FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE GIRL CHILD ACCESS TO PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION:-
A CASE OF MWITIKA DIVISION, MUTITO DISTRICT (KENYA)

BY

FRANCISCAR NDAWA

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

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A Project Report Submitted to the Chandaria School of Business in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Executive Master of Science in Organizational Development (EMOD)

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

SUMMER 2014
Student’s Declaration
I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the United States International University in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: ___________________________  Date: __________________
Franciscar Ndawa (ID: 634269)

This project has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed: ___________________________  Date: __________________
Dr. Oliver Amwayi

Signed: ___________________________  Date: __________________
Dean, Chandaria School of Business
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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my beloved husband and children for their moral and material support. To my university supervisor, Dr Oliver Amwayi for giving me valuable ideas, suggestions and guiding me on the way forward through the entire period of writing the project.
Acknowledgement

The writing of this research project would not have been successful if it were not for the assistance of my lecturers, who taught me the various issues discussed in this project. I would also like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor Dr Oliver Amwayi; for guiding me through the writing of this project, correcting me where I went wrong, her tireless effort, guidance, immeasurable support, valuable suggestions and many hours spent in reading my work and encouraging me to do my best. The study would not have been complete without the assistance of the respondents who took their time to respond to the instrument of research amidst their own very busy schedules.

I would like to especially thank the Lord God Almighty for granting me life, strength and good health during the entire process of writing this project. I would like to specially thank my husband and children for supporting me financially, emotionally and for their sacrifices. May God bless them richly.

Finally I would like to thank my friends and classmates for the support they gave me.

May God Bless you all.
Abstract

The government of Kenya has for the last seven years attempted to address the challenges facing the girl child as far as education is concerned, though still there is a lot that needs to be done if anything meaningful is to be achieved (MoEST, 2010). The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that influence the girl child’s access to primary education in Kenya, with a case study of Mwitika division of Mutito district. The descriptive research design was used with a total population of six hundred respondents and a sample size of twenty six pupils and five teachers. Stratified random sampling was used to stratify the schools into four zones then simple random sampling was used to select one school per zone to participate in the study from the four zones. Simple random sampling was used to select the teachers who participated in the study. Simple random sampling was also used to select the pupils who participated in the study. Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Advanced Excel for accuracy purposes. Results were presented in form of charts and tables.

The major findings of the study revealed that in-school factors, prohibitive cultural practices and parent related factors influence the girl child access to education. Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the in-school factors that influence the girl child access to education include lack of text books and infrastructure, harassment by teachers, lack of role models, unfriendly natural environment and poor performance by other girls. The second conclusion is that cultural factors such as early marriages, unwanted pregnancies, female genital mutilation, the belief that parents prefer to educate boys and viewing girls as a source of income also influence the girl child access to education. The last conclusion is that the girl child access to education is influenced by responsibilities given to girls by parents such as fetching water, cooking, taking care of siblings and going to the market. The study recommended that; more women and girls should join and establishing mentorship programmes to mentor young girls, studying material should be made available, foundations and scholarships should be established and given to those who perform well so as to boost the morale of girl pupil. This study also recommends that laws and prescribing some punishment for any parents that give out their child for house help or marriage should be implemented even in the remote villages.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Problem

The Girl-Child has been defined as a biological female offspring from birth to eighteen (18) years of age (UNICEF, 2005; p. 4). This is the age before one becomes a young adult. This period covers the crèche, nursery or early childhood (0 – 5 years), primary (6 – 12 years) and secondary school (12 – 18 years). Education, the process of providing information to an inexperienced person to help him/her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically has been elusive for the girl child (UNICEF, 2005; p. 4).

A Chinese proverb states, “The world’s women are the heaven’s half” (UNICEF, 2005; p. 3). In 1985, during the United Nations World Conference on Women, the world was astonished to find that, women although representing 50% or more of the world’s population and putting in 60% of the working hours, they receive less than 10% of the world’s salaries and own less than 1% percent of the world’s real estate (UNICEF, 2000; p. 11). The unanimous call for the participation, education and political representation of women therefore has a double meaning. The assurance that women and men have equal access to decision making, posts and power and above all, the recognition that the needs and interests of women are political priorities is valid for all. Under many African cultures, the girl child is considered as a “lesser child” when compared to the boy child. Women usually ululate only once to a great arrival of the girl child while they will welcome a boy with two ululations. When parents cannot afford school fees for all the children, often the girl child is denied education in preference to the boy child (Grown, Gupta and Kes, 2005). It is assumed that investing in boys ensures the continuation of the family line. Generally, therefore, many African societies undervalue the girl child. She is placed at the bottom of the family ladder.

According to Offorma (2009, p. 3), millions of girls in Africa do not have access to school despite the concerted efforts to push the cause forward. In Ethiopia, girls are sometimes abducted for marriage when they are no more than eight years. In West Africa, they are recruited from poor rural families to work as domestic servants in coastal cities or even neighbouring countries. In Nigeria it is very difficult to find a house help today.
This is because there is awareness of the values of education, and so parents do not give out their children any more as house helps. When, the Honourable Minister of Education was the Executive Governor of Ebonyi state, he prescribed some punishment for any parents that gave out their child for house help, especially the girl-child. The story is different today in that state.

In South Africa, a recent report by Human Rights Watch warns that sexual violence and abuse are hampering girls’ access to education. In Afghanistan, they have simply been barred from school under the Taliban regime. According to Guttmann customs, poverty, fear and violence are the reasons why girls still account for 60% of the estimated 113 million out-of-school children, and majority live in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (UNESCO, 2012; p. 7). The right to education, which is a fundamental human right, is frequently denied to girls in some African countries. The then United Nations Secretary General, Kofi Annan, stated that in Africa, when families have to make a choice, due to limited resources, of educating either a girl or a boy child, it is always the boy that is chosen to attend school. In Africa, many girls are prevented from getting the education entitled to them because families often send their daughters out to work at a young age, so that they can get the additional income they may need to exist beyond subsistence level, and finance education of sons.

Making education available for all has been the goal of the Kenyan government since independence. This has been reflected in the numerous policy documents that have been produced as well as in the achievement of an impressive increase in adult literacy. The achievements in literacy have resulted in rapid progress in expansion of access to education, largely through the establishment of a comprehensive network of schools throughout the country (MoEST, 2010; p. 4). The expansion of education has been part of the efforts of addressing the major and longstanding concern of combating ignorance, disease and poverty; and the consideration. Through education and training, one acquires the capacity, confidence and credentials necessary to cope with the demands of increasingly selective markets and labour, commodities and service. Besides the importance of education, there continues to be a gender bias in many aspects of Kenya’s system of education and training. (MoEST, 2009; p.22) This is prevalent in the levels of education and skills development. The number of girls reduces as one move to higher
levels of education; while in the area of skills, women tend to be dominant in areas which require minimal or comparatively less marketable skills.

The training of girls is often different from that of boys. The vocational training of women has largely been concentrated in fields related to their perceived household responsibilities. They are trained in catering and related courses rather than technical or scientific courses. The latter training promises income-generating activities associated with products and services with significantly greater added value and consequently higher incomes. While household skills are important, they should not remain a monopoly of women. Education and training should equally prepare both boys and girls for participating in the economy beyond the household. Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) have affected achievement in the area of education by reducing enrolment rates (MOEST, 2010; p. 2). This reduction has been found to affect females more than males. In cases where families are economically pressed, parents often opt to educate boys, as girls remain to assist at home, or are made to work in order to make additional income for the household. Formal education is often used for assessing levels of education. In Kenya, national primary school enrolment rates at independence in 1963 were only 50%, and by 1991 this had risen to 95%. During the same period, the proportion of girls to the total population of pupils in primary schools was still low (MOEST, 2010; p. 3).

According to the Mid-decade meeting of the international consultative forum on education for all, Amman (1996; p. 22) reaffirmed the commitment to the Jomtien resolutions while observing that the provision of basic education, especially to girls, had remained elusive in many less industrialized countries. This was said to be particularly so in Sub-Saharan Africa, where ethnic tensions and conflicts had displaced many households, thus denying children opportunities of going to school. The Dakar Conference of 2000 during which a collective framework of action was formulated and adopted further amplified this. Indeed the Dakar Conference came up with two agenda in education for all goals: eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and achieving equality in education of good quality by 2015. These goals have more recently been echoed by the United Nation’s Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which the National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) Government, has endorsed and which among other things, reaffirm the goal of “ensuring that by 2015,
children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling” (MoEST, 2010; p. 6).

An examination of school census data for gender disparities in enrolment by class/standard reveals that the male/female ratio declines progressively (Deolalikar, 1999; p. 2). In Standard one, for every 107 boys there are 100 girls. However, at Standard six, for every 97 boys there are 100 girls. The ratio of male to female pupils declines continuously through Standard six (when there are only 97 boys for every 100 girls), and then reverses. The ratio increases through Form four, by which time there are 118 enrolled boys for every 100 enrolled girls. The increase in the male to female pupil ratio beyond Standard six seems to reflect the higher dropout rate for girls relative to boys.

