SCHOOL BASED FACTORS INFLUENCING GIRLS’ RETENTION
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS; A CASE OF DADAAB REFUGEE
CAMP GARISSA COUNTY KENYA

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A Research Report Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Award of degree of Master of Education in
Education in Emergencies

University of Nairobi

2013
DECLARATION

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

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my brothers, Late Victor Kavulu and Late Stephen Kavulu, for the strong foundation they laid for us, their younger siblings, in education and the spirit of determination to succeed in life they cultivated in us. This work is also a dedication to my brothers, Kitheka Kavulu and Muli Kavulu, inspiring them to aim above this level in academics.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I Thessalonians 5: 16-18. To God be the glory always for this is nothing else but His favor in my life.

I am indebted to my father Kavulu Kasamba and my mother Josephine Kaniki for the incomparable sacrifice they have made to see me reach this level in academics. Much thanks to my supervisors Dr. Rosemary Imonje and Caroline Ndirangu for their selfless dedication of their expertise in ensuring that I conducted this research. They ensured I had all the support I needed from them for carrying out this study.

I am very grateful to my sponsor, International Rescue Committee from United States of America for fully funding my master’s course. You truly took me “from Harm to Home.” Many thanks go to Country Director of Windle Trust Kenya, Dr. Marangu for offering me an internship in his organization. I thank Windle Trust Kenya management team in the field for ensuring that I got all the support I needed to conduct the research successfully. Thanks to the Dagahaley secondary school principal, Mr. Dualle for the balanced teaching workload and permissions you granted generously when I needed them for the purpose of this study. All respondents across the sampled schools in Dadaab refugee camp deserve a pat on their backs for sparing their time to provide me with data for this study. Principals and teachers of all the sampled secondary schools thank you very much for your direct involvement in organizing students to fill the questionnaires. Many thanks go to the library staff of Kikuyu campus for their support. May God bless you all. Amen.
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<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AVSI</td>
<td>Association of Volunteers in International Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARE</td>
<td>Cooperative Assistance Relief Everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INEE</td>
<td>Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPs</td>
<td>Implementing Partners</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>Postgraduate Diploma in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RET</td>
<td>Refugee Education Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>WTK</td>
<td>Windle Trust Kenya</td>
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ABSTRACT

Girls’ retention in schools has been found to be a major challenge. Failure to retain girls in secondary schools can be considered as a waste of potential human resources and money spend on them in primary education and time lost in sending them to school in the first place. These girls may become a breed of illiterate women who are less productive economically, socially and politically. They may also turn up in adult literacy classes later. This study was conducted with the aim to investigate school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp. The research objectives were thus to determine the influence of cost of secondary education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school on the retention of girls in Dadaab refugee camp. These factors were put in a conceptual framework to demonstrate their relationship with retention of girls.

Literature review was conducted on the bases of these variables. The study adopted the classic ecological model of child development as its theoretical framework. The research used descriptive survey design. Using purposive sampling, five secondary schools which had been in existence for at least four years were sampled for this study. The sample size for the study constituted 5 principals, 20 teachers and 122 Form 3 and Form 4 students. The data was collected using three sets of questionnaires for principals, teachers and students. The data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics in frequency tables, pie charts and bar charts with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software.

The main findings of the study indicated that the cost of education was a major contributor to girls’ drop out hence reducing girls’ retention rates in schools. The findings also indicated that girls missed school during their menstruation because sanitary facilities were inadequate. The study also found that the girls preferred equal number of teachers and in the event that teachers of a certain gender were to be dominant, then girls preferred more female teachers. It was noted that all the female teachers knew of girls who were at risk of leaving school before completing their education. Girls were reported to be more comfortable in company of female teachers. However, most of the schools were male-teachers dominated.

As far as distance to school was concerned, most of the students were found to take at least two hours to and from school walking on foot. It was found that girls were mainly faced with challenges of sexual harassment and being bullied by boys on their way to or from school. The study concluded that the schools were not girl-friendly. Various measures were therefore recommended to improve the situation. Construction of more girls’ toilets, recruitment of more female teachers and free provision of stationery and other school supplies are some of the recommendations which were put forward.

Further areas of research suggested were; carrying out a study on getting girls safely to school and a feasibility study on starting a boarding school for girls was suggested to be worthy conducting.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Education is increasingly recognized as the ‘fourth pillar’ of humanitarian aid in times of crises, along with food and water, shelter and health care (Machel, 2001). United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) is in charge of refugees’ affairs, education not an exception. The primary mandate of relief organizations is limited to activities of direct provision of food, shelter, water and other essential services. Education in emergencies is only just beginning to achieve some stature among the spectrum of these vital relief interventions (Kagawa, 2005).

The urgent priorities for life-saving assistance distract experts and professional aid workers who develop policies and approaches which guarantee survival of the body while aid beneficiaries struggle to preserve their minds and the souls of their societies through education. Economic development, education, and personal dignity are dismissed because “lives must be saved”. The harsh reality of life in exile is that population displacements due to political upheaval and conflict can last for decades. In a context where families and communities are divided or dispersed by the upheaval of conflict, schools are seen as the key institutions that will play the major role in rebuilding core
values, in instilling new democratic principles and in helping children recover lost childhood (Buckland, 2005). Education services delivered during times of crises and under these conditions of displacement are meant to support simultaneously children’s cognitive and emotional development, while including additional educational content relevant to the crisis circumstances (Sommers, 2004).

Since the end of the cold war, there has been an increase in organized violence in the form of war, civil strife, armed conflict and political oppression. A new ideology of humanitarian intervention and protection emerged in the international community as a response to these organized crises in 1990s. It is during 1990s when education in emergencies as a field of study came to the fore (Kagawa, 2005). Education is nowadays recognized as a basic human right enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Refugee Convention and related Protocols, the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Guiding Principles of Internal Displacement, and the Geneva Conventions.

Education in emergencies is a lifeline for children and youth imperiled in a bleak and interminable exile (Martone, 2010). A refugee camp is a young place; it is overwhelmingly populated by youth. It is estimated that as many as 25% of girls and women of reproductive age in a refugee camp are pregnant with poor access to health care and little opportunity for education.
Opportunities for education can reduce pregnancy rates. Controlling pregnancy rates reduces death due to obstetrical complications. From this perspective, education can be lifesaving. More than half a million girls and women die each year during pregnancy and childbirth. Of these deaths, 99% of them occur in developing countries (Ban Ki-Moon, 2007).

Education in emergency settings is also a useful forum for disseminating vital survival information such as awareness of landmines and unexploded ordinance, tolerance and conflict resolution skills, and even basic rumor control. In addition, extending a girl’s schooling has been proven to delay marriage and childbearing. The expansion of secondary education may be the best single policy for achieving substantial reductions in fertility. Each year of a girl’s schooling results in a 5% to 10% reduction in infant death. Maternal education results in fewer and healthier children (Dolan, 2007).

Various challenges confronting the retention of students in education have been evident in different parts of the globe. Firstly, lack of economic resources available to the refugee students and their families pose a severe challenge to educational retention for the students. Some students seek full-time jobs to support themselves and the family members as Kanu (2008) found in Canada where one student indicated: “I am always tired. I get home every night past midnight, after the cinema where I work closes and I have to catch two buses.”
I have to get up at 6.00am to be in school for 8.30am. I am not getting good grades” (student). Sometimes, following a large-scale bulk distribution of commodities in refugee camp, it is not surprising to find that the aid recipients sell or trade such distributions to buy school supplies.

More than 77 million school-aged children around the world are not in school. Even more astounding is an additional 150 million children who have been forced to drop out of school due to the pressures of their family’s poverty. The impact is even greater on girls. Plan International (2007), reported that there are actually more girls around the world who don’t attend school than there are girls in all of North America and Europe. The problem is even more acute in war-torn countries.

Education continues to be grossly underfunded in all UN Humanitarian Consolidated Appeals Processes (CAP); it is consistently among the least funded sectors in all relevant CAPs. This continued lack of funding for education in emergencies has resulted to scarce teaching and learning materials not being even enough to cover even the current low enrolment rates (Martinez & Lundy, 2012). Official development donors allocate proportionately higher funding to middle-income countries (49%) than low-income countries (33%) and even less (18%) to conflict affected countries. Of the meager funding for global education initiatives, donors tend to apportion less funding to the countries that need it most. This exemplifies one of the
biggest challenges in enabling Education Cluster agencies and partners to deliver education to the most vulnerable children (girls).

Conventional short-term funding cycles as well as lack of assessment of what refugees need continue to promote knee-jerk responses to crisis. Lack of pursuing a multi-year funding cycles from major donors has led to the crisis-driven ethos that currently permeates the humanitarian culture. Funding for education is not just a moral issue; it is a matter of national interest and global peace and security. Dolan (2007) noted that United States (U.S) allocates 3 percent of its development assistance to educational programming yet it (United States) incurs colossal expense on the war on terror. The U.S. government spent more money on one minute of Cruise Missile attacks in 1998 in Afghanistan than they had contributed over the previous 10 years for educational development in that country (Singer, 2006). Considering the colossal expense of the war on terror, the question is not how education for refugees’ girls can be funded but rather how donors and governments of developed countries can afford not to.

In addition, lack of female teachers poses challenge to girls’ retention in schools. Kirk (2006) reported that there is evidence to show a correlation between the number of women teachers and girls’ enrollment, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. In countries where there are more or less equal numbers
of male and female teachers, there is close to gender parity in student intake. A female role model can support and encourage girls to successfully complete their studies and maybe even continue studying to become teachers, themselves.

