Girl Child Preparation in Education

The study also sought to establish whether teachers guide and counsel students on career. The results are as in table 4.9

Table 4.9 Incidences of Career Guidance in Schools

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 174 | 70 |
| No | 74 | 30 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.9 , the majority of students ( $70 \%$ ) of the respondents were given guidance and counseling on careers by their teachers, only $30 \%$ of them were not counseled. Among the students who said that they are given career talks were asked to indicate the frequency of the guidance. Table 4.10 summarizes the findings.

Table 4.10: The Frequency of Career Guidance in Schools

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Weekly | 149 | 60 |
| Monthly | 79 | 32 |
| Annually | 20 | 8 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 4 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

From table 4.10 the frequency of career guidance in schools is mainly on weekly and monthly basis as reported by the majority of the students and very few reported that they are only given career guidance annually. This indicates that most of the girls are not guided on how to select their careers and this makes them not able to work hard in schools thus take education lightly. The study also sought to establish whether both boys and girls are given equal chances for schooling and the responses are reported in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Student's Opinion on Whether the Boys and Girls are given Equal

## Opportunities to Access Education by the government

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 134 | 54 |
| No | 114 | 46 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

As shown in Table 4.11, 54\% of the students said both girls and boys are not accorded equal opportunity in access to education. This was as attested by $54 \%$ of the students who said that boys and girls are not given equal opportunities. Some of the reasons given for unequal opportunity include; discrimination of female on gender grounds, having less girl schools in the district ( $38 \%$ ), and some parents not willing to take their children to school.

### 4.7 The influence of sanitary towels on girl child participation in education

The other objective of the study was to establish the influence of sanitary towels on girl's participation in access to education. The girls were asked to indicate whether they have ever missed school during menstruating period due to lack of sanitary towels. The results are as in figure 4.1

Figure 4.1 Impact of Sanitary Towels on Girl Access to Education


As shown in Table 4.11, 54\% of the students said both girls and boys are not accorded equal opportunity in access to education. This was as attested by $54 \%$ of the students who said that boys and girls are not given equal opportunities. Some of the reasons given for unequal opportunity include; discrimination of female on gender grounds, having less girl schools in the district ( $38 \%$ ), and some parents not willing to take their children to school.

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Figure 4.1 Impact of Sanitary Towels on Girl Access to Education


From figure 4.1, the majority of the girls said that they missed a class. This implies that a big number of the students miss classes due to lack of sanitary towels which is a worrying trend.

When asked to indicate the extent to which girls student miss classes when having monthly periods and lack sanitary towels, the head teachers said it was one of the major problems in the school concerning absenteeism of the girls. When asked how the school handled the issue, the head teachers said the school either bought sanitary towels for the affected students or sent them home to buy them.

The findings of this study mimic other studies that show that menstruation for girls without access to sanitary pads and underpants is a major contributor to girls dropping out of school. This study established that $48 \%$ of the students said that they miss school due to lack of sanitary towels hence the results replicate other studied that indicate that a huge number of girls miss classes due to menstruation.

Earlier studies indicate that the coping mechanism for girls who lack sanitary pads often use crude and unhygienic methods, including using dry cow dung, or inserting cotton wool into their uterus to try to block the flow. In urban slums, girls are widely known to collect used pads from garbage dumps. and wash them for their own use. These measures often result in serious health complications. However for this study students indicated that the coping mechanism include failure to attend classes, use of old clothes or borrow from friends who have extra sanitary towels

### 4.8 Adherence of school principle to education policies that protect girl child participation in education

The fourth objective of the study sought to establish whether students were aware of any education policy that protected girl child participation in education and the results are shown in table 4.12

Table 4.12: Student knowledge of any government policies that protect girl child

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 12 | 5 |
| No | 236 | 95 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.12 the majority of students (95\%) were not aware of any policy that protected girl child. This probably explains why some of them kept to themselves when sexual favors were demanded from them by the teachers or boys in school. The study did not probe further to find out what policies the students were aware of and what the consequences for disobedience were.

The study also sought to establish if the school principal adhered to the government policies on girl child protection and the results are shown in Table 4.13

Table 4.13: Students opinion on whether principals follow government policies protecting girl child participation in education

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Yes | 173 | 60 |
| No | 75 | 40 |
| Total | 248 | 100 |

From table 4.13 , the majority of the students ( $60 \%$ ) said that the school principals adhere to the policies that protect the girl child. This was attributed to measures taken by the principals such as punishing students and teachers who demonstrate sexual advances towards the girls, re-admission of girls in schools after delivery, giving bursaries to girls, giving career talks and admitting girls in schools with less marks than boys.