During the 2002 general elections, in its election manifesto, NARC pledged to provide free primary education. Following its victory, on January 6, 2003 the Minister for Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) launched the Free Primary Education (FPE) programme thus fulfilling its election pledge on education. Primary school fees and levies for tuition were abolished as the government and development partners were to meet the cost of basic teaching and learning materials, wages for critical non-teaching staff and co-curricular activities. The government and development partners were to pay Kshs 1,020 for each primary child in that year. FPE did not require the parents and communities to build new schools, but they were to refurbish and use existing facilities such as community and religious buildings. To charge additional levies, school heads and committees were to obtain approval from the MoEST in a request to the District (MoEST, 2009, p. 4, 5)

Following the NARC declaration of FPE in January 2003, it was estimated that enrolment rose from around 6,314,726 to 7,614,326 pupils by the end of that year (MOEST, 2009; p. 6). This roughly represented a 22.3 % increase nationally. However, it was also estimated that another 3 million children were still not enrolled in school. Despite the various logistical problems that seem to be hampering successful implementation of FPE, the policy is commendable as it has meant cushioning children from poor socioeconomic backgrounds, especially girls from failing to participate in primary education or dropping out of school due to lack of fees and other school levies. Overall, the policy intervention could prove determinative in the efforts to achieve Education for All (EFA) and Universal Primary Education (UPE) (MoEST, 2009; p. 6).
Despite the FPE, the attainment of gender equity and equality in basic education is being hampered by the lack of clear policy measures to address gender in education concerns thereby mainstreaming gender in education. The closest the country has come in developing such a policy was in 1994 when the government appointed a National Gender Task Force in Education under the leadership of the Director of Education. The Task Force, however, remained inactive and it was only in 1996, when the first Gender Desk was established at the MoEST headquarters (MOEST, 2009; p. 7). The Gender Desk unit is responsible for identifying gender issues and advising on policy action to ensure gender parity in education. The unit is also expected to sensitize MoEST staff at all levels on gender issues. However, the unit is under-resourced and lacks gender-trained staff to effectively carry out its mandate (MOEST, 2009; p. 16). It is unable on its own to sensitize the field staff, let alone perform the task effectively at the MoEST headquarters.

According to Kotte (1996) UNICEF attributes the low enrolment rates of girls to cultural practices like early marriages, female genital mutilation, and lack of sanitary facilities and widespread poverty which currently stands at 80% in the region (p 14). The government of Kenya has for the last seven years attempted to address the challenges facing this gender as far as education is concerned, though still there is a lot that needs to be done if anything meaningful is to be achieved. It has built few girl boarding primary schools to ensure girls do not drop out of school in the area. It has begun universal free primary education in order to retain girls in school as the school fees is now catered for. The UNESCO which is non-governmental education body has in recent years given out sanitary towels to girls schools in the area to ensure that girl pupils do not fail to attend schools during the time of menses. The government has also begun school feeding programmes in some public primary schools in the area so as to retain children in school.

Education for the girl child has thus been an issue of concern to many African Countries and more specifically in Kenya. In recent times, there have been very many groups and organizations that champion women’s rights and seek to empower women in Kenya. For instance, Maendeleo ya Wanawake Organization (MYWO), Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE) and National Council of Women of Kenya (NCWK) have been in the forefront in fight of equality of sexes in Kenya. This has reduced cases of Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) and the level of enrolment of girl child in primary schools.
Mwitika Division is a hardship Zone where people have lived below the poverty line since time immemorial. The area is situated 180 Km Eastern part of Kitui District, Eastern province of Kenya. It is sparsely populated with an average population of about 2500 people. Three quarters of its population is between the age of five and twenty years (school going age). The people in this locality are Bantu speaking who use Kamba language. They are organized in small social structures called clans. They live in extended settings and most of the families are polygamous comprising of two to four wives in a family. The average number of children per family is between nine and twelve. The society is a male dominated one and much rooted to their culture and traditions. This means traditional practices like early marriages, child labour, polygamy and male child preference are still rampant in the area (MOEST, 2010, p 7, 8, 9).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Millions of girls in Africa do not have access to school despite the concerted efforts to push the cause forward (Offorma, 2009; p. 3). Koech (1999, p. 16) from his findings stated that factors such as customs and beliefs and parent related factors influence decisions to withdraw girls from school. The significantly identified cultural factor is the initiation ceremony, which creates a dilemma for girls, affecting their school attendance and performance and thus leading them to drop out of school. It has been reported in BBC News (2006) that African patriarchal societal viewpoint favours boys over girls because boys maintain the family lineage (p 15). In Kenya, girl–child education is elusive. Mwangi (2004 p. 7) wrote that a combination of poverty, disease and backward cultural practices continued to deny the girl-child her right to education.

The introduction of free primary education in Kenya led to an increase in enrolment. However, a sizable number of children, especially girls, still find themselves out of school making access to education remain a wide dream to many girls. These factors have been over the years been studied by UNICEF and UNRISD in developing countries, in a bid to reach for the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) (UNICEF, 2003; p. 1). However, so far, no known study has been carried in Mwitika Division to establish such factors. It is with this background that this study investigated the factors that affect girl child’s access to primary education, especially in Mwitika division of Mutito district. So far, no known study has been carried in Mwitika Division to establish such factors.
1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study investigated the factors that influence girl child’s access to primary education in Mwitika division of Mutito district

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What prohibitive cultural practices influence girl-child access to primary education in Mwitika Division?

1.4.2 What in-school factors influence girl child access to education in Mwitika Division?

1.4.3 What parent related factors influence girl-child access to education in Mwitika Division?

1.5 Significance of the Study.

This study investigated the factors that affect the girl child access to education. It made recommendations for appropriate interventions, processes, programmes and activities for promoting effective and efficient participation of the girl child in education. This research is of great importance to many educational stakeholders who are either directly or indirectly affected by the situation.

1.5.1 The Girl Child

The research findings create awareness of the girl child in the areas of her capabilities. They sensitize the girl child to be aware of her self-worth and her rights as a human being.

1.5.2 The Community

The findings of this research will help in creating a new way of life where the community seriously protects the girl child. The community will now recognize the equality of all our children.

1.5.3 Non-Governmental Organizations

Most of the programmes relating to the girl child are donor funded and usually undertaken by non-governmental organizations. This research therefore is useful to these bodies when determining the needs of the girl child.
1.5.4 The Government

The findings and recommendations for the study are useful to Government policy makers for key decision making, policy formulation and implementation in matters concerning the girl-child.

1.5.5 Further Research

The study will also be used by future researchers who wish to expound on the study.

1.6 Scope of the study

The research study focused on the factors influencing girl child’s access to education in Mwitika division of Mutito district as the target area. The case area was selected because there is no known study on the problem that has been carried out in the area.

1.7 Chapter Summary.

This chapter dealt with the background to the problem of girl child access to education, bringing into perspective introductory information about the various variables to be studied; cultural practices, in school factors and parent related factors that may influence access of education by the girl child. The chapter also introduced the research questions used for the purpose of the study as well as the area to be studied; Mwitika division. The stake holders that will benefit from this study have also been mentioned as the girl child, the community, non-governmental organization, the government and other researchers.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction.

This chapter contains a review of literature related to the proposed study. The chapter covers a review of literature on the in school related factors, cultural practices, parent related factors and how they affect girl child’s access to education. It will comprise the critical review of the area under study.

2.2 Access to Education by the Girl child

Some years before the year 2003, school was a big burden to many parents (Akinyi et al., 2012, p. 2). Actually many children of school-going age were out of school. That is why president Kibaki’s NARC party swept itself to power by promising to make primary education free. True to their promise (the only one they kept) primary education was made free. But nothing else was put in place. This gave rise to other problems that the government had not anticipated. First, over two million children joined the primary schools. The schools were overwhelmed since the classrooms were not expanded or added. Teachers were few and there were no desks or chairs for the newly enrolled pupils. Basically all limits were stretched. Some classes still have over 100 pupils. The teacher-pupil ratio was too big it did not make sense. The crisis lasted for a few weeks but finally the dust settled. The problems have never been solved to date. Then after realizing that the quality offered in the public schools was low, some parents transferred their children to private schools. As of now these private schools have more children than they did before the free education (Johannes, 2010, p. 4).

The poor from rural areas continue to stream into our cities, where schools are already overcrowded. Access to education is limited, its quality poor and the curricula often irrelevant to the needs of the learners and of social, cultural and economic development. Emerging industries need entrepreneurs, managers and skilled labourers in order to be competitive in our outdated education systems. Maybe the situation will come to improve when the government expands the facilities and employs more teachers, though as to when is highly debatable and most likely not in the near future (Sifuna, 2006; p. 9).
2.3 In-school Factors and Access to Education

Too often, schools themselves hurt the cause of girls’ education. There are few women teachers, or if there are female instructors, the head teachers are male (Koech, 1999; p. 44). Textbooks may reinforce gender stereotypes, with boys depicted as active and girls as passive. Curricula often exclude girls from mathematics, science and technology. Girls drop out of school when classes are not relevant, if there are no role models or if completing school fails to prepare them for meaningful employment (Koech, 1999, p. 45). Following decades of war, Somalia faces innumerable challenges, including low enrolment and attendance rates in primary education – 12 per cent for boys and barely 10 per cent for girls. Building from scratch, the country has an opportunity to create gender-sensitive schools and an inviting learning environment for all children.

With no central government, locally-managed Community Education Committees have been formed and many are attempting to take advantage of this opportunity. The committees exist in 90 per cent of schools across the country, with women making up nearly a quarter of their membership. United Nations agencies, non-governmental organizations and community-based groups have helped to develop a countrywide curriculum and textbooks for primary grades. A series of workshops with all stakeholders has crafted a ‘home-grown’ curriculum that respects cultural differences while advocating for children’s rights. For the first time, girls in Somalia are seeing images of themselves in non-traditional roles.