Thirdly, in most refugee settings, acceptable school opportunities are often very far from the refugees themselves. Rezzonico (2011) found that in a returnee village in Mauritania one secondary school served young people from approximately 20 surrounding villages as far as seven kilometers. In general, it is socially acceptable for boys to travel distances, making location of schools a greater problem for girls, especially in rural areas. World Health Organization (2001) reported that women and girls in Afghanistan who walk without male accompaniment are actually punished. In June 2012, there were more than 202,700 refugees from Mali in Mauritania, Burkina Faso, and Niger, with many refugee children not enrolled in formal education programmes. Although some schools have been built around the camp, they are insufficient, and government schools in the neighboring villages are often more than 10 km away. Trekking long distances to school would expose these children to risks including assault, kidnapping and forced recruitment into armed groups. The Education Cluster estimates that 80% of Malian refugee children of school age do not have access to school (Martinez & Lundy, 2012).

Fourthly, some schools as well as parents do not provide sanitary towels yet active participation of adolescent girls in school during their monthly periods
may depend on availability of sanitary towels for use and access to clean toilets separate from those used by boys as well as a water supply. Government of Kenya (2006) formulated a policy to ensure improved performance and retention of girls in schools. In case of lack of sanitation facilities, girls may choose to stay at home and some of them eventually may give up schooling.

While data are limited, secondary school enrolment in Kenya was 52% in urban refugee-hosting areas, in Dadaab camp, 21% and Kakuma camp 19% (UNHCR, 2009). Despite the low enrolment, retention of girls in Dadaab refugee camp’s secondary schools has been a challenge as reflected in the Table 1.1 below.
Table 1.1

Enrolment of students in Dadaab refugee camp’s secondary schools, 2009 to 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 1</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 2</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 3</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 4</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1942</td>
<td>2086</td>
<td>2140</td>
<td>3205</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Windle Trust Kenya (WTK), 2012

From the table 1.1, in 2009, 588 boys were enrolled in Form 1 and 523 (89 %) of them were in Form 4 in 2012 while out of the 263 girls who were in Form 1 in 2009, only 192 (73 %) were in Form 4 in 2012. There was thus a failure to retain 27% of this cohort of girls.

As most countries in the world are committed to achievement of Education for All (EFA) goals by 2015, there is no allowance to lose even a single girl from secondary education system. Since it is a fact that there is need for access, retention, participation and completion of secondary education by all girls, even in protracted emergencies; this study aims at investigating school-based
factors influencing girls’ retention in Dadaab refugee camp. Lower retention of girls than boys may result into deplorable gender disparity in secondary education if the few girls who have managed to qualify to join secondary schools experience a further decline in the course of their education.

1.2. Statement of the problem

High retention of girls in refugee secondary schools has been eluded. Tracking 2009 cohort for a period of four years up to 2012, the gross retention rate of girls in Dadaab refugee camp’s secondary schools was 16% lower compared to that of boys (see table 1.1 above). There was a higher declining trend among the girls than boys as this cohort transited from Form 1 to Form 4. Challenges to retention of girls at secondary schools may be attributed to many school-based factors.

Failure to retain girls in secondary schools can be considered as a waste of potential human resources and money already spent on them in primary education and time lost in sending them to school in the first place. These girls may turn up in adult literacy classes later. They may also become a breed of illiterate women in the camp who are less productive economically, socially and politically in the host country in case of integration or in home country after repatriation or resettlement (INEE, 2010); thus the need to conduct research to establish school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in Dadaab refugee camp.
1.3. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp.

1.4. Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study were:

i) To determine the extent to which cost of secondary education contributes to girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp.

ii) To examine how sanitation facilities influence girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp.

iii) To establish how female teachers affect girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp.

iv) To assess the extent to which distance from home to school influences girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp.

1.5. Research questions of the study

From the above objectives, the following research questions were formulated:

i) To what extent does the cost of secondary education contribute to girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp?

ii) How do sanitation facilities influence girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp?
iii) How do female teachers affect girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp?

iv) To what extent does distance from home to school influence girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp?

1.6. Significance of the study

The findings of this study may be useful to the UNHCR’s implementing partners such as Windle Trust Kenya (WTK) in developing an effective retention rate framework for girls in secondary schools to achieve higher girls’ retention rate and to the principals in making their schools to be girl-friendly. Parents of such schools may consider supplementing the schools’ efforts to retain girls. Donors such as UNHCR, UNICEF and UNESCO may use the findings of this study to formulate and finance policies which provide for high retention of girls so that all girls who enroll in Form 1 are able to complete their secondary education. NGOs may use the findings of this study to mount programmes specifically to improve girls’ retention in secondary schools in the camp. Findings of this study may stimulate further research in the field of education in emergencies.

1.7. Limitations of the study

Data was collected from students who were in schools who may have limited knowledge of what actually led their schoolmates to leave school thus using of triangulation. Triangulation was done by asking similar questions to different respondents in order to obtain dependable responses. Data collection was a
life risking action due to high insecurity that posed a challenge to movements within the camp.

1.8. Delimitations of the study

The study was delimited only to secondary schools inside Dadaab refugee camp that had been in existence for at least four years which was seen by the researcher as a period long enough to assess the retention of a cohort of girls enrolled in secondary schools as per the Kenya secondary education cycle. The study was also delimited to school-based factors to girls’ retention in secondary schools and not community-based, social-economic factors and students’ competencies that may be a challenge to girls’ retention in secondary schools.

1.9. Assumptions of the study

This study was premised on a number of assumptions. These included:

i. The respondents distinguished school-based factors from household, cultural or psychological factors that may be an obstacle to girls’ retention in secondary schools in the camp.

ii. The respondents gave information that adequately represented secondary schools in the camp.

iii. The secondary education programme in the camp was to have a perpetual life into the future.
1.10. Definition of significant terms

Access refers to the ability of an individual student to have admission into the school system or to be enrolled.

Cohort refers to a group of students who enroll in the first grade of secondary school cycle at the same time and share similar characteristics in terms of age, entry behavior and level of academic achievement.

Education in emergencies refers to quality learning opportunities for all ages in crises aimed to provide physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection that can sustain and save lives.

Gender equality refers to women and men having same conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural and political development.

Gender equity refers to the process of being fair to both men and women. Equity is the means equality is the result.

Home for the purpose of this study, home refers to blocks within the camp where the refugees reside in or places where students live when not in school.

Participation refers to taking active part in secondary schools activities such as reading, writing, discussing, writing examinations or tours by girls.

Refugee refers to someone who is in Kenya and accepted in the country by the government of Kenya (GoK) according to provisions of the 1951 Refugee Convention.

Retention refers to the ability of a student to remain in school after enrollment until the completion of that level to which he or she has been enrolled.
School-based factors in this study refer to cost of secondary education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school that may influence the retention of girls in those schools.

1.1. Organization of the study

This study comprises of five chapters. The first chapter consists of the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions of the study, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations of the study, basic assumptions of the study and definition of significant terms as used in the study. The second chapter reviews the literature related to the study and ends with the perceived conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter three concerns itself with research methodology and describes the methodology used in the study which is divided into various components namely research design, target population, sampling technique and sample size, research instruments, validity of the instruments, reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques.

Chapter four presents data analysis, research findings and discussion of the findings. Chapter five comprises of summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendations. It also suggests possible areas for conducting further research.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This section covered the following areas of discussion: influence of cost of education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school on retention of learners in education. In order to appreciate the work of other scholars, the researcher used the results of studies by various scholars to conduct the literature review and ended with the perceived conceptual framework of this study.

2.2. Influence of cost of education on retention of girls

Education as a public good requires investment from various stakeholders. Access to post-primary education is a priority for refugees at present. Post-primary opportunities are also central to the EFA goals, especially Goal 3: “Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs.” By the end of 1980s, there was a transformation of focus within UNHCR away from individual refugee children scholarships and towards basic education systems for all refugees under the funding and direction of UNHCR (UNHCR, 2007).

The EFA Global Monitoring Report of 2011 argues that secondary school is the “cornerstone of education for youth” and that “formal education is the
most effective base for developing learning and life skills” (UNESCO, 2011). Post-primary refugee education is part of the long-term vision, and a component of immediate, reportable targets in both the 2007-2009 and the 2010-2012 Education Strategies which are being reinforced by the allocation of funds, up from 20% of the education budget in 2010 to 29% of the budget in 2012 (UNHCR, 2007, 2009). While encouragingly on the rise, these educational resources remain inadequate given that the rationales for post-primary investment are overwhelming.

The commonly held perception among some staff at UNHCR and predominantly in the field is that “we work on primary education.” There is great skepticism about investments in post-primary education when primary education is not universal (Dryden-Peterson, 2011). Thus, it remains difficult to secure funding for post-primary refugee education. Without continued investment in secondary education, the cadres of high quality future teachers (especially female teachers) for both primary and secondary education are limited, which pose a challenge to post-conflict reconstruction (Buckland, 2005; Shriberg, 2007).

Access to education for refugees is related to adequate financial resources. Various sources of data on primary school enrolment ratios and available resources for instance, tend to render a picture of the connection between financial resources and refugees’ access to education. There is a medium-strength, positive correlation between Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and
percent of educational needs funded; when funding needs are met there is a greater likelihood that GER will be higher. To address the issue of lack of financial resources for refugee education, UNHCR has piloted a strategy of identifying priority countries in order to target available resources toward meaningful impact. Among several priority countries where this targeting of limited educational resources is employed, there has been a marked positive percentage change in primary GER (UNHCR, 2008, 2009).

Lack of economic resources to the refugee students and their families pose a severe challenge to the students’ retention in schools. Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research Analysis (2006) noted that the high cost of teaching, learning materials, extra expenses, capital developmental project costs and other levies contribute to overall cost burden of secondary education in Kenya. Teachers may also recover their salaries by pressuring students to provide money. UNHCR Malaysia drew on INEE Minimum Standards to devise a scheme to pay refugee teachers in community schools in Kuala Lumpur (Kaun, 2011).

