SCHOOL VIOLENCE AND GIRL CHILD ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF SUBA WEST, MIGORI COUNTY, KENYA

A Thesis Presented to the School of
Postgraduate Studies and Research
Kampala International
University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
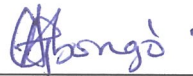For the Award of the Degree of
Master of Education

BY
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August, 2011

DECLARATION A

"This dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for a Degree or any other academic award in any University or Institution of Learning".

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29th - 08 - 2011

Date

DECLARATION B

"I confirm that the work reported in this dissertation was carried out by the candidate under my/our supervision".

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MR. SSEKANJUGO DERRICK

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APPROVAL SHEET

This dissertation entitled" School Violence and Girl Child Academic Performance in Primary Schools of Suba West, Migori County, Kenya" prepared and submitted by Akiniyi Grace in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education has been examined and approved by the panel on oral examination with a grade of Passed.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my father Joshua Owino Abongo, my husband Rev. James Juma Chuchu and my children Alfred, Erastus, Annette and Juliet.

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to find out relationship between school violence and girl child academic performance in primary schools of suba west, Migori County, Kenya. The central research Objectives were; "To determine the profile of the respondents in terms of;i) age, gender, marital status and level of education, ii) establishing the varying forms of violence in school, iii) establishing the level of academic performance on girl child iv) establishing the relationship between school violence and girl child academic performance and v) suggest measures that should be undertaken in an attempt to address violence in schools in Suba West, Migori County, Kenya". A total of 103 respondents which involved male and female respondents. The study followed a paradigm of non experimental descriptive research which was a cross sectional survey research design. Simple statistical methods of data analysis were used i.e. frequency analysis, percentages and a paired sample t test for comparing the means of the respondents' opinion that were scaled on a five point Likert scale and the level of academic performance of the girl child. The findings of this study revealed that school violence does exist and has a significant effect on the academic performance of girls. However, corporal punishments was ranked the highest that a big effect on the academic performance of girls in schools, as a way forward study recommended; recommended extra co curricular activities; the school is the main institution outside the family that has access to the pupil population for long periods of time and teacher training is extensive and of high quality; Staff training for program-specific activities on violence prevention is needed.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

UNCRC	United Convection on the Rights of the Child
WHO	World Health Organization
UN	United Nations
GBV	Gender Based Violence
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Infections
CVI	Content Validity Index

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SCOPE

Background of the Study

Education is widely recognized as key to national development. An increase in access and quality of education relative to the national population is critical to socio-economic growth and productivity, increased and subsequently reduced income inequalities and the reduction of poverty. It also contributes significantly to improved health enhanced, democracy good governance and effective leadership, (Kenya Ministry of Education 2007). Article II of the African Charter on the rights and welfare of the child, cited in African Network for the Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect (1999), stipulates that every child shall have the right to education. It further states that the education of the child shall be directed to the promotion and development of the child's personality, talents and mental, physical ability to the fullest potential. For this to happen, children must be provided with quality education, in an enabling environment and support from adults. This quality of educational infrastructure in most rural primary school is quite challenging compared to urban primary schools. In some cases children learn outside under trees.

The year 2003 saw the beginning of the implementation of free primary education in Kenya, Ministry of Education (2004). The decision by the government to provide free education to all the children of Kenya was a noble but a challenging undertaking. One of the biggest challenge is to

improve quality of education and improved performance, in primary schools throughout the country whether rural or in urban areas. The introduction of universal primary education in 2003 raised the gross enrollment rate in primary schools from 88.2pecent in 2002 to 102.8 percent in 2003 according to Ministry of Education (2007). With regard to educational performance urban primary schools still register better performance than rural primary schools in the country.

Article 19 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN CRC) defines violence as "all forms of physical or mental violence, injury and abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse". A more extended definition offered in the World Report on Violence and Health (WHO, 2002) reads: "the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development or deprivation". Both definitions indicate that violent acts include physical, sexual, and psychological abuse and neglect.