2.3.1 School Enrolment, Retention and Completion.

An inspection to primary schools revealed that most girls enter school at a late age because of the demand for their labour in their homes such as assisting in looking after their young siblings. They feel ashamed schooling with their young brothers. Eventually they drop out of school. UNICEF (2003) reported that in Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of girls out of school each year has risen from 20 million in 1990 to 24 million in 2002 (p. 6). Of the 25 selected countries studied, fifteen (15) were in sub-Saharan Africa. The criteria studied were: low enrolment rates for girls; gender gaps of more than 10 percent in primary education; countries with more than one million girls out of school; countries included on the World Bank’s Education For All Fast Track Initiative and countries hard hit by a range of crises that affect school opportunities for girls, such as HIV/AIDS and conflict. The fifteen countries included Chad, Nigeria, Sudan, Tanzania, Eritrea, Ethiopia
and the Democratic Republic of Congo. The worst hit is Southern Sudan, which has been seriously affected by civil war for decades. UNICEF said to wait for an end to the conflict would be to dismiss the rights of generations of children. UNICEF noted that in the area, as few as 15 percent of primary school-aged children were in school and girls represented only one quarter of the number. By the time the upper primary level was reached, there were hardly any girls left in school and at the territory's foremost secondary school, Rumbek, there was a solitary girl. Only 560 of the 8,000 teachers in Southern Sudan are women, which was merely seven percent (Nduru, 2003, p. 9).

2.3.2 Academic Qualification

The female students who are enrolled in school are frequently poorly served that by the end of the fourth year, more than half drop out of school without acquiring functional literacy. According to UNICEF news (UNICEF, 2000, p. 56) The completion rate at the primary school cycle in Kenya remains at 35 (thirty five) percent for girls compared to fifty five percent for boys. As we go up the education ladder, the gender disparities widen radically. In some countries like sub Saharan Africa only ten to fifteen percent of girls, compared with thirty five to forty percent of boys attend secondary school (UNICEF, 2000, p. 56) In Kenya and Tanzania for example, the undergraduate students’ population at the public universities consist of thirty percent females and seventy percent males. The dropout rate at both secondary and tertiary levels of education is also higher for girls than it is for boys. Quantitatively, it is well established that given equal opportunities, females perform as well as and even sometimes better than males. The Third International Mathematics and Science Study, (TIMSS, 1996; p.78) shows that in most countries girls and boys had the same average mathematics achievement. However in many instances and due to girls’ constraints in education, their performance is lower than of male especially in crucial areas like mathematics, science and technical subjects. Poor performance at both primary and secondary levels hinders female entry into higher levels and shuts them out of careers.

However, in the last two decades, a wealth of knowledge has been generated on the constraints hindering girls’ participation in education (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). Advances have been made in the development of successful strategies for addressing these constrains. Efforts are still needed to convince some sectors of the population of the importance of girls’ education. Concerted efforts are now focused on ways of ensuring
that girls enrol in education, that they persist and complete each cycle of education system, which can enable them to reap full benefit from education.

2.3.2 Education System

Curricula and teaching materials remain gender biased to a large degree and are rarely sensitive, to the specific needs of girls and women (Johannes, 2010, p. 12). The system reinforces tradition and female roles that deny women opportunities for full and equal partnership in society. There are no gender awareness educators at any level of education. This has strengthened the existing inequities between males and females by reinforcing discriminatory tendencies and by undermining girls’ self esteem. The system also lacks sexual and reproductive health education, which has a profound impact on both sexes. Science curricula in particular are also gender biased. Science textbook do not relate to women’s and girl’s daily experiences and fail to give recognition to women scientists. Girls are often deprived of the basic education in mathematics and science and technical training, which provide knowledge that they could apply to improve their daily lives and enhance their employment opportunities.

According to the ministry of education, science and technology (MoEST, 2010; p. 3), the girl child lacks role models (p. 76). Statistics from the ministry show that female teachers account for only about 30 per cent of the teaching staff. Most of these are to be found in the urban areas, leaving very few teachers in the rural areas. Remarkable efforts have been made to ensure that every child gets access to quality basic education, but we note that only about ten countries have achieved universal primary education. Although enrolment has increased considerably in many countries, it has not been adequate to accommodate rapid population growth and rural-to-urban migration, thereby giving an impression of being static relative to population size. Early childhood care and education programs are limited to the few in the urban areas. Based on countries’ own estimates, between 1990 and 1998, the net enrolment of boys increased by 9 per cent to 56 percent and of girls by 7 per cent to 48 percent in sub-Saharan Africa (Offorma, 2009; p. 6).

However, these figures mask considerable regional variations. In countries of the Indian Ocean, both girls and boys attained over 70 per cent net enrolment (Offorma, 2009; p. 8). Offorma also states that the most outstanding progress in terms of percentage increase of boys’ enrolment was in East Africa (excluding Somalia), where the net enrolment of boys
increased by 27 per cent (to 60 per cent) and of girls by 18 per cent (to 50 per cent), and for girls in Southern Africa, where the comparable figures for girls were 23 per cent (to 76 per cent) and for boys, 16 per cent (to 58 per cent) (UNICEF, 2000; p.17, 18,19). To Progress in the peaceful areas of West and Central Africa was counter-balanced by disastrous reversals in the warring countries. Currently available data indicate that about 40 per cent of girls and 50 per cent of boys are enrolled in West Africa, and 50 per cent of girls and 60 per cent of boys in Central Africa. The real figures may be much lower, however, as several of these countries were unable to collect data in recent years. Girls represent 56 per cent of the estimated 41 million school-age children who are out of school. Gender parity is highest in Southern Africa where many countries have attained near universal primary education and high adult literacy (Offorma, 2009; p. 10). Cases of extreme gender disparity (where girls' enrolment may be only half that of boys’) are mostly found along the southern rim of the Sahara, a region characterized by low adult literacy and weak economies.

Having entered school, however, girls have a 69 per cent chance of reaching Grade 5, compared with 70 per cent for boys. Here also, regional variations exist: in general, where enrolment and literacy are high, gender equality prevails; where enrolment and adult literacy are low, the survival rate of girls is generally lower than that of boys. The number of students dropping out of school has increased alarmingly in recent years, mainly due to increased costs or armed conflicts. Participation is particularly low amongst children in remote and rural areas, those with disabilities, refugees and internally displaced people, working children, ethnic minorities, and those affected by HIV/AIDS, conflict and other emergencies that have spawned an increasing number of orphans (UNRISD, 1994; p. 18).

2.3.3 Lack of Infrastructure

Universal education depends on an infrastructure that supports quality education. Requirements for accessible, gender-sensitive schooling go beyond the physical structure of a building or the classroom content. If schools are located far from communities or students must travel on unsafe or nonexistent roads, creative solutions to these problems must be found (Eileen, 2004; p. 8). Otherwise children, especially girls, will simply stay away. An example from three sisters on Bhutan; during the week, the three sisters from Bhutan live six hours away from their family in a hut built of mud and sticks. The girls
stay there to attend the closest school to their community. They walk back to their village, Pakhey, on Saturdays to see their parents and return to their temporary dwelling on Sunday with food for the week. (UNICEF, 2005; p. 9). Following this, the Bhutanese Government is working to put an end to the girls’ long journey. The government is constructing 137 new community schools by the end of 2005 to ensure that parents will not have to choose between their children’s education and their safety (UNICEF, 2005; p. 10). There are many non-curriculum considerations that support girls’ education, and failing to provide them makes education inaccessible, especially for girls. Schools need safe water and separate, clean sanitation facilities.

Too often, schools have polluted water supplies and filthy, broken latrines. In many cases there are no water or sanitation facilities at all. Health education curricula are undermined if children are unable to practice what they learn about drinking safe water or washing their hands. If parents think that schools are hazardous places, they will keep their children home. Many times girls who put up with deplorable conditions drop out once they begin to menstruate. Improving water and sanitation in schools will not only shift gender parity in education into high gear, it will also improve the odds of meeting the health related Millennium Development Goals. Getting children to wash their hands could reduce diarrheal disease among children by 40 per cent to 50 per cent and respiratory illnesses by 30 per cent, according to the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (Chambers, 1997; p.4).

Demand for education has outpaced availability of schools in some regions. Advocacy campaigns have been overwhelmingly successful – sometimes too successful. Families and children recognize that education is a human right, and they want to stake claim to it. But there may not be enough schools. What results are overcrowded classrooms, untrained or overworked teachers, and children who crave an education only to find out that the closest school is too far away? Kenya, Malawi, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia saw huge jumps in primary school enrolment when they eliminated school fees, resulting in packed classrooms and overtaxed teachers (Akinyi et al., 2012; p. 2). Quality education is lost when children are jammed into classrooms with insufficient textbooks and untrained teachers. If the curriculum or the teaching methods are poor, schools will neither engage children nor prepare them for the job market. If the classroom replicates gender inequality, girls are short-changed and remain powerless within families.
and society. Responding to the influx of students after Kenya eliminated school fees, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology implemented a pilot programme of child-centred and participatory learning in nine districts. It did this by ensuring optimum physical structures that had safe water, adequate sanitation, clean, well ventilated and lit classrooms, and stimulating, active and child-centred spaces; relevant and appropriate curriculum; and ongoing teacher training and assessment. By using locally available resources and low cost teaching aids, the average Kenyan Standard One classroom was transformed into a stimulating oasis for about KES 2,000 (about US $27). The new child-friendly schools are receiving rave reviews (Akinyi et al., 2012; p. 2).