### 4.9 Measures that can be employed to Protect Girl Child Participation in

## Education

The fifth objective of the study was to establish the measures that can be put in place to ensure that girls are protected. The respondents indicated that the TSC code of regulations should be strictly adhered to where by the teachers who are involved in harassing students sexually should be severely punished. The respondents also indicated that there is need to sensitize the community to give girls equal chances to access education, giving bursaries to the girls to encourage them to be in school and admitting girls with lower marks than boys.

## CHAPTER FIVE

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter focus on the summary of Chapter one, where we have introduction, Chapter two where we have literature review, Chapter three, where we have looked at research methodology and Chapter four where there is data presentation, data analysis, data interpretation and the research findings.

### 5.1 Summary of findings

This study sought to establish the influence of institutional factors that affect girl child participation in education in public secondary schools in Kajiado North District. The study was guided by four objectives focusing on the effect of girl child harassment by teachers on participation in education, the influence of teachers characteristics on girl child participation in education, the influence of sanitary towels availability on girl child participation in education, the extent to which adherence to the government educational policies that protects girl child and on the measures that can be employed to protect girl child education.

The study adopted the descriptive survey design; the target population included all the public secondary schools in Kajiado north district. The sample size was comprised of the ten secondary school principals, 20 class teachers and 248 forms four students. Questionnaire was the main tool for data correction. The data gathered was analyzed by use of the SPSS and presented by use of the frequency tables and
charts. Through data analysis the study established that, the headship of schools is dominated by male teachers at $70 \%$ and female principals constitute $30 \%$ this indicates that girls consider education as preserve for men as indicated by more male teachers than female teachers. In the same token, the same trend is replicated as indicated by having more boys admitted in schools compared to the girls at $62 \%$ boys and $38 \%$ girls.

On gender parity, $54 \%$ of the students said that boys are given more opportunities to access education than girls. Reasons given for unequal opportunity include; discrimination of female on gender grounds ( $38 \%$ ), having less girls schools in the district, some parents not willing to take their children to school. In line with sanitary towels, $48 \%$ of the girls miss due to lack of sanitary towels while $52 \%$ did not miss classes meaning that lack of sanitary towels hinders a big number of students from accessing education in Kajiado north district.

The study also established that there are more student aged between 18-19 years in schools which is attributed to subsidized secondary school policy of education in Kenya. However, this group of over age students is more likely to drop out of school. The study also established that the reasons for the gender disparity in schools in Kajiado north district was that $22 \%$ of the girls get married soon after completing standard 8, harassment of girls by both boys and male teachers, girls being forced to do household chores at the expense of education (18\%) and due to outdated cultural practices that disadvantaged girls such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) (14\%).

Other reasons included girls dropping out school due to non-payment of school fees in favor of boy child ( $10 \%$ ) and girls dropping out due to pregnancy/early marriages (10\%), among others

The study also established that $25 \%$ of the students dropped out of school in the course within a year and majority of school drop outs are girls at 70\% compared to $30 \%$ for the boys. Some of the reason for drop out includes, fear of sexual harassment $20 \%$, being forced to repeat classes $10 \%$, students giving up due to continuous poor performance $5 \%$ and early pregnancies $18 \%$.

On sexual harassment in schools the study revealed that $21 \%$ of the student said that there is sexual harassment in schools while $79 \%$ of the respondents said that there is no sexual harassment. Among those who said that there is sexual harassment in school indicated that it takes the form of using vulgar language by the boys towards girls, bad comments on the physical appearance of the girls, negative comments by the teachers concerning women, emotional harassment through suggestive sexual talks and physical sexual harassment such as touching their sexual related organs and coursing them to sexual affairs.

The study also revealed that $75 \%$ of the administrators take action to curb sexual harassment in schools. some of the actions reported includes, condemning sexual harassment verbally, organizing the guidance and counseling sessions for the boys and sensitize them on the dangers of sexual harassment, organizing guidance and
counseling sessions for the girls to enlighten them on the forms of sexual harassment, punishing the boys who sexually harass girls through suspension from school and interdicting teachers involved in sexual harassment.

The study also revealed that $60 \%$ of the school principals adhere to the policies that protect the girl child by taking measures such as punishing students and teachers who demonstrate sexual advances towards the girls, re-admission of girls in schools after delivery, giving bursaries to girls, giving career talks and admitting girls in schools with less marks than boys.

The study also established that there are some measures that can be put in place to ensure that girl fully participate in schools, such measures are TSC code of regulations to be strictly adhered to by severely punishing the teachers who are involved in harassing students sexually, sensitizing the community in order to give girls equal chances to access education, giving bursaries to the girls to encourage them to be in school and admitting girls with lower marks than boys.