Gender-based violence occurs in every segment of a society regardless of class, ethnicity, or country. Several studies indicate that violence is the result of the complex interplay of individual, relationship, social, cultural and environmental factors (Panos 2003; Belay Hagos 2005; UN 2005; WHO, 2002). For instance, traditions that approve of male superiority tolerate or even justify violence. In addition, the fact that sanctions imposed by the society against perpetrators are not tough may

also contribute to the problem. Other factors such as poverty and the low status that is accorded to women in a society contribute to gender-based violence (GBV).

The male consciousness in Kenya conforms to the general concept of masculinism and is aptly demonstrated in Kenyan cultural norms. For example, a quick comparison of the vocabularies on gender in the *Kikuyu* language reveals that the word for man *mundu-murume* comes from the word *urume, which* means extremely courageous. In contrast, the word *mutumia* (woman) comes from the word *tumia,* which means to use. Thus men from the *Kikuyu* ethnic community not only define themselves as the dominant sex, but also in terms of the norm of seeing that women merely exist for their use (Kariuki 2004). In the voice of a Kenyan woman who recounts the advice she got from her mother prior to marriage: respect him (her husband) and do what he wants lest he demand back the *ruracio* (bride-price) that had been paid (Davison, 1989). There is thus every reason to believe that the Kenyan society has socialized the male to think of females not only as subordinates, but also as their instruments.

Olsson (1984:73) indicated that male confirms and proves his maleness, virility, through his sexuality. It becomes the core, the very essence around which he consciously and unconsciously forms the idea about himself as a man. And as most men age, they learn to cancel out or deny erotic sensations that are not specifically linked to what they think a real man is to feel (Stoltenberg 1989:33). This is to an extent that, masculine ideas are associated with violence, virility, and power, and

hence it is easy to see how male sexual behaviour might emerge as predatory and aggressive. So, when masculinity is associated with aggression and sex conquest ,domineering sexual behaviour and violence become not only a means of structuring power relations between men and women , but also a way of establishing power relations among men (Heise 1995).

In Kenya still, some metaphors used tend to justify sexual violence. For example, the metaphor of the sharpened spear, this was used specifically for the circumcised penis carrying with it the idea that a penis was forged and fashioned not only against the men in battle field but against women in sexual combat (LeVine 1959). The extent to which sexual act is rendered culturally an act of aggression differs from society to society. In Kenya, it reaches its most extreme expression possibly among the Gusii, for which LeVine (1959) wrote that all sexual intercourse was played as rape with women even in marriage expected to resist.

The few studies of gender violence in schools that exist come almost exclusively from sub-Saharan Africa. Rather than indicating that it is most prevalent in African countries, the studies are likely to be the result of a concentration of donor and lending programmes in this region, where efforts at poverty alleviation through improved health, education, governance etc. are present on a large scale, and where there are very high rates of HIV/AIDS infection.

Studies from sub-Saharan Africa have focused almost exclusively on heterosexual relations and violence against girls and have not

investigated the incidence of violence against boys or against teachers. They have also addressed primarily the sexual abuse of female pupils by male teachers and male pupils. For example, Leach and Machakanja (2000) and Leach et al. (2003) examined the abuse of junior secondary school girls by older boys, teachers and 'sugar daddies' in Zimbabwe, Ghana and Malawi and found that there was a high level of sexual aggression from boys, which went largely unpunished in the schools, and some cases of teachers propositioning girls for sex. This behaviour was largely tolerated and 'normalized'. All three educational systems were characterized by a reluctance to take action against either teachers or pupils. Teachers downplayed or dismissed the suggestion that some teachers had sex with their pupils, although both male and female pupils talked about teachers offering to give girls high grades or gifts in exchange for sex. At the same time, there was reluctance among girls to report incidents for fear of being blamed for having 'invited' the abuse, being ridiculed or victimized (e.g. a male teacher singling a girl out for beating in class because she turned him down, or threatening to fail her in tests and exams). Existing literature on violence is mainly based in domestic violence. Comparatively fewer researches on gender based violence have been undertaken in context of primary schools in developing countries like Kenya. Hence, there is a lack of knowledge on the preferred gender violence in primary school.