2.4 Cultural Practices and Access to Education

Some of our socio-cultural practices are a hindrance to development. In some communities, for example, the education of the girl child is not a priority (UNICEF, 2000; p. 56). It is assumed that they will be married off and hence no need wasting resources on them. In others, especially the pastoralist cultures, only the boys who cannot look after cattle are sent to school. Again, some pastoralists like the out of school Maasai, Samburu, Turkana and Pokots are nomads. They have no permanent homestead. Some of the communities take their girl children from school to marry them to old men (Barbara and Gene, 2004; p. 26). A girl as young as 13 years is married to an old man (Mzee) of 60 years or more. According to Eshiwani (1984; p.3, 4) factors such as customs and beliefs influence decisions to withdraw girls from school. Among Eshiwani’s widely identified cultural factors was the initiation ceremony created several dilemmas for girls, affecting their school attendance and performance and thus leading to dropping. This was referred to as a child treated, punished in an appropriate way by adults. The initiative developed negative influence on their uncircumcised peers and teachers resulting to indiscipline. Their performance declined and finally they dropped out of school. Many girls found it difficult to return to school after initiation because their next expectation was marriage. The girls are therefore viewed as important sources of income for their families through dowry/bride price. Their priority takes over education of girl child; high status accorded to motherhood and marriage in most communities’ impact girls’ participation in schools education especially as girls approach puppetry.

Brook (1994, p.79) reports that cultural expectations and values influence the pattern of women’s participation in formal education. There are religions where parents wish to
protect their daughters from contact with foreign cultures. Even in religion where there is acceptance of the importance of education for women, it was observed that parents tend to discourage too much education for their daughters. There is always the fear that if a girl is highly educated, she will have difficulties in finding a husband or being a good wife. Girls are regularly taken out of school to care for ailing family members or forced to work to replace lost income (Offorma, 2009; p. 6). The pandemic has created a generation of orphans, unprotected and left to fend for themselves. In sub-Saharan Africa, the epicentre of the orphans crisis, children aged 10 to 14 who have lost both their parents are less likely to be in school than their peers who are living with at least one parent. When families are displaced for whatever reason, their school is interrupted ( Munyao, 2013; p. 2). When the rains fail, they cannot go to school since they would not learn when they are hungry. Others drop out of school to take care of their siblings when their parent(s) die. When the family income drops, the school expense is the first to do away with (Offorma, 2009; p. 7).

2.4.1 Early Marriages

The various family systems existing in Kenya differ in their treatment of children’s rights as far as marriage is concerned. These systems use different age denominations to define who a child is. Under African customary law and Islamic law (Sunni) there is no fixed age of marriage. The age of puberty is generally regarded as an appropriate for marriage under Islam, the age of legal responsibility is attached to the age of puberty of either sex (Akinyi et al., 2012; p. 4). In practice, 15 to 18 years for boys and 9 to 16 years for girls are often treated as the periods from which the concept of legal responsibility is derived. According to the constitution of Kenya, marriage may take place if it is auspicious for the girl and is based on a good match as seen by her parents (Mohammedan) marriage and divorce Act (Cap 156). The Hindu marriage and divorce Act (Cap 157) provides that the minimum age of marriage for females is 16 years and for males is 18 years. The marriage Act (Cap 150) gives 16 years as the minimum age for both males and females to enter marriage (MOEST, 2010; p. 4). However, before attaining the age of 21 years, those wishing to marry must obtain their parents’ or guardians consent. Looking critically at the age that the law provide, this is the time that of school going age when girls are supposed to be married off. Relate to education.
Social and cultural thinking dictate separate roles, behaviour attributes and expectations from each gender. The girl (female gender) is viewed as belonging to the household domain, while the boy (male gender) belongs to the public domain. This trend is illustrated in homes where by both girls and boys are in schools but the girl child still has to participate in household duties and responsibilities. In addition duties predominantly undertaken by girl child are not monetary valued and thus often they are not regarded as work (UNRISD, 1994; p. 23). Cultural practices founded from patriarchy perpetuate gender inequalities by sustaining gender differences in decision – making and resource ownership. All households have historically been left for the girl child and their mothers. Ownership of wealth and the nature of inheritance and succession are limited for girl child.

Girls and women mostly own movable property (household goods, farm produce, ornaments) while boys and men own immovable property (land, plots, urban residential houses and business premises) and valuable movable items such as vehicles, machinery and shares. Boy child also have the benefit of inheriting wealth including land from parents, while girl child do not inherit even when the law permits them to do so. Over the years women and girls have been excluded from decision making organs handling land issues. If the next century is going to be characterized as a truly African century, for social and economic progress of the African people, the century of durable peace and sustained development in Africa, then the success of this project is dependent on the success of our education systems. For nowhere in the world has sustained development been attained without a well-functioning system of education, without universal and sound primary education, without an effective higher education and research sector, without equality of educational opportunity.

2.4.2 Child Labour

Gender roles and traditions that keep girls from school contribute an additional barrier to universal education. When economic situation tightens, children are vulnerable to exploitation as cheap (and docile) labour. In Kenya, poverty drives many family members to seek ways of augmenting meagre resources. Hiring out children to work is one way many families in the area with low income levels hire out their girls to work as bar attendants, house helps or for prostitution so as to add into income levels. Most societies operate on division of labour by sex, although what is considered male and female tasks
varies across cultures implying that there is no fixed gender division of labour. Significant social differences between girl child and boy child are created by existing division of labour within the family and respecting economic activities (UNICEF, 2000; p. 98). Beck in the paper “Using gender-sensitive indicators” states that girls undertake more tasks than boys, especially regarding duties than are done daily and regularly. Young girls are often drawn from school to help their mothers in babysitting and looking after their younger sisters and brothers (Beck, 1999; p. 22)

The gap between literacy rates for men and women has decreased significantly in developing countries particularly for the women less than twenty-four years of age (Munyao, 2013; p. 4).

2.4.3 Poverty

Poverty extinguishes hope of going to school for many children. Girls are more likely than boys to lose educational opportunities due to poverty (UNICEF, 2005; p. 4). Destitute families often cannot afford to send all their children to school. If it means choosing between sons and daughters, girls usually lose out. Even in cases where primary education is free, hidden costs such as books, supplies, uniforms or food may prohibit sending daughters to school. In societies where married women live with their husbands’ kin, parents find little value in investing limited funds in a daughter’s education only to see another family reap the rewards (Svags, 2008; p. 97). Other costs such as lost income or household labour also derail girls’ chances of attending school. If household money or chores are needed, girls often land in the paid child labour force or are required to fetch water, find firewood and care for younger siblings or ill family members.

There is a high correlation between work and girls’ school enrolment and completion rates (Akinyi et al., 2012; p. 3). In the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, for instance, total hours worked per week strongly predicted the rate of girls’ school attendance. In Cambodia, poverty drives innumerable girls into the labour market. Seng Srey Mach, 15, was forced to drop out of school for two years to work in the fields when her mother became ill. She thought that her education was lost forever.

“I used to cry when I saw my friends on their way to school,” said Seng Srey, who lives with her mother in Prey Veng Province. That has since ceased. An OPTIONS scholarship, run by World Education, CARE International, The Asia Foundation and Kampuchean
Action for Primary Education, with support from UNICEF and the United States Department of Labour, has allowed her to attend classes at Dey Thoy School in Bung Preah Commune (UNICEF, 2005; p.17). In poverty-stricken areas like Prey Veng, families frequently migrate because of alternating bouts of flood and drought. Impoverishment and instability put girls in further danger of illiteracy and exploitation (UNICEF, 2005; p. 19). The scholarships help protect children like Seng Srey from child labour, trafficking and sexual exploitation, which swallow indigent girls. An option is bringing hope to girls in other provinces as well, including Kompong Cham, Banteay Meanchey and parts of Phnom Penh (UNICEF, 2005; p. 25).

National poverty also makes schooling inaccessible. When countries like Kenya are mired in debt and large portions of their budgets go to loan repayment, education is often the first casualty of cost cutting (Johannes, 2010; p. 11). Dilapidated schools are not fixed or replaced, roads are not built or maintained, books and other supplies go missing, teachers are not trained or paid adequately and school fees soar. When these conditions exist, few families can send their daughters to school and in many cases would not want to send them even if they could. Families are afraid to permit daughters to travel distances on unsafe roads or see little value in the education provided by under-funded schools.

2.4.4 Armed Conflict and Other Crises

Whether an all-out internecine war, a series of deadly eruptions, an economic crisis or a natural disaster, calamities wreak havoc on education. Schools are often used as barracks by the military, shelters for refugees, triage centres for victims or sites for administering emergency services. Girls are especially vulnerable during catastrophes because gender inequality is exacerbated and social norms break down (Eileen, 2004; p. 56). Women and girls often carry the heaviest burden of day-to-day family life during crises. Domestic violence surges during stress and turmoil. And throughout history, rape has been used as a weapon of war. Education is critical during times of emergency. Along with sports, education can help children recover from trauma, assist them in piecing their lives back together and restore routine to an otherwise fractured existence (Eileen, 2004, p. 59). Essential services can be provided at school, including psychosocial interventions. Girls’ education is particularly crucial in that it can provide a protective environment, and enable young women to learn assertive behaviour and develop the necessary skills to cope with adversity (Munyao, 2013; p. 2).
2.5 Parent Related Factors and Access to Education

Children whose mothers have no education are more than twice as likely to be out of school as children whose mothers have some education. In developing countries, 75 per cent of the children not in primary school have uneducated mothers. The 2005 timetable for gender parity in education was realistic and attainable. It was also ambitious and demanding (UNICEF, 2005; p.7). Yet, obstacles, big and small, continue to thwart efforts to get girls into school. They are not secrets: intractable poverty, insidious gender roles and cultural traditions, HIV/AIDS, armed conflict, other catastrophic emergencies and a lack of basic infrastructure deprive girls of their rightful place in the classroom (MoEST, 2010; p. 88).