### 5.2 Conclusions

The foregoing discussion indicates that there are several institutional factors hindering the girl child participation in education. These factors include sexual harassment of girls by both male students and teachers, lack of sanitary towels that make girls miss classes during menstruation periods, some principals not adhering to educational policies that protect girl child education. This can be eliminated through
enhancing TSC code of regulations by severely punishing the teachers who are involved in harassing students sexually, sensitizing the community in order to give girls equal chances to access education, giving bursaries to the girls to encourage them to be in school and admitting girls with lower marks than boys.

### 5.3 Recommendations

In the light of the research findings the following recommendations were made:

- The government of Kenya and other education stakeholders should provide sanitary towels to girls in schools. This will help solve the problem of absenteeism in schools as a result of lack sanitary towels
- The study also recommends that the school principals should adhere to all the educational and human right policies that protect girl child in schools
- There should be no forced repetition in schools. This will curb the problem of drop-out for the girls
- Based on the high rates of sexual harassment, the study recommends the administrators to take action on the teachers and students who are involved in sexual harassment.
- Girls should be sensitised on their right so that they can fight for their right and to avoid being sexual exploitation
- More female teachers to be promoted to leadership positions in schools hence acting as role models to encourage more female students in school.


### 5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher makes the following suggestions for further research:
i) There is need to carry out a study on the institutional factors affecting girl child education in all the districts in Kenya, this will allow for comparison since every district could be having different factors
ii) A study can be carried on the social-economic factors affecting girl child education; this will enrich the findings of this study.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

## LETTER TO HEADTEACHERS

University of Nairobi
Department of Education Foundations
P.O. Box 92

KIKUYU

The Principal
Secondary school
Dear Sir/Madam

## RE: STUDY ON GENDER DISPARITY IN EDUCATION IN KAJIADO

## NORTH DISTRICT.

I am a Postgraduate student in the University of Nairobi pursuing a Master of Education degree in Educational administration. I am conducting a study on the factors causing Gender disparity in Education in your school. I am hereby seeking your permission to visit your school and interview you and your form four classes using a questionnaire.

Thank you
Yours Sincerely,

Sankok Joyce

## APPENDIX B

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FORM 4 STUDENTS

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire. Your answers will be very useful for this study on factors responsible for Gender disparity in education in Secondary schools in Kajiado North District. Please answer all the questions. There is no answer which is wrong or right. Do not write your name or the name of your school in the questionnaire. Put a tick ( ) in the boxes and fill in the blank spaces provided. Also give your opinion as requested by the question.

## SECTION A


2. Please tick ( ) your appropriate age group.

| $16-17 \mathrm{yrs}$ | $\square$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $18-19 \mathrm{yrs}$ | $\square$ |

Over 20 yrs $\quad \square$
3. How long have you been in this school?
i) Since form one $\square$
ii) From form 2 $\square$
iii) From form three $\square$
iv) Just joined in form four $\square$

## SECTION B

1. Indicate the highest level would like to attain in education

Secondary education $\square$
College level $\square$
University education - First Degree


Any other (Specify)
2. If secondary education, what will make you not continue with college education $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
3. (a) Do your teachers give you talks on career?

Yes $\square$

No $\square$
(b) If yes to question 21 (a) above, how often.

Weekly


Monthly $\square$

Annually $\square$
4. In your own opinion, do you think boys and girls are given equal chances for schooling in you school?
a) Yes $\square$
b) $\quad \mathrm{No}$ $\square$
5. If yes, who is more favored
a) Boys

b) Girls

6. If yes give reasons
7. If girls give reasons
8. Are there cases of sexual harassment $t$ in your school?
a) Yes
b) $\quad \mathrm{No}$

9. If yes by who
10. In your own opinion does the administration do anything to stop it
a) Yes

b) No

11. Do you know of any government policy that protects girls child?
a) Yes

b) $\quad \mathrm{No}$ $\square$
12. If yes in your opinion does your principal follow the policies?
a) Yes $\square$
b) $\quad$ No

13. If no to 12 above give possible reasons for non adherence
14. Give suggestions on what can be done to ensure equity in access to education by both gender

## APPENDIX C

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FORM FOUR CLASS TEACHERS

## Instructions

This study seeks to establish institutional factors that hinder girl child participation in secondary school in Kajiado North District. You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire. Please answer all the questions. There is no answer which is wrong or right. Do not write your name or the name of your school in the questionnaire. Put a tick $(\sqrt{ })$ in the boxes and fill in the blank spaces provided. Also give your opinion as requested by the question

## PART A

1. Please indicate your gender? (Tick the right choice)


Female

2. How long have you been teaching $\qquad$ ?
3. (a) Have you been the class teachers for this class since form one?

Yes


No

(b) If No since when?
4. Please indicate the number of girls and boys in your class
a) Boys

b) Girls

5. (a) If the number of boys in more, give reason.
6. (a) Are there students who have dropped out of school in the course of the year?