Many children are forced to drop out of school in slow-onset emergencies to support their families by doing household work or income-generating activities (Martinez & Lundy, 2012). Some refugees even trade food they receive from World Food Programme (WFP), even though it isn’t enough, in order to afford schooling (Women’s Commission for Refugee Women and
Some students seek full-time jobs to support themselves and the family members (Kanu, 2008).

Refugee education can be prohibitively expensive in terms of both direct school levies and opportunity costs such as the loss of household labour, especially for girls. Creative strategies to promote girls’ education, such as ensuring that the timing of the school day fits with girls’ domestic chores are thus worthy exploring to enable more girls access education. Prohibitive cost of secondary education compounded with the fact that only girls who complete primary school and pass the examination can access secondary education; places girls at a particular disadvantage. As a matter of comparison, in camp settings in Eastern and Horn of Africa, only five girls enroll in secondary school level for every ten boys (UNHCR, 2010).

In Uganda’s Kyangwali refugee settlement, the extent of this barrier of cost of education was evident in the practice of secondary students from Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) returning to primary school in order to sit for Primary School Leaving Examinations (PLE) that would allow them to qualify for free universal secondary education (Wettstein, 2011). Among the many millions of refugee children and adolescents in the world, over one-third is out of school with no hopes of ever seeing the inside of a classroom (Dolan, 2007) while that notwithstanding, there is great skepticism about investments in post-primary education when primary enrolment is not universal and post-primary opportunities are more expensive and difficult to co-ordinate
Yet for refugee children, both boys and girls, only six percent are enrolled in secondary schools (Editorial, New York Times, June 25, 2005).

2.3. Influence of sanitation facilities on retention of girls

Menstruation is a normal, natural process that occurs in all healthy adolescent girls and adult women whom have not reached menopause. In the lifetime of a woman, she has to manage 3,000 days of menstruation. Girls begin to menstruate normally between eight and twelve years (Nahar & Ahmed, 2006). Yet there are still many issues regarding the practical needs and strategic interests of girls which are absent from the discussions of educational policymakers. Menstrual hygiene and management is one of them. These are attitudes rooted in a culture of silence, taboos and religion, which define issues on sanitation as “no-go areas of discussion”.

An example of real life situation is given by Nahar & Ahmed (2006) drawn from Bangladesh that:

An eleven year old girl used rags to manage her menstrual blood. A harmful insect settled on her rag as it was drying for reuse. She put on the rag without noticing the insect. The insect entered her body causing serious stomach pains to her. She died after a week while hospitalized.

Sanitation issues can’t be regarded as “no-go areas of discussion” any more if lives are to be saved and sustained.
The knowledge and life skills required to maintain a healthy life are usually learnt from families, neighbors and school. However, adolescent girls learn little or nothing regarding menstrual management from home. The school can provide an alternative for children to learn management of menstrual hygiene (Nahar & Ahmed, 2006). The Dakar recommendation (Global Wash Forum December 2004 held in Dakar) recognized that “national and sectoral policies and budgets must prioritize School Sanitation Hygiene Education in terms of the need of hardware and software”. Across the developing world, the lack of appropriate and adequate sanitation facilities prevent girls from attending school, particularly when they are menstruating.

There is evidence to show that girls’ attendance increases once hygiene, water and sanitation facilities are available. Women and girls need to change their sanitary napkins three or four times a day during the period of menstruation especially in the first three days. Back to Bangladesh, there are around 17,000 secondary schools in the country. In most of these schools, there is a serious lack of adequate functioning water and sanitation facilities. Under these circumstances, menstrual management by girls during their periods becomes extremely difficult. In such cases girls, especially, during their menstrual periods, make their own (often unhygienic) arrangements or simply skip school (Nahar & Ahmed, 2006).

Kenya Education Sector Support Programme document is a policy framework developed to ensure that girls attain quality education at all levels (GoK,
It supports all attempts made to promote performance and retention of girls. Sanitation facilities are of particular importance to adolescent girls and mostly those who are menstruating, and those whose active participation in school during their monthly periods may depend on access to clean toilets separate from those used by boys and a water supply.

Some schools as well as parents do not provide sanitary towels so girls choose to stay at home to avoid soiling their skirts and stay in unhygienic conditions during menstruation periods. In other schools, there is no water in girls’ toilets and even such toilets have no shutters so boys will always try to peep at girls while inside the toilets. This breeds a culture of shame and embarrassment that can eventually force girls to drop out of school.

INEE (2010) recommends minimum standards to be adhered to in provision of sanitation facilities. To prevent sexual harassment and abuse to girls, separate toilets for boys and girls should be located in safe, convenient and easily accessible places. The sanitation facilities should be accessible for persons with disabilities and should maintain privacy, dignity and safety. Sphere guidelines which now acknowledge the minimum standards, call for one toilet for every 30 girls and one toilet for every 60 boys. If provision of separate toilets is not initially possible, arrangements can be made to avoid girls and boys from using the toilets at the same time.
2.4. Importance of female teachers on girls’ education

Currently, the first UNHCR indicator of quality for refugee education is the number of teachers per student. Teachers matter more than any other single factor for quality of learning in schools (Reimers, 2006). These teachers determine the effectiveness of refugee education. Poor quality education reduces demand and thus enrolment and persistence (Winthrop & Kirk, 2008). Investment in the supply of quality teachers is therefore critical to achieving the goals of access and quality outlined in the UNHCR Education Strategy (UNHCR, 2009).

The recruitment of women teachers is an issue that has become increasingly important to Ministries of Education (MoE), Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and other agencies supporting educational developments. The need to increase girls’ enrolment is an important reason for giving greater policy and programming attention to women teachers, but it should not be the only reason. The need to provide quality education in a safe and secure environment should also inform this policy formulation and programming. Education can provide protection, but only when schools are physically safe, psychologically and emotionally healing, and cognitively transformative (Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003). Protection is related to access, attendance, participation, retention and completion of education. Learners will choose not to attend school or will drop out if they experience or perceive a lack of safety and security on any or all of these three dimensions of protection.
UNHCR uses four standards to measure the protective environment of schools namely the percentage of students with specific needs attending Grades 1-6; the number of female teachers as a percentage of all teachers; the number of refugee teachers as a percentage of all teachers; and the presence of a School Management Committee (SMC). The presence of female teachers therefore can play a role in creating a secure environment for girls (Dryden-Peterson, 2011).

One of the most compelling arguments for increasing the number of women teachers in schools relates to the positive impact that doing so has on girls’ education. Kirk (2006) reported that there is evidence to show a correlation between the number of women teachers and girls’ enrollment, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. In countries where there are more or less equal numbers of male and female primary teachers, there is close to gender parity in student intake. In contrast, countries where female teachers constitute only 20 per cent of all teachers, there are far more boys than girls entering school.

In some conservative communities, parents will not allow their daughters to be taught by a male teacher. This is the case in some areas of Afghanistan, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Even where the presence of male teachers is not necessarily a barrier to girls’ enrollment, parents may prefer women teachers to men. The placement of a female teacher, therefore, can have an immediate impact on access to education by the girls (Kirk, 2006).
The presence of women teachers in schools can also impact positively on girls’ retention in school and on their achievement. A female role model can support and encourage girls to successfully complete their studies and maybe even continue studying to become teachers, themselves. She can also be there to listen to any problems and provide guidance when necessary. The presence of one or more female teachers may also ensure protection for girls in the minority from unwanted attention from boys or male teachers, and even from sexual abuse and exploitation. Presence of female teachers is of great importance as the Education Strategy (UNHCR, 2009) indicates that schools can be spaces of bullying, racial, ethnic, linguistic, and gender discrimination as well as sexual exploitation and corporal punishment.

Kirk (2006) noted that women teachers provide new and different role models for girls especially among rural and conservative communities. They demonstrate possibilities for women to be active outside the home and to be agents in community development. They play key roles in educating and socializing children beyond gender stereotypes, and so are crucial agents of change and transformation in the society.

In addition, according to Kirk (2006), female teachers may act as advocates for girls, representing their perspectives and needs, and promoting more girl-friendly learning environment. Women teachers may be able to advocate for better toilet and washing facilities for the girls. These sanitation facilities are of particular importance to adolescent girls who are menstruating, and whose
active participation in school during their monthly periods may depend on access to clean toilets separate from those used by boys and a water supply. In addition, women teachers have an important role in providing girls with accurate information about menstruation, puberty, sex and reproductive health education and about their own bodies and on how to look after them.

Despite the above advanced argument for the importance of female teachers on girls’ education, there are often few female teachers in schools. There is little systematic research on the specific reasons in particular contexts, but there are various different reasons to explain low numbers of female teachers in schools. There may simply be no educated women to become teachers. If there are few girls attending school and completing their education, then there will be few women adequately qualified to become teachers. A case in point is drawn from Cambodia. A policy to raise the entry requirements for teachers from 10 to 12 years of basic education resulted in very low recruitment of women teachers from rural areas, where there are few upper secondary schools (Geeves & Bredenberg, 2005).

Where a pool of women with appropriate qualifications to become teachers does exist, there are other barriers and discouragements. These include the belief that it is men who should teach and run schools, as well as women’s family and household workloads. Husbands and family members may also not feel comfortable with women teaching in schools dominated by men. With reference to a study from Nepal, traditional beliefs about women’s exclusion
during menstruation and pregnancy also impact negatively on their opportunities to become teachers (Bista, 2005).

In addition, lack of commensurate compensation of teachers result to low retention of teachers in schools. According to UNHCR & CARE (2009), there were 870 teachers in Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya but 30 teachers left the education sector every month. This was due to feelings of frustration at not being paid a salary commensurate with their experience and with prospects of finding a better-paying job in another sector or a less demanding job with similar pay. In some refugee situations, teachers are underpaid, not paid on time, or not paid at all. “Among the most vexing and widespread operational challenges in field co-ordination for education during emergencies is devising an appropriate and affordable payment structure for teachers” (Sommers, 2004, P.74); this challenge continues well after the emergency phase.