Patriarchy characterizes almost all contemporary societies. It is a belief system that condones male supremacy and dominance over women in general. Patriarchy is universal and it takes different forms according to historical and cultural circumstances. Overtime, women learnt to oppose their subordination by men. The concept of gender was introduced in the women’s movement in 1970s to express the fact that girls’ subordination, inferiority and powerlessness are not dictated by nature, but rather have social, cultural, political and historical foundations. Even with the introduction of free primary education, access to education still remains a pipe dream to many Kenyan children and especially to the girls. Whereas the introduction of free primary education in 2003 saw an increase in the enrolment, a sizable number of girls still find themselves out of school owing to a number of reasons (BBC, News from Africa, 2004; p.15).

2.5.1 Gender Roles and Traditions

Girls and women are often shackled by gender roles and outdated traditions, with male privilege and entitlement ensuring that when educational opportunities are limited, boys will take available classroom space. Early marriage for girls is pervasive in many cultures. Bride prices are incentives for parents to forgo educating their daughters and instead marry them – sometimes as young as 10 – to older husbands (Chege and Sifuna, 2006; p. 55). Many girls become mothers in early puberty. In many places, official or informal educational policies prohibit married or pregnant girls from attending school. If a girl was attending school, once she is married or pregnant her education often stops. The Chege and Sifuna report also states that pregnancy may also result from rape, involvement with ‘sugar daddies’ who provide money or gifts, or sexual liaisons with
male students or teachers (Chege and Sifuna, 2006; p. 59). Many girls are victims of sexual harassment and violence inside and outside of school. When parents are afraid that their daughters will not be safe going back and forth to school or in the school environment itself, they keep them home.

2.6 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed in details literature on the areas addressed by this study. The literature showed that the society is yet to reach the overall goal of universal education for children; policymakers will need to make special efforts to address the economic, social, and cultural barriers that keep even larger proportions of girls in poor countries out of school. Indeed, extensive research confirms that investing in girls’ education delivers high returns not only for female educational attainment, but also for maternal and children’s health, more sustainable families, women’s empowerment, democracy, income growth, and productivity. This chapter summarizes the extensive body of research on the state of girls’ education in the developing world today; the impact of educating girls on families, economies, and nations; and the most promising approaches to increasing girls’ enrollment and educational quality. While challenges still exist, existing research provides us guidance on how to make significant progress. The chapter also summarizes studies conducted in the past concerning the major variables, which include in school factors, prohibitive cultural factors, parent related factors and how these variables affect girl child’s access to education.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction.

This chapter gives information relating to the methodology and design of the study. It explains the research design, target population, sampling design and data collection methods. The research procedure and data analysis methods that were followed in the research process are also explained. All these guided the implementation of the research study towards the realization of the research questions.

3.2 Research Design

Cooper and Schindler (2000; p. 19) define research design as the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. It aids the scientist in the allocation of limited resources. The researcher adopted a descriptive research design. Descriptive research portrays an accurate profile of person’s events or situations (Robson, 2002; p. 43). According to Zikmund (2003; p.4) the major purpose of descriptive research is to provide information on characteristics of a population or phenomenon. Descriptive studies are based on some previous understanding of the research problem. A descriptive study tries to discover answers to *who, what, when, where* and sometimes *how* questions, it also attempt to capture attitude or patterns of past behaviour (Cooper and Schindler, 2000; p. 18). Descriptive design was the most appropriate design for this study because the design is not only restricted to facts finding but may often result in the formulation of important principle of knowledge and solution to significant problems. The design is more than just a collection of data since it involves measurement, classification, analysis and interpretation, which was very applicable in this study.

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

A population is defined by Cooper and Schindler (2000; p.18) as the total collection of elements about which we wish to make some inferences. The target population in this study consisted of 200 teachers and 400 pupils as shown in Table 3.1. There are 212 teachers and 4,044 primary school going pupils in Mwitika division, Mutito district, who
are between seven and eighteen years of age. Since the number of teachers was small, the researcher targeted 100%. For pupils, the researcher employed a $10\%n$ formulae where $n$ = total population of each gender as shown on Table 3.1 below. A summary of the Target and sample population is clearly explained in APPENDIX IV.

Table 3.1 Target Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Zone A</th>
<th>Zone B</th>
<th>Zone C</th>
<th>Zone D</th>
<th>Total Pop.</th>
<th>10%n</th>
<th>Total Target pop.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>(10%n)</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils(boys)</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>2,050</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils(girls)</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>1,994</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td>1,266</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>1,327</td>
<td>862</td>
<td>4,256</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: KNBS (2012)

3.3.2 Sampling Design

A sampling design is a design or working plan specifying the population frame, sample size and sample selection in detail. The objective of the sampling design is to know the characteristics of the population under study.

3.3.2.1 Sampling frame

According to Cooper and Schindler (2000; p. 21) a sampling frame is closely related to the population. It is the list of elements from which the sample is actually drawn. For purposes of this research, the sampling frame was drawn from stakeholders of the public primary schools Mwitika Division of Mutito District, who are the pupils and teachers of the stated schools. This is shown in table 3.1.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique

Cooper and Schindler (2000; p. 21), state that several compelling reasons for sampling exist and these include lower cost, greater accuracy of results, greater speed of data collection and availability of population elements. In this case the researcher used a random selection of elements to reduce or eliminate sampling bias (Cooper and Schindler, 2000; p. 21). Under such conditions, we can have a substantial confidence that the sample
is representative of the population from which it is drawn. Stratified random sampling was used to cluster the schools into four zones then simple random sampling was used to select one school per zone to participate in the study from the four zones. Simple random sampling was used to select the teachers (two teachers per school) who participated in the study. The technique enabled the researcher give every teacher an equal chance of being selected.

Simple random sampling was also used to select the pupils (five pupils per school) who participated in the study. The technique enabled the researcher give each pupil an equal chance of being selected in each school participating in the study to be the sample size for the research report.

### 3.3.2.3 Sample Size

Hussey & Hussey (1997; p 10) maintain that a representative sample is one in which the results obtained for the sample can be taken to be true for the whole population, in other words it enabled the researcher to be able to generalize from the results. The targeted population was 600, the researcher intended to sample 5% of the total population.

Thus $5\% = \frac{5 \times 600}{100} = 30$ respondents of the target population size of study.

**Table 3.2 Sample size**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample frame</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>5 Percentage (%) sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary school teachers</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils (boys + girls)</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total sample group</strong></td>
<td><strong>600</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sample was a representative of the whole population and formed the respondents of the study.
3.4 Data Collection Methods

The researcher used both primary and secondary data. The secondary data was obtained through document reviews while the primary data was gathered through questionnaires. According to Hussey and Hussey (1997; p. 14), a questionnaire is a list of carefully structured questions chosen after considerable testing, with a view to eliciting reliable responses from a chosen sample. The questionnaires contained both structured and non-structured questions and were designed to gather maximum data to achieve each question of the study. The researcher administered two separate questionnaires, one to the pupils and the other one to the teachers. Both questionnaires were divided into two parts. Part 1 sought the bio data of the respondent, while Part 2 was composed of questions related to the three research questions. All the questionnaires were designed by the researcher.

3.5 Research Procedures

Cooper and Schindler (2003; p. 20) are quoted as saying that writers usually treat the research task as a sequential process involving several clearly defined steps. First, Pilot testing of questionnaires was done with a sample population that was not part of this study, to find out if the instrument was valid and reliable. This was done by using the test-retest method whereby the questionnaires were administered to the respondents to fill, and the same respondents were issued with the questionnaires again after a week to fill the required information. This was then compared to see if the respondents really understood the questions and if there was consistence in their response. Pilot testing ensured that the questionnaire captured the required information as guided by the research questions.

Second, the actual questionnaires were hand delivered to the respondents. Through the questionnaire the researcher was able to collect information on factors that limit girl child access to education in Mwitika division Mutito District. The questionnaires were self-administered.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

Hussey and Hussey (1997; p. 14) state that if one has collected mainly quantitative data, they need to conduct some form of statistical analysis. The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative techniques for data analysis. The qualitative technique of data analysis was used to analyze open ended questions and provided more-in-depth details.
Descriptive statistics were used to analyze quantitative data collected by questionnaires. Descriptive statistics were applied to generate frequency distribution tables, data entry sums and averages. All the data collected was analyzed by use of Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Advanced Excel for accuracy purposes and easier interpretation.