(b)Please indicate the number of boys and girls who dropped last year 2011

No of Boys $\square$ No of girls

7. From the following reasons listed please indicate the ones that are mainly associated with girls drop out. Indicate as many as possible.
a) Early pregnancy

b) Male child preferences at expense of girls

c) Fear of sexual harassment
d) When forced to repeat particular class $\square$
e) Giving up due to continuous poor performance $\square$
f) Any other specify
8. Are there cases of sexual harassment $t$ in your school?
c) $\quad \mathrm{Yes}$ $\square$
d) No $\square$
9. If yes by who $\qquad$
10. In your own opinion does the administration do anything to stop it?
a) Yes

b) No $\square$
11. Do you know of any government policy that protects girls child?

Yes


No $\square$
12.If yes in your opinion does your principal follow the policies?

Yes


No

13. If no to 12 above give possible reasons for non adherence. $\qquad$
14. Give suggestions on what can be done to ensure equity in access to education by both genders

## APPENDIX D

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

## Instructions

The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate Gender disparity in Education in secondary schools in Kajiado north district. Kindly respond to the following questions. Be truthful and honest to the best of your knowledge. The answers you give will only be used for the purpose of this study.

Do not write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.

## PART A

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Indicate you gender.


Female $\square$

1. How long have you been teaching?
$0-5 \mathrm{yrs}$ $\square$
$6-10 \mathrm{yrs}$ $\square$
11-15 yrs $\square$
Above 16yrs $\square$
2. How long have you been the principal?
$0-5 \mathrm{yrs}$ $\square$
$6-10 \mathrm{yrs}$ $\square$
11-15 yrs $\square$
Above 16yrs $\square$

## PART B

I (a) Is the number of boys equal to the number of girls in your school?
Yes

No

(b) If no who are more?
i) Boys

ii) Girls $\square$
c).If the number of boys is more; would you attribute it to school factors?

Yes


No $\square$
2. If yes, what institutional factors affect girls affect girl child
a. Admission criteria $\square$
b. Girl child harassment $\square$
c. Lack of role models from female teachers

d. Lack of sanitary towels

e. Any other specify $\square$
f. Conflict with teachers
g. When forced to repeat particular class
h. Giving up due to poor performance $\square$
6. Can you please comment on male teacher discrimination of Girls in their teaching?
7. Which of the following aspect of discrimination towards girl's student do you see among teachers in your school? Choose as many responses as possible.

- Using teaching material that favors male students.
- Portraying female as an inferior sex in their speech.
- Giving boys/men prominence as active players in business world
- Failure to encourage girls to perform well in class
- Use of sexist terms that are gender biased e.g. chairman, policeman etc
- Open favoritism towards male student
- Making negative comment about girls in public

8. (a) Do you have initiatives/activities/programs to improve girl child access to education in your school?

Yes ( ) No ( )
(b). If your answer is 'yes', please list your initiatives
i. $\qquad$
ii. $\qquad$
iii. $\qquad$
c) If no give reason.
$\qquad$

## APPENDIX E

## RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION



## NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telephone: 254-020-2213471, 2241349
254-020-310571. 2213123. 2219420
Ffr: 254-020 31B245, 318249
When reply ing please quote
secretary nest po.be
NCST/RCD/14/012/811
Our Ref:
Joyce Mugure Sankok
University of Nairobi
P.O Box 30197

Nairobi
P.O. Bow $30623-00100$

NAIROAIKENYA
Website: www.nct go.ing

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22nd June 2012
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Date:

## RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "Influence of instifutional factors on girl child participation in education in public secondary schools in Kajiado Norsh District" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake rescarch in Kajiado North Dlstrict for a period ending 3/st August, 2012.

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

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

DR. M. K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC.
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY
Copy to:
District Commissioner
District Education Officer
Kajiado North District.

## APPENDIX F

## DISTRICT COMMISSIONER RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

## OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT



REF: EDU.12/23/VOL.I/44

Joyce Mugure Sankok, University of Nairobi, PO Box 30197. NAIROBL.

DISTRICT COMMISSIONER NORTH DISIKICT

NGONGHILLS


## RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Your request to undertake an education research on 'Influence of institutional factors on girl child partacipation in education in public schools in Kajiado Noth District' has hereby been granted. It is understond that you will conclude your research by 31" Auguat 2012.

By a copy of this letter, the Administrative Officers in the fiek are asked to offer the necessary assistance.

A. K. KOLUM

FOR: DISTRICT COMMISSIONER KAJLADO NORTH DISTRICT

Cc:
All District Officers, KAIIADO NORTH DISTRICT

## APPENDIX G

## MINISTRY OF EDUCATION RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION



## APPENDIX H

## RESEARCH PERMIT