2.5. Influence of distance to school on retention of refugees in education

Rezzonico (2011) pointed out that acceptable secondary school options are limited in many refugee settings case in point being returnee village in Mauritania where one secondary school served young people from approximately 20 surrounding villages as far as seven kilometers, with few opportunities for boarding closer to the school. Proximity of school to home of students is a factor that can influence their participation, retention and achievement in school programmes. With few schools and comparatively long distances, that a child must travel to and from school is no small consideration
in some refugee settings without roads and motorized transportation. Weariness from long journeys to and from school compounded more often on an empty stomach make school going an unpleasant routine for poor refugee children hence may lead to dropping out of the school system.

Girls and women teachers are at particular disadvantage when the available secondary opportunities are far away from their homes. It is socially acceptable for boys to travel distances, making location of schools a greater problem for girls. To the female teachers, travelling long distances alone is often culturally unacceptable and unsafe for women, and travelling by public transport is both difficult and costly. Women teachers may be teased and harassed by men en route or in the villages where they teach. This challenge may result to there being few female teachers in schools and consequently impacting negatively on girls’ education.

INEE (2010) suggests that, the maximum distance between learners and their learning sites should be determined by the local community and according to the national standards bearing in mind security, safety and accessibility concerns. In refugee camp of Chad, of particular concern to Darfuri refugees were the lack of opportunities to pursue secondary education that would lead to recognized diploma. To address the situation of those refugees in refugee camp in Chad, the Refugee Education Trust (RET), negotiated with University of Khartoum in 2006 to allow young people in the camp to pursue a
formally recognized secondary schools course by distance learning (Mauoubila, Matabaro & Servas, 2011).

Secondary education is so critical and refugees prioritize it, these challenges notwithstanding. Chaffin (2010) and Robinson (2011) pointed that secondary school opportunities acts as motivation to enroll in and complete primary school. Without the possibility to pursue education beyond the primary level, many families and children, decide that the investment of family resources in primary education is not justified. Recognition of such prior acquired primary education is key if refugees are to access secondary education.

Psacharopoulos & Patrinos (2002) observed that individual economic returns to secondary education are large; in sub-Saharan Africa, at 25 percent, and in Asia, at 16 percent. In addition, secondary education affords greater opportunities for civic participation and quality of life and, in these ways; it is protective both for individuals and for societies (IIIEP, 2011; INEE Working Group on Education and Fragility, n.d.). Driven by the motive to realize these benefits, refugees strive to acquire themselves secondary education.

2.6. Summary of the literature review

Secondary education is a priority for refugees at the present. Meeting the costs of post-primary education (secondary education) is challenging to both the donors and households. Some students cover long distances to access secondary schools with no boarding opportunities near the schools. In some
conservative communities, parents would not be comfortable with their daughters being taught by male teachers. Active participation of girls in schooling may depend on availability of separate sanitation facilities as well as a water supply, appropriate and adequate sanitary towels especially when menstruating.

The focus of UNHCR has been on primary education. The literature review unveiled how cost of education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school pose a challenge to girls’ schooling in refugee settings as drawn from case studies from Mali, Kyangwali refugee camp in Uganda just to mention but a few of the many cases covered in the literature review. Retention of boys is higher than that of girls in most of the urban-refugee hosting areas and in the camp. Furthermore, attention has been more on having more refugees accessing education while their retention has been forgotten. Very little research has been carried out to investigate the influence of school-based factors on retention of refugee girls in secondary education in Dadaab refugee camp in Kenya. This study aimed to fill this knowledge gap by investigating how these school-based factors influenced girls’ retention in Dadaab refugee camp’s secondary schools.

2.7. Theoretical framework of the study

This study adopted the classic ecological model of child development advocated by (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The model has four key developmental
contexts; Microsystems, mesosystems, exosystems and macrosystems. The microsystem, involves the interactions between the individual child and the immediate setting. The mesosystem concerns the interaction of two or more settings of relevance to the developing child. The exosystem includes societal structures, both formal and informal. The macrosystem encompasses the larger cultural context including beliefs, customs and the historical and political aspects of the social ecology. The child’s ecology of development (that is, schools which are in the mesosystem) should be girl-friendly to ensure that girls’ are retained up to completion. A school that provides sanitation facilities of good quality; extends financial aid to needy girls and is located near the services-consumers (girls) as well as staffed with adequate number of female teachers is likely to retain more girls hence improving their resilience to learn even in times of emergencies.

Betancourt and Khan (2008) applied this theory to examine resilience of children affected by armed conflict and found that there were distinct but interconnected protective factors that foster family resilience namely individual, family and community protective factors. In this study, a social ecological framework was used to provide a central framework to give a broad perspective on school-based factors influencing secondary girls’ retention in Dadaab refugee camp. The schools were found to be dominated by male teachers. Most schools lacked adequate sanitation facilities. The burden borne by girls was overwhelming in meeting the cost of their secondary education.
Long distances and sexual harassment of girls en route were found prevalent in Dadaab refugee camp. Amidst the aforesaid challenges, only the brave girls and with enough resilience could remain determined to attend school while those who lacked resilience opted to drop out of school hence lowering retention of girls in the schools.
2.8. Conceptual framework

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework showing school-based factors influencing girls’ retention

Conceptual framework represents the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The dependent variable in this study was retention of girls while independent variables were cost of education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and sanitation facilities as illustrated in Figure 2.1 above.

The Cost of education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school influenced the retention of girls in schools. They were interrelated factors that determined a girl-friendly school environment where retention of girls could be either enhanced or lowered.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This section outlines the research design, target population, sample size and sample techniques, research instruments, instruments validity, instruments reliability, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques of this study.

3.2. Research design

This study used descriptive survey design. Descriptive survey method is used when a researcher intends to describe a situation or a condition as it is (Kothari, 2004). The rationale for the selection of descriptive design for the study was to determine how various school-based factors influenced retention of girls leading to either high or low retention rates.

3.3. Target population

According to Borg and Gall (1993), population refers to all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which an investigator wishes to generalize the results of the research study. The target population of this study consisted of 1, 219 Form 3 and Form 4 students, six principals and 141 teachers distributed in the six secondary schools; schools which had been in existence for at least the previous four years in Dadaab refugee camp (Windle Trust Kenya, 2012).
3.4. Sample size and sampling techniques

A sample refers to a subject of a population (Mugenda, 1999). The main study had a sample of five secondary schools and one secondary school for instrument piloting purposes. While all the principals of the schools under study participated, the teachers and students were chosen by simple random sampling. Stratified sampling was used to categorize teachers into female and male teachers as well as to classify students into their respective levels of study, that is, Form 3 and Form 4 students.

According to Kombo and Tromp (2005), in purposive sampling, the researcher purposively targets a group of people believed to be reliable on the study. Form 3 and Form 4 students were purposively selected because they were the ones who had stayed longest in the school and were presumed to have valuable information about the factors influencing the retention of girls in the camp. With reference to (Mugenda, 1999) a sample size of 10-30% is appropriate for a descriptive study. Table 3.1 summarizes the sample size.

| Table 3.1 |
| Sample frame |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondents</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34
A total of 122 students (10% of 1219 students) were sampled through simple random sampling by ballot method to participate in the main study. Similarly, two female teachers were sampled through simple random sampling by ballot method from the total number of female teachers in the school and the same technique was used to pick two male teachers from the total number of male teachers in the school. The Table 3.1 above summarizes the sample size for the main study. Therefore, the sample size of the main study constituted 147 respondents.

3.5. Research instruments

Data was collected using three sets of questionnaires though unstructured observation schedules and unstructured interviews were used to complement the questionnaires. Both open ended and closed ended questions were used. The questionnaires, one for principals, another for teachers and the third for students had five sections. Section A gathered demographic information of the respondents while the other sections collected data related to the research objectives of the study. The researcher used questionnaires for this study because it is the most suitable research instrument for descriptive research.
design (Kombo & Tromp, 2005). The study also employed unstructured interviews among the principals and class teachers to seek clarification on the data obtained from the questionnaires. Unstructured interview is an oral questionnaire that gives immediate feedback and is administered face to face.

### 3.5.1. Validity of instruments

Validity concerns itself with establishing whether the research instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure (Orodho, 2003). To enhance content validity, the research instruments were appraised by the supervisors and their feedback included in the questionnaires.

### 3.5.2. Reliability of instruments

Instrument reliability refers to the level of internal consistency, or the stability of the measuring device. Scientific researchers such as Borg and Gall (1993) recommended test and re-test method to measure reliability of an instrument. The pilot study involved one principal, four teachers and 24 students. The same questionnaire was administered twice at an interval of one week on a similar population to the target population to conduct a pilot study. The scores of each of the two tests were computed and the two scores correlated using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The principals’, teachers’ and students’ questionnaires yielded reliability values of 0.8936(0.9), 0.9137(0.9) and 0.8871(0.9) respectively. The reliability values obtained were significant hence, the instruments were considered reliable. The Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient formula is given as;
\[ r = \frac{\sum [(x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})]}{N \sigma_x \sigma_y} \]

Where \( \sum \) is the symbol of summation

- \( x \) is the scores of the first test
- \( y \) is the scores of the second test
- \( \bar{x} \) is the mean of \( x \)
- \( \bar{y} \) is the mean of \( y \)
- \( N \) is the number of pairs of \( x \) and \( y \)
- \( \sigma_x \) is the standard deviation of \( x \)
- \( \sigma_y \) is the standard deviation of \( y \)

A value of \( r \) above 0.8 was used to judge the instrument as reliable.