3.7 Chapter Summary.

This chapter critically analyzed the means of finding answers to the research questions. Descriptive design was used in this study. The population in this study consisted of 200 teachers and 400 pupils as shown in Table 3.1 Stratified random sampling was used to cluster the schools into four zones then simple random sampling was used to select one school per zone to participate in the study from the four zones. Simple random sampling was used to select the teachers (two teachers per school) who participated in the study. The technique enabled the researcher give every teacher an equal chance of being selected. Simple random sampling was also used to select the pupils (five pupils per school) who participated in the study. The technique enabled the researcher each pupil an equal chance of being selected in each school participating in the study to be the sample size for the research report. Questionnaires were used to collect data while All the data collected was analyzed by use of Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Advanced Excel for accuracy purposes and easier interpretation.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND KEY FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysed data findings of the study. The findings of this report fall into the following categories: general information, prohibitive practices that influence girl child access to primary education, in-school factors that influence girl child access to primary education, and parent related factors that influence girl child access to primary education. The researcher administered questionnaires to two categories of respondents; the Pupils and Teachers. This was in an aim to get the opinion of both categories on the factors that influence girl child’s access to education in Mwitika division.

4.2 General Information

The researcher administered the teachers’ and the pupils’ questionnaires to respective of respondents. A total of 31 respondents filled the questionnaires. The response rate for teachers was 50%. The response rate for pupils was 100%. Of the total number of respondents, 83.87% were pupils while 16.13% were teachers as illustrated in Figure 4.0. Thirty eight point seven (38.70) % of the pupil respondents were female while 45.20% were male. Of the teacher respondents, 3.20% were female and 12.90% were male. In total, 41.90% of the respondents were female while 58.10% were male, as shown on Table 4.0.

Figure 4.0 Respondent’s position in school
Table 4.0 Gender and Position of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITION</th>
<th>PUPIL</th>
<th>TEACHER</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEMALE</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>38.70%</td>
<td>3.20%</td>
<td>41.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALE</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>45.20%</td>
<td>12.90%</td>
<td>58.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>83.90%</td>
<td>16.10%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 indicates that the age brackets of the pupil respondents were 5-10, 11-15 and 16-20, with 71.6% of the pupils falling within the bracket of 11 to 15 years category.

![Age Distribution Chart]

Figure 4.1 Ages of Pupil Respondents

For the teachers, the age bracket was between 20 years and below and 21 to 30 years, with 60.0% in the below 20 years old bracket as shown in Figure 4.2
When asked if they believe fewer girls than boys complete school in Mwitika Division, 59.26% of the pupils responded to the affirmative, as shown on Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3 Pupil’s response on whether fewer girls than boys complete school in Mwitika Division

To investigate why the pupil respondents believed this, where the pupils were asked to select major factors (in-school factors, parent related factors and cultural practices) which they believed led to this disparity. The Normal distribution statistical procedure dictates that on a 5% confidence level and a total of 26, only figures that fall between 10 (38.5% of total) and 26 (100% of total) interval are to be considered as significant (Dyche and Davenport, 2013; p. 13). As is thus the case, A Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted on the pupil’s responses and the results are presented on Figure 4.4.
Figure 4.4 above clearly shows that 96.1% of the pupil respondents are strongly of the opinion that early marriages are the reason why fewer girls than boys complete primary school, while harassment by teachers accounted for the least possible reason for the disproportion with 19.2% of the respondents stating that harassment by teachers is a major factor. 50% of the respondents believed that lack of role models was also a major contributing factor. Absenteeism was listed by 65.3% of the respondents as the major in-school factor limiting girls in accessing primary school education. Early marriages were listed by 96.1% of the respondents as the major cultural factor limiting girls’ access to primary school education. As a parent-related factor, taking their girls to work as house helps for other rich families was listed by 73.0% of the respondents as a major factor limiting girls’ access to primary school education.
4.3 Cultural Practices that Influence Girl Child Access to Primary Education

Culture comprises shared beliefs and practices that characterize people of a particular place or class. The African culture has practices that are a hindrance to development. Mwitika division is occupied by the Bantu community known as Akamba. The researcher asked the teachers and pupils to identify some of the cultural practices that influence girl child access to primary school education.

4.3.1 Pupils’ Opinions

The pupils identified the following cultural practices as influencing the girl child’s access to primary school education.

Early Marriages

Early marriages were listed as the major prohibitive cultural factor that influences girl child’s access to education. As Figure 4.5 shows, 92.12% of respondents answered that early marriages is a major factor limiting girls from accessing education in Mwitika Division.

![Figure 4.5: Early marriages and girl child’s access to education.](image)

Early and Unwanted Pregnancies

Another major factor listed was early and unwanted pregnancies, as 80.25% of the respondents listed it as factor influencing girl child’s access to education. As depicted in Figure 4.6.
Figure 4.6: Early, unwanted pregnancies and Girl child’s access to education.

The cultural view that girls are a source of wealth and low community attitudes towards girl child education (preferring to educate boys than girls) were also listed as factors that influence girl child’s access to education in Mwitika Division. Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8 clearly show this.

**Girls as a Source of Wealth**

In some African communities, girls are seen as a source of wealth through the bride price that the man will pay when she gets married. When asked whether the belief that the girl child is viewed as a source of wealth influenced the girls’ access to education, 55.56% of them said it did while 44.44% negated as shown in figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7 Viewing girls as a source of wealth and access to education.
Negative Attitude towards the Girl Child

In some African communities, the education of the girl child is not a priority (UNICEF, 2000; p. 56). It is assumed that they will be married off and hence no need wasting resources on them.

![Figure 4.8 Negative community attitudes towards girl child education (preferring to educate boys than girls) and access to education.](image)

4.3.2 Teachers’ Opinions

Teachers, who play the role of “parent” when the pupil is in school, reported that they had noted that the community had some cultural practices and beliefs that limit girls in accessing primary school education in the area. The study went ahead and asked the teachers to identify the various cultural factors. Unwanted pregnancies, female genital mutilation, parent’s preference to educating boys, girls being viewed as a source of wealth, and early marriages were listed as these cultural factors. However, as Table 4.2 illustrates, early marriages is the most prevalent cultural practice binding girls. The other factors were listed as significant cultural factors.
Table 4.2: Prohibitive Cultural factors that Influence girls in accessing primary school education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural factors</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early Marriages</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>5 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted Pregnancies</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Genital Mutilation</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>4 80</td>
<td>5 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents Prefer to Educate Boys</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>3 60</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>5 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls Viewed as a Source of Revenue</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>4 80</td>
<td>5 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 In-School Factors that Influence Girl Child Access to Primary Education

4.4.1 Pupil’s Opinion

The pupil’s questionnaires were subjected to a PCA which highlights the major and significant in school factors influencing girl child’s access to education as per the responses of the pupils. These major factors are explained below.

![Fig4: Does lack of textbooks a factor limiting girls from accessing education in Mwitika Division?](image)

Figure 4.9 Lack Textbooks’ influence on access to education

When asked if Text books were a factor that influences girl child’s access to education, 55.56% of the students stated “No”, meaning they did not believe that text books were something that can influence access to education as shown on Figure 4.9 above.
Figure 4.10 below shows that 62.96% of the pupils believe that lack of education facilities may influence girl child’s access to education.

Does lack of education facilities/infrastructure e.g. shortage of desks a factor limiting girls from accessing education in Mwitika Division?

![Bar Chart]

| Yes | 62.96% |
| No  | 37.04% |

**Figure 4.10 Lack of Education facilities and access to education.**

When asked if Teacher absenteeism influences girl child’s access to education, 62.96% responded that it does not, as Figure 4.11 shows.

![Pie Chart]

**Figure 4.11 Teacher’s Absenteeism and access to education.**

Affirmative is the response that 62.96% of the pupils gave to the question “does lack of role models in school influence the girl child’s access to education?” as shown on figure 4.12 below.
Figure 4.12 Lack of role models and access to education.

When the pupils were asked whether poor academic performance influences girl child’s access to education in Mwitika Division, 50.62% said it does, while 48.15% said it does not. **Figure 4.13** clearly shows this.

Figure 4.13: Poor academic performance and access to education.

To the question “Does unfriendly environment influence girl child’s access to education?” 64.20% of the pupils responded to the affirmative as **Figure 4.14** shows.
Figure 4.14 Unfriendly school environment and access to education

4.4.2 Teacher’s Opinion

Table 4.1: In-School Factors that use right term Girls in Accessing Primary School Education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-school factors</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Text Books</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>3 60</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Facilities</td>
<td>3 60</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harassment by Teachers</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>3 60</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Role Models</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly Natural Environment</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor Performance by Other Girls</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>2 40</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>5 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As per Table 4.2 above, four out of the five teachers interviewed (80%) do not support the notion that lack of text books and other infrastructure is a factor that limits girls in accessing primary school education. Unsurprisingly, 100% of the teacher respondents interviewed did not believe that harassment by teachers was a factor that may limit girls
in accessing primary school education. Lack of role models, unfriendly natural environment and poor performance by other girls were the in-school factors that the teacher respondents had equally different opinions on with the 2:1:2 ratios as Table 4.2 indicates.

4.5 Parent Related Factors that Influence Girl Child Access to Primary Education

4.5.1 Pupil’s opinion

As was the case to In-school factors that influence girl child’s access to primary school education and Prohibitive Cultural factors that influence girl child’s access to primary school education, the pupil’s questionnaires were also subjected to analysis and the following were the major factors listed as parent related.

![Graph showing percentage of pupils affected by home chores]

**Figure 4.15 Home chores and access to education.**

**Figure 4.15** above shows that 72.84% of the pupils listed that home chores, such as caring for siblings as a factor that influences girl child’s education in Mwitika Division. Also, the girl child being used as house helps in well up (rich) families was also listed as a major factor that influences girl child’s access to education as shown on **Figure 4.16.**
Figure 4.16 Girls being used as house helps in rich families and access to education.

4.5.2 Teacher’s opinion

Further investigation established that the girl child has been given several responsibilities at home by parents which require them to be at home most of the time. The respondents stated that from experience and from what they have seen happen in their families, parents give these responsibilities which have to be carried out. These responsibilities include fetching water for the family, preparing and cooking food for the family, looking after other siblings herding and going to the market to sell or buy. Table 4.4 clearly illuminates this.
Table 4.3: Responsibilities that influence access to education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSIBILITIES AT HOME</th>
<th>Fetching water</th>
<th>Taking care of siblings</th>
<th>Going to the market</th>
<th>Herding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER 1</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER 2</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER 3</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER 4</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEACHER 5</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Boy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Chapter Summary

The respondents of this study were constituted mainly by teachers and pupils as shown on Figure 1.0. The study ensured that there was a gender balance where female respondents accounted for 41.9% and the male respondents accounted for 58.1%, clearly shown on Table 4.0. The study focused on the pupil’s opinion of factors limiting girls in accessing primary school education and teachers’ perception of the same. The study established these factors and explained them under the categories of in-school factors, cultural factors and parent related factors as indicated by Table 4.2, Table 4.3 and Table 4.4. The study showed that pupils believe that early marriages are the major factor influencing girl child’s access to education. For the teacher’s opinion as to the major factors influencing girl child’s access to education, early marriages, Female Genital Mutilation and viewing girls as a source of revenue were listed as major factors.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, discussions, conclusions, and recommendations. The first section provides a summary of the purpose of the study, the research objectives, summary of the research methodology and a summary of the major findings. The second section discusses the findings of the research objectives on the basis of collected literature review. The next section illustrates the conclusions drawn from the discussions. The chapter concludes by giving recommendations guided by research objectives.

5.2 Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors that influence girl child’s access to primary education in Mwitika division of Mutito district. The research questions that guided this study were: What are the in-school factors that influence girl child access to education? What prohibitive cultural practices influence girl-child access to primary education? And what are the parent related factors that influence girl-child access to education?

The research design used was descriptive. The total population comprised of three hundred respondents with a sample size, with 26 pupils and 5 teachers. Simple random sampling method was used to select the sample. The respondents included teachers and pupils. Information was collect using a questionnaire developed by the researcher. The questionnaire was first piloted to ensure it would be easy to understand and reliable. Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Advanced Excel for accuracy purposes. Majorly, Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted, due to the many variables so as to pick out the major variables for explanation. Results were presented in form of charts and tables.

The findings of the study clearly revealed that both teachers and pupils, who form part of the major stake holders of the education sector, agree that in general fewer girls than boys are enrolled and complete primary school education. The major findings of the study revealed that there are a number of factors that influence girl child access to education. These factors are in-school factors, prohibitive cultural practices and parent related
factors. The in-school factors majorly include lack of text books and infrastructure, harassment by teachers, lack of role models, unfriendly natural environment, and poor performance by other girls. The cultural factors include early marriages, unwanted pregnancies, female genital mutilation, the belief that parents prefer to educate boys and viewing girls as a source of income. The findings also show that the parent related factors are responsibilities at home given to girls by parents. They include fetching water, cooking, taking care of siblings and going to the market.

5.3 Discussion

This section comprises of discussion based on the specific research objectives of the study.

5.3.1 In –School Factors that Influence Girl Child Access to Education

Girl child education continues to face challenges that seem to thwart efforts of stakeholders in the education sector. A research conducted by UNICEF (2010) on girl child education in Sub-Saharan Africa revealed that there are many in-school factors that limit girls in accessing education. The research went further and explained that in sub-Saharan Africa, more than half of girls (54%) do not complete even a primary school education (Bruns et al., 2003). In Chad, 90 percent of all 15- to 19-year old girls had not completed even primary school and in Burkina Faso, 80 percent had not done so, according to a 1999 study (Filmer, 1999). In Mwitika Division, the case is (sadly) the same, with teachers and pupils agreeing that school completion rates for girls id lower than that of boys.

The school plays a major role in determining if there will be a high enrolment and completion rate for the pupils. Girls, in particular, require well maintained and readily available facilities to ensure constant attendance in school. Researchers like Chege and Sifuna (2006) established that in public school, pupils sit on the floor and learn under trees. Increase in the number of pupils enrolled has led to this. Sifuna strongly recommended that the government expands the learning facilities and employs more teachers to help cope with this problem. A research conducted by World Bank (1997) ascertains that Universal education depends on an infrastructure that supports quality education. Requirements for accessible, gender-sensitive schooling go beyond the physical structure of a building or the classroom content. If schools are located far from
communities or students must travel on unsafe or nonexistent roads, creative solutions to these problems must be found. Otherwise children, especially girls, will simply stay away (Chambers, 1997). The findings of this research, however, oppose the suggestion that lack of infrastructure and text books hinders girls from accessing education. The respondents stated that the challenge of infrastructure in schools affects all students and is not biased to girls, as it may have been hypothesized. None the less, the results of this research, as the researcher established, strongly second the proposition that an unfriendly environment (natural or otherwise) does affect girls’ access to education.

A role model has been defined by society as a person who is worth looking up to. Lack of role models as well as poor performance by other girls, going by the results of this research, are main contributors to the low rate of girls completing and enrolling in schools. These results verify the theory drawn from statistical figures from the ministry of Education (2009). Koech (1999) stated that textbooks may reinforce gender stereotypes, with boys depicted as active and girls as passive. Curricula often exclude girls from mathematics, science and technology. Girls drop out of school when classes are not relevant, if there are no role models or if completing school fails to prepare them for meaningful employment (Koech, 1999). This has been found to discourage girls as they see no one to look up to and convince them that they can make it. This may be the reason why pupils and teachers listed Lack of role models as a factor that influences girl child’s access to education. Poor performance by other girls, which can also be as a result of lack of people to mentor them and act as role models, clouds the minds of parents. The assumption by parents and teachers, as the researcher found out, is that the girls in school will be victim to poor performance as the other girls did and thus they are pulled out of school.

5.3.2 Prohibitive Cultural Factors Affecting Girl-Child Access to Education

Educating girls, according to the African culture and tradition, was long considered a great privilege with the few who were attended school being treated as outcasts. In some communities, this belief is still being practiced. Looking critically at the age that the law provide, this is the time that of school going age when girls are supposed to be married off. Researchers Barbara and Gene (2004) discovered that in some communities, for example, the education of the girl child is not a priority. It is assumed that they will be married off and hence no need wasting resources on them. In others, especially the
pastoralist cultures, only the boys who cannot look after cattle are sent to school. Again, some pastoralists like the Maasai, Samburu, Turkana and Pokots are nomads. They have no permanent homestead. Some of the communities take their girl children from school to marry them to old men (Barbara and Gene, 2004). This practice, as the researcher found out is still practiced in Mwitika division of Mutito district. The study established that girls’ performance declined and finally they dropped out of school. Many girls found it difficult to return to school after initiation because their next expectation was marriage. The girls are therefore viewed as important sources of income for their families through bride price. Brook (1994) in his research found out that there is always the fear that if a girl is highly educated, she will have difficulties in finding a husband or being a good wife. This was echoed in the results of this study where the pupils themselves stated that this fear existed.

The researcher also established that unwanted pregnancies, which were related to the early marriages, were a contributing factor to girls being away from school. Researchers Chege and Sifuna (2006) verified in their research that many girls become mothers in early puberty. In many places, official or informal educational policies prohibit married or pregnant girls from attending school. If a girl was attending school, once she is married or pregnant her education often stops. The Chege and Sifuna report also states that pregnancy may also result from rape, involvement with ‘sugar daddies’ who provide money or gifts, or sexual liaisons with male students or teachers (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). The results of this study strongly support this report. The researcher established that early marriages, which come with early and unwanted pregnancies, are the cultural practices that keep girls away from school.

5.3.3 Parent Related Factors that Influence Girl-Child Access to Education

A parent plays a very important role in laying the foundation of their child’s future. Any duty of responsibility handed out by a parent has to be carried out. More often than not, girls fall victim to these responsibilities. According to Offorma (2009), girls and women mostly own movable property (household goods, farm produce, ornaments) while boys and men own immovable property (land, plots, urban residential houses and business premises) and valuable movable items such as vehicles, machinery and shares. As a result, women and girls have been excluded from decision making organs handling land issues. Beck (1999) in his report stated that most societies operate on division of labour

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by sex, although what is considered male and female tasks varies across cultures implying that there is no fixed gender division of labour. Significant social differences between girl child and boy child are created by existing division of labour within the family and respecting economic activities. Beck in the paper “Using gender-sensitive indicators” sates that girls undertake more tasks than boys, especially regarding duties than are done daily and regularly. Young girls are often drawn from school to help their mothers in babysitting and looking after their younger sisters and brothers (Beck, 1999).

The researcher backs up Beck’s sentiments. Results from this study evidently place the girl child as a victim of circumstances in terms of responsibilities at home. The study also found out that if household money or chores are needed, girls often land in the paid child labour force or are required to fetch water, find firewood and care for younger siblings or ill family members. Renowned researcher Offorma (2009) stated that Girls are regularly taken out of school to care for ailing family members or forced to work to replace lost income, as is the case in Mwitika division of Mutito district, from the results of this study.