3.6. Data Collection Procedures

A research permit to conduct the study was sought from the National Council for Science and Technology in Nairobi, Kenya. The researcher then visited the participating schools to get permission from the principals for data collection. The questionnaires were filled in by the respondents and the researcher collected them on the same day.
3.7. Data Analysis Techniques

The study generated both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data was coded then captured in computer using SPSS. Tables, bar charts and pie charts were used to present the data. Qualitative data was first coded entailing the identification of categories and themes and their refinement. Thus, themes drawn from the objectives of this study were categorized using content analysis technique to analyze the qualitative data gathered in each questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS

38
4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the study. The presentation starts with data on questionnaires’ return rate followed by demographic information of respondents. The data collected has been analyzed as per the research objectives and research questions under the following sub-headings; findings of influence of cost of secondary education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance from home to school on retention of girls in schools.

4.2. Questionnaires’ return rate by respondents

As per the sample frame, 147 respondents were expected; 5 principals, 20 teachers and 122 students. The table 4.1 below presents the questionnaires’ return rate by the actual respondents in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondents</th>
<th>Expected</th>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>98.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>147</strong></td>
<td><strong>144</strong></td>
<td><strong>98.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both the principals and teachers had a questionnaire return rate of 100% while the return rate for students was 98%. The average questionnaire return rate of this study was 98% which was considered a reliable representation of the target population.

4.3. Demographic information of respondents
The study sought for demographic information of principals, teachers and students which was analyzed and presented in form of tables.

The gender of the principals involved in the study is as shown in the table 4.2 below.

**Table 4.2**

**Gender of the principals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, it can be noted that the majority of the principals, 4(80%) were males. It was found that there was acute lack of female role models in positions of school principals’ which may have negative effect on retention of girls. The study sought data on the age of the principals. Table 4.3 presents the age in years of the principals who participated in the study.

**Table 4.3**

**Age in years of the principals**
Out of the five principals interviewed, the majority, 4 (80%) were between 31 and 40 years old thus they were mature in age to be school administrators. Data on the professional training in teaching career of the principals was also collected and presented in the table 4.4 below.

**Table 4.4**

**Professional training of principals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional training in teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.ED</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey revealed that, the majority of the principals, 4 (80%) had a bachelor’s degree in education. Regular capacity building seminars for principals in the camp should be provided to equip them with modern management techniques since poor administrative styles could partly be responsible for reduced retention of refugee girls. Further analysis on the data collected showed that four of the principals had served in their current
positions for less than two years with only one of them reporting to have served for a period between 6 to 10 years as a principal. This indicated possibility of massive and frequent changes of school principal- position holders that could negatively affect the retention of refugee girls in the schools.

The study also involved 20 teachers. Table 4.5 presents the gender of the teachers who participated in the study.

**Table 4.5**

**Gender of the teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 20 teachers interviewed, one half of them, 10(50%) teachers, were male teachers. Further analysis based on gender of the sampled teachers and teaching of sciences revealed that only 1(5%) male teacher taught Mathematics, 2(10%) male teachers taught both Mathematics and Sciences, 3(15%) male teachers and 2(10%) female teachers taught sciences. It was noted that there were 95 male teachers and 21 female teachers in all the 5 schools with 2(10%) female refugee teachers. The study established the age of the teachers sampled and their ages are presented in the table 4.6 below.
Table 4.6

Age in years of the teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-30 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 50 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 20 teachers involved in the study, the majority, 17 (85%) aged between 20 to 30 years thus were youth and possibly fresh graduates. The study sought data on the professional training of teachers in the teaching career. The findings are tabulated in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7

Professional qualifications of the teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional training in teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.ED</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.ED</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not trained as a teacher</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the teachers sampled, 17 (70%) teachers, possessed bachelor’s degree in education. Training and experience of teachers may influence the quality of educational services delivered thus affecting the retention of girls in schools. The study established that out of the 20 teachers, 18 (90%) of them
had teaching experience of less than 5 years and 2 (10%) had taught for more than 5 years.

The gender of the students interviewed is shown in the table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8
Gender of the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 60(50%) boys and 59(50%) girls who participated in this study. They were from upper secondary school classes and thus they were presumed to have deep understanding of the items under the study. The ages of the students were established and results presented in the table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9
Age in years of the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-18 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-25 years</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 25 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>119</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of the age of the students revealed that the majority, 86(72.3%) students were between the ages 19 to 25 years. The study established that there were 2,056 boys and 689 girls enrolled in the five sampled secondary schools. The study also sought to establish from the students if they knew girls who had dropped out of their secondary school before completing form 4. Of the 119 students interviewed, 66 (55%) of them knew of such girls. “They (girls) say that going to school in this harsh environment is not interesting and subjects learnt in secondary are not welcoming” one girl explained why the girls had dropped before completing form 4. This indicated that curriculum and environmental related factors also led to the reduced retention of refugee girls in schools in this camp.

4.4. Influence of cost of secondary education on retention of girls

A student’s cost of education is made up of both billed costs such as tuition and fees and indirect costs such as living expenses, books and supplies.

Respondents gave their views on questions aimed at answering the question, “To what extent does the cost of secondary education contributes to girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp?” Their responses were analyzed in frequencies and percentages and presented in tables and a bar
chart. The study sought from the principals whether UNHCR provided for all the costs of secondary education for girls. Table 4.10 below presents the views of the principals on this item.

**Table 4.10**

**UNHCR provision towards costs of secondary education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fully funded</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Fully funded</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 5 principals interviewed, 3(60%) viewed that UNHCR did not provide for all costs of education for girls. This was attributed to the UNHCR educational budget of which its major priority is usually on primary education. Examples given by the principals of educational needs that UNHCR did not provide for included school uniforms, exercise books, additional reference books, pens, employment of enough teachers, extra tuition classes for girls and non-provision of lunch to girls. Failure to finance fully educational needs left girls with burdens to bear which may force some girls to drop out as one principal stated, “due to the costs of buying uniform, exercise books and pens, some girls drop out of school since they cannot support themselves.”

Principals and teachers were asked to indicate any extra expenses girls incurred over and above boys. One of the principals indicated that girls
incurred costs of buying sanitary pads when they are not available for distribution in school while one of the teachers mentioned oil, perfume and clothes. Although these costs are not directly related to education, they facilitate smooth learning and consequently the retention of girls in schools. Principals were then asked to rank as very greatly, greatly, slightly or very slightly the extent to which cost of secondary education contributed to drop out of girls in their schools. Table 4.11 below presents this ranking by the principals.

Table 4.11
The extent cost of education contributed to girls’ drop out in schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of cost of education on girls’ drop out</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very slightly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very greatly</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the principals, 3 (60%) of them ranked cost of education as a very major contributor of girls’ drop out from school.

The study followed with the teachers by asking them of their encounter with girls who did not afford to buy the required learning materials in their subjects of teaching. Out of the 20 teachers, 18(90%) had encountered with girls who did not afford to buy the required learning materials in their subjects. Sample
of the learning materials that girls could barely afford were exemplified by the teachers as writing pens, books, bags, uniforms, calculators, geometrical sets and indirect learning materials such as sanitary pads and inner wears.

Teachers’ perception was also gauged on whose uniform was more expensive between boy’s and girl’s uniforms. Table 4.12 presents the findings.

**Table 4.12**  
Teachers’ perception on most expensive students’ uniforms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most expensive uniforms</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girls’ uniforms</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost equally</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses on this item</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 20 teachers interviewed, 15(75%) of them reported that girls’ uniform was more expensive than boys’ uniform. This meant that girls stood at a particular disadvantage in meeting their costs of education and the burden resulted to girls’ drop out from school hence lowering the retention rates among the refugee girls.

Students interviewed were asked to indicate whether they spent money on a given list of items. Figure 4.1 below presents their responses on items on which they spent money. The majority of the students indicated that they spent money on stationery and school uniforms.
Figure 4.1

Items on which money was spent on by students
Cumbered with this load of items to finance as demonstrated in the bar chart above, students were asked whether they found it difficult to meet the costs of their secondary education. While 7 boys indicated that they did not find it difficult to support financially their secondary education, fewer girls, 6 only, were of the same opinion. This could be attributed to the extra expenses on sanitary towels, uniforms, oil and perfumes girls incurred over and above boys reported by the principals and teachers.

4.5. Findings on sanitation facilities as a factor on retention of girls in schools
Sanitation and hygiene plays a key role in creating a proper learning environment. Proper hygiene and sanitation determine the rate at which girls attend school. Responses were sought from respondents to get sense of how sanitation facilities influenced retention of girls in schools. The data has been analyzed and detailed in frequencies and percentages and presented in form of tables, a bar chart and a pie chart.

The study sought from the principals the school’s data on the ratio of toilets to the number of girls. Table 4.13 presents the ratios.

**Table 4.13**

**The ratio of toilet to girls in the school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Toilet to girls ratio</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1:50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the five schools sampled, two (40%) principals indicated that one toilet was shared among 50 girls in their schools. Going by the INEE Minimum standards (2010) that ideally one toilet should serve 30 girls, it was found that the two schools didn’t meet this standard. This was attributed to few toilets constructed compared to the number of girls in such schools. It was ascertained that in all the five sampled schools, girls were being issued with the sanitary pads. The study sought to find whether there are times the schools experienced shortages of the sanitary pads to issue to the girls. The five
(100%) principals unanimously reported that their schools faced shortages of sanitary pads. Further analysis revealed that one (20%) principal estimated that such shortage could persist for even two months. It was possible that girls were forced to incur extra costs of buying sanitary pads from the market thus raising their indirect costs of secondary education. Shortage of these sanitary pads increased absenteeism of girls from school as one principal observed, “this shortage of sanitary pads increases absenteeism of girls from school thus leading to poor performance.”

Teachers’ comments on conditions of girls’ toilets in their schools were sought. The teachers were to comment on the conditions as poor, satisfactory, good or excellent. Table 4.14 presents the comments

**Table 4.14**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Girls’ toilet conditions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study established that only 1(5%) out of 20 teachers interviewed gauged the conditions of the girls’ toilets in their schools as excellent. Poor conditions were explained by one of the sampled teachers in the words, “sometimes it
causes girls to go to the nearest block to search for good toilets” and another teacher explained the effect of the poor conditions as, “most girls prefer going back to their homes to take bathe but later fail to return to school.”

The researcher observed that the privacy in girls’ toilets was ensured in the sampled schools by the fact that girls’ toilets were situated in different parts of the school in a private secluded area and distance away separate from boys’ toilets. One teacher in an unstructured interview confirmed that the girls’ toilets had lockable doors in the school. Compromise on the privacy of girls’ toilets was explained from the fact that some schools had few toilets compared to the population of the girls enrolled in those schools. Analysis was also done on whether girls had any complaints about the sanitary pads provided to them in the schools. Out of the 20 teachers sampled, 13(65%) teachers responded that girls had no complaints about the pads issued. Further analysis and along gender of the teachers revealed that 5 (71%) of the teachers who reported that girls had complaints about the pads were female teachers while 8(62%) of those teachers who indicated that girls had no complaints were male teachers. These varying views were attributed to the fact that female teachers were involved in distributing the pads to the girls and were in a good position to receive the girls’ complaints about the pads. The complaints were about the quality and size of the pads. One female teacher explained the complaints as, “the size is too big hence they feel shy carrying them since they will not like
boys to notice that they are carrying them” while one male teacher explained that, “girls say that the sanitary pads are not the quality ones or modern ones.”

Girls’ were asked to assess the states of their own toilets on selected items. The items included availability of soap for washing hands, doors for shutting and availability of water inside the girls’ toilets. Figure 4.2 presents the results of the assessment.

**Figure 4.2**

**Girls’ assessment of the state of their own toilets**

From the bar chart above, of the 59 girls interviewed, 27% reported that there was soap for washing hands in their toilets, 53% indicated that there was water
inside their toilets and a significant larger number of girls at 86% pointed out that there were doors in their toilets for shutting in order to ensure their privacy when using the toilets. It was evident that proper hand washing using soap was not a common practice in most of the sampled schools. Girls need soap not only to wash their hands after visiting toilets but also for bathing after changing their soiled pads. In cases where water and soap are missing, girls will most likely miss from school during their menstruation for fear of soiling their uniforms and earn embarrassment from boys considering particularly that these schools were mixed secondary schools. Faced by such conditions, the girls were asked whether they missed school when experiencing monthly periods. Figure 4.3 presents the girls’ responses.

Figure 4.3

Girls’ reporting missing school during menstruation
Of the 59 girls interviewed, 40 (67.8%) girls reported missing school during their monthly periods. High absenteeism of girls during menstruation was attributed to lack of bathing water and soap in girls’ toilets in most of the schools and shortage of sanitary pads experienced in all schools. Considering that menstruations are experienced monthly, frequent absenteeism might affect academic performance of girls resulting to drop out hence low retention rates for girls as pointed out by one of the principals that, “this (shortage of pads) increases absenteeism of girls from school, thus leading to poor performance.” The teachers also explained the other reasons for absenteeism of girls during menstruation as due to discomfort associated with menses and painful cramps experienced by the girls.

4.6. Findings of influence of female teachers on retention of girls
The study sought for the preference students had towards female or male teachers. The influence of female teachers on retention of girls in schools was also sought by use of items in questionnaires of the respondents. The data collected has been analyzed and presented in form of tables and findings discussed in prose. Principals were asked whether girls in their schools preferred female teachers to male teachers. Table 4.15 presents data on the girls’ preferences as reported by the principals.

**Table 4.15**

**Girls’ preference of female teachers to male teachers as reported by the principals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Girls’ preference</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Girls’ prefer female to male teachers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t prefer female to male teachers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 5 principals sampled, 3(60%) of them indicated that girls preferred female teachers to male teachers. As noted earlier, most schools were dominated by male teachers, thus girls missed their preference. This could be by extension another reason for reduced retention of girls in these schools. Another principal who observed that girls had no preference of female teachers to male teachers indicated that, “because of adaptation at primary level, girls learn from both male and female teachers.”
The study also sought from the principals specific tasks assigned to female teachers to serve girls only. A presentation of such tasks were determined as issuing of sanitary pads, distributing of inner wears and offering of guidance and counseling to girls. Female teachers’ services in these tasks were attributed to the fact that girls are shy and would be hesitant to receive sanitary pads and inner wears from a male teacher. In a rare occasion, one principal indicated that no specific task was assigned to female teachers to serve girls only. Document analysis was done to establish how female teachers had influenced retention of girls in their schools. The majority of the principals, 4(80%) of them, observed that female teachers influenced girls’ retention through guidance and counseling as well as encouraging girls to be in school, 3(60%) of the principals indicated that female teachers acted as role models and mentors to girls while one principal added that girls felt comfortable in the company of female teachers.

Teachers were asked if there were girls they knew were at risk of leaving school before completing their education. Table 4.16 presents the responses obtained from the teachers on this item.

Table 4.16
Teachers aware of girls at risk of leaving school before completing education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Girls at risk of not completing education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers aware of girls at risk</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers not aware of girls at risk</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses on this item</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of 20 teachers interviewed, 14 (73.7%) of them responded that they knew of girls at risk of dropping out before completing their education.

Further analysis along the teachers’ gender lines revealed that, all female teachers sampled knew of girls at risk of dropping out before completing their education. Sampled reasons by the teachers for this drop out were determined as early and forced marriages, pregnancies, resettlement and repatriation, girls serving as heads of their families, girls feeling that they are not good in learning and society’s negative perception on educated girls. This was an indication that female teachers were more aware of the risks surrounding girls’ retention in schools and being aware of the plight of the girls; female teachers could intervene and influence the retention among the girls. Students interviewed were asked of their views on preference of teachers they wished to be more in their schools. Table 4.17 presents the students’ preferences.

**Table 4.17**
Teachers’ preferred by the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers preferred by students</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male teachers</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal number of teachers</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses on this item</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>119</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 119 students interviewed, 58 (49.6%) of them preferred the number of male and female teachers in their schools to be equal. This preference by the students on teachers was attributed to the fact that these schools were mixed secondary schools and thus every gender had to be equally represented in the teaching staff for the well being of all students. As things stood, girls were on unfair grounds compared to boys since there were fewer female teachers than male teachers were. The school environment appeared to be male-teachers dominated and girls could be losing on the most desired comfortable company of female teachers thus leading to low retention rates among girls.

**4.7: Findings of influence of distance from home to school on retention of girls in schools**

Another facet of the study was to determine how far the student lived from the school they attended and the extent to which such distance influenced retention of girls in schools. The principals of the sampled schools were asked
to estimate the students’ catchment area of their schools in square kilometers.

Table 4.18 presents the catchment areas estimated by the principals.

**Table 4.18**

**Principals’ views on students’ catchment area of the schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ catchment area in km²</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-4 km square</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-9 km square</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-16 km square</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The catchment areas of the sampled schools were estimated at 1-4 km², 4-9 km² and 9-16 km². Specifically, 2 (40%) schools served an area of 4-9 km², other 2 (40%) schools served an area of 9-16 km² while one (20%) school drew students within an area of 1-4 km². Covering this distance on foot on daily basis by most of the students could precipitate tiredness and lateness to school among the students. Girls are weaker than boys are, therefore highly likely to drop out of school hence lowering retention rates among the girls in these schools. The study followed with the principals to establish the challenges girls could be facing on their way to or from school. Figure 4.4 presents the challenges faced by girls on their way to or from school.

**Figure 4.4**
Challenges faced on the way by girls

Of the 5 principals interviewed, 4 (80%) of them pointed out that girls were bullied by boys and sexually harassed on their way to or from school. In rare occasions, 40% of the principals indicated that girls bullied their female colleagues. Among the principals, one (20%) of them reported cases of kidnapping of girls. Attendance to school by girls could easily get frustrated by presence of such challenges on their way leading to some girls dropping out of school thus lowering retention rates among the girls.

The principals were then asked to rank the extent to which distance to school from students’ catchment areas contributed to drop out of girls in their schools
as either very greatly, greatly, slightly or very slightly. Table 4.19 below presents the ranking.

Table 4.19

The extent distance contributed to girls’ drop out from schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of distance on girls’ drop out</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very slightly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greatly</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very greatly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of 5 principals interviewed, 3(60%) cited distance to school as a major contributor to girls’ drop out from their schools. This was attributed to the vast areas from which some schools drew their students and the sour environment girls endured on their way to school. Girls who lacked resilience to operate within such challenges might have opted to cut their schooling short by staying at home hence low retention of girls in such schools. It is important to note that 2 (40%) of the principals cited that distance had very slight contribution to girls’ drop out from their schools. Analysis on whether girls were escorted to school revealed that 61(51%) of the students interviewed said that girls were never escorted to school, 32(27%) reported that girls were sometimes escorted, 18(15%) said that girls were escorted to school while 8(7%) of the students interviewed did not give any response to this item. This
could be another explanation as to why distance had different influence on retention of girls in the sampled schools.

To get valuable information about how far students lived from their schools, students were asked to estimate how long it took them to get to school. Table 4.20 below captures the students’ estimates on how long it took them to get to school.