5.4 Conclusions

5.4.1 In–School Factors that Influence Girl Child Access to Education

Rates of primary school completion for girls are high, according to the findings of this research. In school factors that lead to this sad predicament are few, as this study established. Lack of role models and poor performance by other girls clearly are the major in-school factors that inhibit girl child access to primary school education. There being no one to look up to and emulate, the girls feel discouraged to go on. Primary school being the stage where most girls are experiencing puberty and getting their first periods, if there are no older female teachers or older sisters to help them go through this stage, the girls mostly drop out of school. Other factors like unfriendly environment are factors that negatively affect girls in school. Mwitika division of Mutito district being located in a dry and hot area, the unfriendly natural environment can be considered as a factor affecting access to education for both girls and boys. Lack of infrastructure, facilities and textbooks were other factors that the study established influence both boys and girls from accessing primary school education. The researcher therefore concluded that Lack of role models, poor performance by other girls, unfriendly environment, lack of infrastructure, facilities and textbooks are the major In school factors that influence girl child’s access to education in Mwitika Division.
5.4.2 Prohibitive Cultural Factors Affecting Girl-Child Access to Education

Mwitika division is located in an interior part of Mutito district. As a result, the society there is a male dominated one and much rooted to their culture and traditions. This means traditional practices like early marriages, child labour, polygamy and male child preference are still rampant in the area. While other communities in the country have embraced modernity, this one has not. Early marriages are the most rampant cultural practice keeping girls away from school. Girls are married off at a very early age. The results of this study show that these early marriages come with another challenge, the challenge of early and unwanted pregnancies. Those who decide to go on with their studies (it is believed) do not get suitors to marry them. Other cultural beliefs like girls being a source of wealth and income are also very much present. As a result, parents prefer to educate boys, as this research found out. Thankfully though, as the results of this study clearly show, Female Genital Mutilation is not practiced in Mwitika division. The researcher thus concluded that male child preference, early marriages, early and unwanted pregnancies and girls being a source of wealth are the major prohibitive cultural factors that influence girl child’s access to education in Mwitika Division.

5.4.3 Parent Related Factors that Affect Girl-Child Access to Education

The parent related factors that affect girl-child access to education, include responsibilities given to the girl child by the parent such as Fetching water, cooking, taking care of other siblings and going to the market keep girls away from school. This is mainly because girls undertake more tasks than boys, especially with household chores. Young girls are often drawn from school to help perform these chores in the presence or absence of the mother figure. The researcher thus concluded that parent given responsibilities are the major parent related factors that influence girl child’s access to education in Mwitika Division.

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Recommendations for Improvement

5.5.1.1 In –School Factors that Influence Girl Child Access to Education.

It is recommended that more women and girls join and establish mentorship programmes through which girls in primary schools will be mentored and encouraged to pursue
education. Studying facilities such as textbooks need to be bought. Infrastructure that is up to date needs to be set up, especially in the upcoming digital upgrade of primary schools. Considering that many girls enrol in primary schools, effort should be made to ensure that the same number, or even greater, complete school. Establishing foundations and scholarships to those who perform well will go a long way in boosting the morale of girl pupil. Therefore, this study recommends that the government and other stake holders to support girls by offering more scholarships.

5.5.1.2 Cultural Factors Affecting Girl-Child Access to Education.

It is important that the concern raised by respondents on early marriages be addressed. The Kenyan government took some initiatives in the promotion of children’s education by establishing the Children’s Act of 2001. The Act also created a department for children to deal with their rights and welfare. Application of such laws as, imprisonment of any person found guilty of negligence in this case, knowingly and wilfully causing a child to become in need of care and protection will help towards the promotion of the children’s right to education. According to Section 127 of the Children’s Act 2001, “any person found guilty of negligence is liable for a maximum of five years’ imprisonment or a fine of a sum not exceeding KES 200,000 or both fine and imprisonment”. This study therefore recommends that this law be implemented even in the remote villages. The government should ensure this law is implemented.

5.5.1.3 Parent Related Factors that Affect Girl-Child Access to Education

Parents need to be educated on the importance of educating girls as well as boys. Moreover, prescribing some punishment for any parents that give out their child for house help, especially the girl-child. This study recommends that the government and the community ensure there is awareness of the values of education, and so parents do not give out their children any more as house helps or any other responsibilities that keep girls away from school.

5.5.2 Suggestions for Further Research

In future studies, there is need to investigate other stakeholders’ (parents, education officers and others) perception of the girl child’s primary school education completion rate.
Lack of facilities was listed as a factor that does not limit girls in accessing education. A similar study should be carried out in other parts of Kenya to establish whether lack of facilities limits girls in accessing education.

It will also be interesting to find out how far Kenya is in attaining the Millennium Development Goal “Education for all”.

Finally, future researchers can also find out if there are factors that limit boys in accessing and completing primary school.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Teachers’ questionnaire

Instructions
Kindly complete the following questionnaire. Read each item and fill or tick your response in the appropriate box. The information you give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and only for the purposes of this research.

Thank you.

Section 1: General information
Name (Optional)__________________________________________________________
Age: __________________
19-20 □
21-30 □
31-40 □
41-50 □
50 and above □
Sex: ___________________ Male □
Female □

Section 2
RQ1. In-school factors that influence girl child access to primary education.
1. The following are major in-school factors that inhibit girl child access to education.

Please tick your appropriate answers as per the rank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Lack of textbooks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Lack of education facilities/infrastructure eg shortage of schools, desks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Harassment by teachers</td>
<td></td>
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<td>K</td>
<td>Lack of school fund levies</td>
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1) If there are any others, please specify______________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
2. What are the major challenges that face
   a) Boys in primary school ________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________________________
   b) Girls in primary school ________________________________________________
   ______________________________________________________________________

RQ2. Prohibitive cultural practices that affect girl child access to primary school education.

3. The following are cultural practices that influence girl child access to education. Please tick your appropriate answers as per the rank.

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<td>Early and unwanted pregnancies.</td>
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<td>Girls are seen as a source of wealth and therefore parents do not waste money on them but encourage them to marry quickly and bring wealth to the family</td>
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<td>G</td>
<td>It's believed that education is only for boys</td>
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<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>It's believed that girls who go beyond 18 years never get married</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>Polygamy is high causing increased number of children who parents cannot provide for. Parents then give priority to support only boys.</td>
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</table>
Q3. *Parent related factors that affect girl child access to education*

4. When family resources are limited who is given the first priority in education. Please tick one

- Girls [ ]
- Boys [ ]

5. When calamities like death of the mother strike in a family who is mostly affected in terms of schooling?

- Girl child [ ]
- Boy child [ ]

6. When both girls and boys perform well in K.C.P.E who is given first priority to attend secondary school if resources are limited?

- Girls [ ]
- Boys [ ]

7. Who between the boy child and girl child is responsible for the following duties at home?

   a) Fetching water for the family ______________________
   b) Preparing and cooking food for the family __________________
   c) Babysitting and looking after the young siblings ______________
   d) Herding animals ______________________
   e) Going to the market__________________________
APPENDIX II: Pupils’ Questionnaires

Instructions
Kindly complete the following questionnaire. Read each item and fill or tick your response in the appropriate box. The information you give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and only for the purposes of this research.

Gender

Male ☐ Female ☐

Age: ______________________ 5-10 ☐
11-15 ☐
15-20 ☐

1. Do you think there are few girls than boys who complete primary school in Mwitika division?
   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If your answer in question one is yes, what are the factors that influence girls in accessing primary school education in the area?

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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of education facilities/infrastructure eg shortage of schools, desks</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Harassment by teachers</td>
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<td>Lack of role models in school</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>The girls are married off at an early age</td>
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<td>Its believed that girls who go beyond 18 years never get married</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Polygamy is high causing increased number of children with limited ability to provide for them. Parent’s priority is to support only boys whom they can afford.</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Most parents (mothers) who have not gone to school do not send their girls to school.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Girls are busy helping their mothers to take care of their young siblings</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Girls are frequently drawn out of school to help their mothers with household chores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Girls are frequently drawn out of school to work as house helps in other well to do families</td>
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***END***
APPENDIX III: Letter of introduction to respondents

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY
P. O. BOX 14634 - 00800,
NAIROBI
2ND SEPTEMBER 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: Request for Research Data

I am a master’s student at United States International University (USIU) pursuing a Degree of Executive Master of Science in Organizational Development (EMOD). In partial fulfilment of this course, I am carrying out a research about factors that affect girl child’s access to primary school education; a case study of Mwitika division, Mutito district.

I would therefore kindly ask for your assistance to provide me with some data to enable me perform the research. The information you will provide shall be treated with utmost confidentiality and it will only be used for academic purpose only, for this research and for no other purpose.

Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Franciscar Ndawa
APPENDIX IV: Target population and sample selection *(Source: KNBS (2012))*

### STATISTICAL DATA 2012 - PRIMARY ENROLMENT

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Target Teacher Population selection:
Formulae = 100% \( n \) where \( n = \text{total population} \)
\[
= \frac{100 \times 212}{100} = 212 \approx 200
\]

Target Pupil Population selection:
Formulae = 10% \( n \) where \( n = \text{total population} \)
Boys = \( \frac{10 \times 2050}{100} = 205 \approx 200 \)
Girls = \( \frac{10 \times 1994}{100} = 199 \approx 200 \)

Summary:
Total number of zones: 4
Total number of schools: 36
Total number of schools per zone: 9