**Table 4.20**

**Time taken by students to get to school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time students took to get to school from home</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 minutes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-30 minutes</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-60 minutes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 hours</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3 hours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing responses on this item</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>119</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 119 students interviewed, 58(49.2%) of the students estimated that it took them between a half and one hour to get to school. In a rare occasion, one of the student reported that it took her between two and three hours to get to school on a bicycle. While this may be difficult to believe that the girl spent at least 4 hours daily riding, and it is possible that the girl did not estimate the time reasonably, it is not impossible that some students would have travelled
this long to school as three students indicated in the survey that they started
their journey to school by 4.00 am in order to get to school. As indicated
earlier in this report, the majority of the students walked on foot to school
daily since these were day schools. At least two hours were spent on travelling
to and from school daily by the majority of the students interviewed. The time
could even be more if the students decided to go for meals at home in the
course of the day since no school feeding programme was available in the
schools sampled. This trekking on foot daily for many hours in a hot and dusty
camp had potential of discouraging girls from schooling hence dropping out of
school consequently lowering the retention rates among the girls.
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the study. This is followed by conclusions drawn from the findings, and thereafter recommendations for policy direction targeting to improve girls’ retention rates in schools. Finally, the chapter suggests areas for further research envisaged to contribute towards creating girl-friendly learning environment within and outside the schools.

5.2. Summary of the study

The study focused on the factors influencing retention of girls in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp in Garissa County of Kenya. The purpose of the study was to determine the school-based factors influencing retention of girls narrowed down to cost of secondary education, sanitation facilities, female teachers and distance to school. Literature review was done on the basis of these factors and the conceptual framework formulated to demonstrate the relationship between the variables. A sample of five schools was used to conduct this study. Descriptive survey design was employed and three sets of questionnaires used to collect data from principals, teachers and students, constituting a sample size of 147 respondents.

The following summarizes the findings of the study;

The principals’ views were that cost of education was a major contributor to girls’ drop out from schools hence reducing retention rates. The students had a
big load of items to meet their costs such as books and pens, school uniforms, mathematical sets and tables as well as buying lunch. Girls stood at a particular disadvantage because they had to incur extra expenses on buying sanitary pads of better quality, perfumes and body cream. In addition, the school uniform for girls was established from the teachers that it was more expensive to buy than that of the boys. UNHCR, the agency charged with refugee affairs, had not cushioned fully the girls by meeting both the direct and indirect costs of secondary education.

The other finding is that cross-sectional views of the respondents indicated that there were adequate and separate toilets for girls from that used by boys in the sampled schools. The girls’ toilets offered adequate privacy to girls since they were located in secluded areas in different parts of the school from that of the boys. The conditions in which the toilets were put in were found however, wanting. Lack of soap and water inside the girls’ toilets forced girls’ to go home to bathe during their menstruation never to come back to school after bathing. Such poor conditions forced girls to seek better toilets in the neighboring blocks.

It was found that a large number of girls missed school during their menstruation. Sanitary pads were provided to girls in all schools but serious shortages of such pads which could persist for even two months were being experienced. The available pads were felt by the majority of teachers to be of
poor quality and thus girls avoided using them and opted buying better ones from the market. Extra costs of buying quality sanitary pads increased the indirect cost of girls’ secondary education. Increased absenteeism during menstruation was found to impact on the girls’ performance in academics forcing some girls to drop out hence reducing retention rates among the girls.

According to the study findings, there were only 2 female refugee teachers in the five sampled schools out of a total of 21 female teachers. Girls shown high preference for equal number of both male and female teachers and in the event that one gender of the teachers was to be dominant, then they preferred more female teachers to male teachers. The female teachers served girls by distributing sanitary pads, issuing inner wears and offering guidance and counseling to girls. Female teachers encouraged girls to be in school and learn for the female teachers were found to be role models and mentors to the girls. The girls felt comfortable being in the company of female teachers. The study also revealed that female teachers stood a good position to know girls at risk of leaving school before completing their secondary education. The presence of female teachers was thus found to be crucial in improving girls’ retention in schools.

The majority of the sampled schools had a students’ catchment area ranging from 4 to 16km². The most used means of transport was walking on foot to school by students. The girls suffered very greatly from being bullied by boys and sexual harassment on their way to school. The study found that girls too
faced challenges of being bullied by their fellow girls and being kidnapped. Few cases were reported of girls being escorted to school despite all these challenges. Leaving girls to shoulder all these challenges simply meant that survival was only left to the brave. Girls without resilience to operate in such an environment would opt to stay at home and cut short their secondary education hence lowering retention of girls in schools.

5.3. Conclusions

In conclusion, it is important to acknowledge the fact that the schools in this camp have not been able to provide a conducive learning environment for the girls to enjoy their full right to education as it is enshrined in Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the other conventions. The girls struggle to earn themselves education but their efforts are frustrated by factors emanating from the school. UNHCR is the refugee agency charged with refugee affairs, education for girls not an exception. Through its implementing partners, it should strive to minimize the obstacles hampering girls from full enjoyment and attainment of their right to education and the other rights such as right to proper sanitation and food as enshrined in the Convention on the Right of the Child. If the goal of Education for All is to be made a reality among all the children of the world, then no child, a girl or a boy, a refugee or a local, is supposed to leave basic education cycle before completion.

5.4. Recommendations
In view of the above findings, the following recommendations should be adopted in order to overcome issues of cost of secondary education and ultimately increase girls’ retention rates in schools. The secondary education should be made absolutely free by meeting not only the direct costs of education but also the indirect costs and the opportunity costs incurred by the girls.

The current school environment is dominated by males. The implementing partners should recruit more female teachers and to the extent possible from the refugee community as this would provide the girls with persons to identify with and even ease educational reconstruction in refugees’ home countries in case of repatriation.

The implementing partners and the donors should endeavor to put more effort in construction of more girls’ toilets with washing and changing rooms for girls. Provision of soap, water and privacy should be given due priority. Quality sanitary pads should be stocked in strategic positions in girls’ toilets with proper monitoring to avoid wastage. In the short run, schools with few toilets may organize the timetable to have girls use the facilities at different break times instead of the girls visiting the few toilets at the same break time. UNHCR needs also to allocate resources in its educational budget towards provision of secure transport to school for girls as an incentive to encourage
more girls to attend school regularly hence increase retention rates of girls. In the long run, the agency may consider establishing at least one girls’ boarding school in every camp. This would ensure and enhance girls’ full participation in schools since girls would not need to go to school daily cushioning them from sexual harassment and being bullied by boys on their way to school.

5.5. Areas for further research

Taking into consideration the delimitation and the findings of this study the paragraph below presents areas suggested for conducting further research;

The research concentrated on school environment. It may be necessary for another study to be carried out on the socio-cultural environment that girls interact with in their pursuit for education. High levels of bullying of girls by boys and being sexually harassed on their way to school have been found prevalent in this camp. A study on getting girls to secondary school safely is worthy conducting. UNHCR may contract a consultancy firm to carry out a feasibility study on starting a boarding school for girls in the camp. School-based factors studied had a bearing towards girls’ performance in academics. A study is suggested to be conducted on the performance of girls in this camp in internal and external secondary school examinations.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX A
A LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

KAVULU NICHOLAS MUNENE

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

P.O. BOX 30197-00100

NAIROBI

To Whom It May Concern

REF: EDUCATIONAL DATA COLLECTION

I am a Master of Education student from the University of Nairobi specializing in the field of Education in Emergencies. I am carrying out a research on School-based Factors Influencing Girls’ Retention in Secondary Schools in Dadaab refugee camp, Garissa County, Kenya. I would be grateful if you would spend a few minutes to complete the attached questionnaire. The information on the questionnaire will only be used for the purpose of this research. Your identity will remain confidential and therefore do not write your name anywhere in the questionnaire.

Thank you.

Kavulu Nicholas Munene

University of Nairobi

APPENDIX B
PRINCIPALS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this questionnaire is to gather information on school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp in Garissa County. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. Where applicable put a tick in the box [ ] provided or fill in the blank spaces.

SECTION A: Background Information

1. What is your gender? Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Indicate your age bracket less than 25 years[ ] 25-30 years[ ] 31-40 years [ ] 41-50 years [ ] Above 50 years [ ]

3. How many years have you been a principal in this secondary school?
Less than 1 year [ ] 1-2 years[ ] 3-5 years[ ] 6-10 years[ ] Above 10 years [ ]

4. Please indicate your highest professional training in teaching
P1 [ ] Diploma in Education [ ] PGDE [ ] B.ED [ ]
M.ED [ ] PhD in Education [ ] Not trained as a teacher [ ]

5. a) Do all girls admitted in form 1 in this school complete form 4?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes in (a) above, what factors within your school enhance their completion?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

c) If no in (a) above, what factors within your school frustrate their completion?

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SECTION B: Cost of secondary education
6. Does UNHCR provide for all costs of secondary education for girls in this school? [Yes] [No]

7. What extra costs do girls incur compared to the boys in your school?

8. On a scale of 1 to 4, rank the UNHCR’s financial support to secondary education in this school

   1. Very adequate [ ]
   2. Adequate [ ]
   3. Less adequate [ ]
   4. Negligible [ ]

9. Explain how cost of education affect the retention of girls in this school

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

Section C: Sanitation facilities

10. What is the toilet to girls’ ratio in your school?

    1:100[ ] 1:70[ ] 1:50[ ] 1:30[ ] 1:10[ ]

11. a) Do girls complain about the toilets? Yes [ ] No [ ]

    b) If yes in (a) above, what are their complaints?

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

12. Are girls issued with sanitary pads in this school? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. a) Are there times the girls do not have sanitary towels in your school? Yes [ ] No [ ]

    b) If yes in (a) above, for how many months can that shortage persist? ......................

SECTION D: Female teachers

14. a) Do girls prefer female teachers to male teachers? Yes [ ] No[ ]

    b) Give reasons for your response in (a) above

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

15. Cite cases where female teachers have influenced girls in your school
16. a) Are there specific tasks assigned to female teachers to serve girls only?  
   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

   b) If yes, state such tasks

17. In your opinion, how do female teachers influence retention of girls in this school?

SECTION E: Distance to school

18. How large is the students’ catchment area of this school in km²?  
   1-4km² [ ] 4-9km² [ ] 9-16km² [ ] 16-25km² [ ] Above 25km² [ ]

19. Do girls face the following challenges on their way to or from school?
   i) Bullying from other girls     Yes [ ]   No [ ]
   ii) Bullying from boys          Yes [ ]   No [ ]
   iii) Kidnapping                 Yes [ ]   No [ ]
   iv) Sexual harassment           Yes [ ]   No [ ]

21. On a scale of 1 to 4, rank the given factors according to the extent they contribute to drop out of girls in this school.

   Scale: 4= very greatly 3= greatly 2= slightly  1= very slightly

   i. Cost of secondary education   1.[ ] 2.[ ] 3.[ ] 4.[ ]
   ii. Sanitation facilities       1.[ ] 2.[ ] 3.[ ] 4.[ ]
   iii. Few female teachers        1.[ ] 2.[ ] 3.[ ] 4.[ ]
   iv. Distance of school from students’ catchment areas1.[ ] 2.[ ] 3.[ ] 4.[ ]

Thank you for your participation
APPENDIX C

TEACHERS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this questionnaire is to gather information on school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp in Garissa County. **DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.** Where applicable put a tick in the box [   ] provided or fill in the blank spaces.

SECTION A: Background Information

1. What is your gender? Male [   ] Female [   ]

2. Your age 20-30 years[   ] 31-40 years[   ] 41-50 years[   ] Above 50 years[   ]

3. How many teachers are in your school by sex? Male ________ Female ________

4. How many years have you been teaching in Dadaab refugees’ camp secondary schools?
   Less than 1 year [   ] 1-2 years[   ] 3-5 years [   ] 6-10 years [   ] Above 10 years[   ]

5. Please state your highest professional training in teaching
   P1 [   ] Diploma in Education [   ] PGDE [   ] B.ED [   ]
   M.ED [   ] PhD in Education [   ] Not trained as a teacher [   ]

6. Please tick the subjects you teach in this school
   Languages [   ] Humanities [   ] Mathematics [   ] Sciences [   ]

SECTION B: Cost of secondary education

7. a) Do you have girls who do not afford to buy the required learning materials in your subjects of teaching? Yes [   ] No [   ]

   b) If yes, give examples of such learning materials in (a) above

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

80
8. Comparing the cost of boy’s and girl’s school uniforms in this school, which one is more expensive? Boy’s [ ] Girl’s [ ] Are of equal cost [ ]

9. On a scale of 1 to 4, rank how seriously cost of secondary education affect girls’ retention in your school

Key: 1-extremely serious [ ] 2.serious [ ] 3.Slightly serious [ ] 4.no effect[ ]

SECTION C: Sanitation facilities

10. Are there separate toilets for girls and boys in your school? Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. a) Are the toilets private enough for the girls? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) Explain your response in (a) above

12. Is there water inside the girls’ toilets? Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. a) Comment on the conditions of girls’ toilets in this school
    Poor [ ] satisfactory [ ] Good [ ] Excellent [ ]
   b) Explain how the condition in (a) above affect retention of girls in this school

14. a) Do girls miss school when menstruating? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, what reasons do they give?

15. a) Is the use of sanitary pads acceptable among girls in this community? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) If no in (a) above, why is it not acceptable?

16. a) Do girls complain about the kind of sanitary pads provided in this school? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) If yes, explain the complaints
SECTION D: Female teachers

17. Apart from being a classroom teacher, which other position do you have in this school?

18. Cite incidences where female teachers have influenced girls in this school

19. a) Are there girls you know who are at risk of leaving school before completing their education?  Yes [ ] No [ ]

   b) If yes in (a) above, what may lead to their non-completion?

20. On a scale of 1 to 4, rank the level of preference for female teachers by the parents/guardians in the education of girls in this school

   Scale: 1-Very much [ ] 2-Much [ ] 3-Little [ ] 4-Neutral [ ]

SECTION E: Distance to school

21. What is the farthest distance do some girls cover from their homes to this school?

   Below 1km [ ] 1-2km [ ] 3-5km [ ] 6-7km [ ] Above 7km [ ]

22. Are there challenges girls faces on their way to or from school?

   Yes [ ] No[ ]

23. Explain how distance from home to school influences retention of girls in this school

24. On a scale of 1 to 4, rank the given factors according to the extent they contribute to drop out of girls in this school.

   Scale: 4= very greatly 3=greatly 2=slightly 1= very slightly
i. Cost of secondary education

ii. Sanitation facilities

iii. Few female teachers

iv. Distance to school

Thank you for your participation
APPENDIX D

STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

The aim of this questionnaire is to gather information on school-based factors influencing girls’ retention in secondary schools in Dadaab refugee camp in Garissa County. **DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE IN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.** Where applicable put a tick in the box [   ] provided or fill in the blank spaces.

SECTION A: Background Information

1. What is your gender? Male[   ] Female [   ]
2. How old are you? 12-18years[   ] 19-25 years[   ] Above 25 years[   ]
3. Which class are you in? Form 3[   ] Form 4[   ]
4. Tick the type of your school Day[   ] Boarding[   ]
5. Tick the category of your school Girls’[   ] Boys’[   ] Mixed[   ]
6. Indicate the number of years you have been in this school……………………………
7. a) Do you know of girls who were in this school but have dropped out from the secondary school before completing Form 4? Yes[   ] No[   ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, why did they drop out before completing Form 4?

   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION B: Cost of secondary education

8. Does UNHCR provide you with all you need to learn in this school?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

9. Do you spend money on the following items as a student in this school?
   i) Exercise books and pens  Yes [ ] No [ ]
   ii) School uniforms  Yes [ ] No [ ]
   iii) Transport to school Yes [ ] No [ ]
   iv) Lunch  Yes [ ] No [ ]
   v) Mathematical sets and tables Yes [ ] No [ ]
   vi) Set books for language subjects Yes [ ] No [ ]
   vii) Sport uniforms and shoes Yes [ ] No [ ]
   viii) School trips Yes [ ] No [ ]
   ix) Exams Yes [ ] No [ ]
   x) Certificates Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. a) Are there times you fail to make notes due to lack of a pen to write notes? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, how many days can you take per week without getting a pen to write notes with? ................. days.

11. a) Do you have school uniform? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, how many school uniforms do you have?.............................

12. a) Do you have separate exercise books for each subject? Yes[ ] No[ ]
   b) If no in (a) above, list your subjects that share one exercise book?

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13. What other activities could you be carrying out if you were not a student?

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14. Do you find it difficult to get money required to support your secondary education?  
Yes [ ]  No [ ]

SECTION C: Female teachers

15. a) Do you feel free to tell your female teachers problems you may be having?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]

b) If no in (a) above, why do you not feel free?

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16. a) Which teachers would you wish to be more in your school, male or female teachers? Male [ ]  Female [ ]  Equal number of teachers [ ]

b) Explain your response in (a) above

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17. a) If more female teachers are added to this school, will more girls remain in school until they finish Form 4?  Yes[ ]  No [ ]

b) Please give reasons for your response in (a) above

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SECTION D: Distance to school

18. At what time do you start your journey to school?

4am-5am [ ]  5am-6am [ ]  6am-7am [ ]  After 7am [ ]
19. How long does it take you to get to school from your home in the morning?

Less than 10 mins[ ] 10-30 mins[ ] 30-60mins[ ] 1-2hrs[ ] 2-3hrs[ ]
3-4hrs[ ] Above 4hrs[ ]

20. How do you go to school every day?

By vehicle [ ] on bicycles [ ] on foot [ ]

21. How far is your school from your home in kilometers?

Less than 1km [ ] 1km-2km [ ] 3km-5km [ ] Above 5km [ ]

22. a) Is it necessary to build a girls’ boarding school in Dadaab refugee camp?  Yes[ ] No[ ]

b) Give reasons to support your opinion in (a) above

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

23. a) Do girls have any problems on their way to school?  Yes[ ] No[ ]

b) If yes in (a) above, what are the problems?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

24. a) Are girls escorted to school?  Yes[ ] No[ ] Sometimes[ ]

b) Give reasons for your response in (a) above

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Thank you for your participation
SECTION E: Sanitation facilities

25. a) Are there separate toilets for girls only and boys only in this school?  
   Yes[ ] No [   ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, do you use girls’ toilets yourself?   Yes [   ] No [   ]
   c) If no in (b) above, why do you not use them?

26. a) Are there times when you find it difficult to use the girls’ toilets?  
   Yes [   ] No [   ]
   b) If yes in (a) above, what causes such difficulties

27. Tick where applicable as far as the following conditions about girls’ toilets in your school are concerned

   i) There is soap for washing hands in the girls’ toilets Yes [   ] No [   ]
   ii) The toilets have doors or shutters to ensure privacy    Yes [ ] No [   ]
   iii) There is running water/tap water in the girls’ toilets Yes [   ] No [   ]

28. How do you provide sanitary pads?
   I buy for myself [   ] the school provides [   ] I don’t use sanitary pads [   ]

29. a) If the school provides sanitary pads, are they always available for girls’ use? Yes [   ] No [   ]
   b) If the school provides you with the sanitary pads, do you feel comfortable when using them? Yes [   ] No [   ]
   c) If no in (a) above, explain why you don’t feel comfortable
30. a) Do you miss school when experiencing monthly periods? Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes in (a) above, who do you ask permission from to be absent from school during your monthly periods, a male or female teacher?

Thank you for your participation
APPENDIX E

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Nicholas Munene Kavulu
of (Address) University of Nairobi
P.O Box 36197-00100, Nairobi

has been permitted to conduct research in

Garissa
North Eastern Province


Research Permit No. NCST/RCD/14/013/567
Date of Issue 8th May, 2013
Fee received KSH. 1,000

Applicant’s Signature

Secretary
National Council for Science & Technology