Statement of the Problem

An exploration of violence in schools also needs to take into account the fact that the violence may stem from discriminatory behaviour

on the grounds of ethnicity, religion, age or disability as well as of gender. However, it is beyond the scope of this review to include all forms of violence in schools. Thus, study focuses on violence against girls which includes 'explicit' forms of violence such as sexual violence and sexual abuse and 'implicit' forms such as corporal punishment, verbal abuse and bullying. A number of studies have investigated not only formal aspects of the school which have impacted on access and participation, for example the curriculum, examinations and teaching quality, but also and more significantly, the informal school environment and the part that this plays in perpetuating gender differentiation in education. Some examples of the latter are: Gordon (1995), Miske and Van Belle-Prouty (1997), Sey (1997). Such insights enhance our understanding of the daily life experiences of children in schools and their impact on outcomes. Understanding this dynamic and complex school context will have a direct bearing on the extent to which the incidence of school violence can be reduced through appropriate intervention strategies.

Purpose of the Study

The study aimed at investigating the forms of school violence on girl child academic performance in selected primary schools within Suba West, Migori County Kenya.

Research Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

i) To determine the profile of the respondents in terms of: age, gender, marital status and level of education

ii)   To determine the varied level of violence in schools to the girl child within Suba West primary schools of Migori County.

iii)   To determine the level of academic performance of the girl child in Suba West, Migori County.

iv)   To establish the relationship between school violence and academic performance of the girl child in Suba West, Migori County, Kenya

v)   Suggest the measures that can be undertaken in an attempt to address violence in schools in subs west, Migori County, Kenya.

Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following questions.

i)   What is the profile of the respondents in terms of: Age, gender, marital status and level of education?

ii)   What is the varied level of violence in schools to the girl child within Suba West primary schools of Migori County?

iii)   What is the level of academic performance of the girl child in Suba West, Migori County?

iv)   What is the relationship between school violence and academic performance of the girl child in Suba West, Migori County, Kenya?

v)   What measures can be undertaken to address violence in schools in subs west, Migori County, Kenya?

Hypothesis of the study

The study sought to test the following hypothesis:

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between school violence and girl child academic performance

Scope of the study

Content Scope; the study focused on; Identifying and establishing the effect of violence on girl child academic performance

Theoretical Scope; The study was supported by the Human Needs Theory by Maslow, Burton, Rosenberg and Max-Neef as cited in Marker (2003). Human needs theorists argue that one of the primary causes of protracted or intractable violence is people's unyielding drive to meet their unmet needs on the individual, group, and societal level.

Geographic Scope; The study was carried out in Migori County, an administrative area in the Nyanza Province of which is located in Southwestern Kenya. Migori county has been split into two Sub counties: Rongo (North) and Migori (South) Sub Counties.

Time Scope; the study was carried out from March to July 2011

Significance of the study

The researcher is quite hopeful that the study findings will help to awaken both the top and lower educational administrators to the need to have effective monitoring and supervision of the various activities that are being done in primary schools so as to wipe out all sorts of school related violence.

The researcher is also hopeful that the research findings will to help awaken parents and/or relatives the of pupils of the benefits of studying and thus realize the need to have their children sent to school since it is stressed that investment in education contributes to a lot to national growth and development and that as parent send their children

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to school, there would be more chances of securing a rightful future for them where by such children stand less chances of developing anti social behaviors.

The researcher is optimistic that other scholars and or researchers will use the information gathered in their own studies for the purpose of improving this research study in the course of time. The outcomes of the study would also be used to advance suggestions, ideas and solutions to the problems encountered in the struggle to achieve effectiveness in learning.

Operational Definition of key terms

Academic performance: Refers to how students deal with their studies and how they cope with or accomplish different tasks given to them by their teachers in order to achieve the preferred teaching and learning outcome.

School Violence: This a multifaceted construct that involves both criminal acts and aggression in schools which inhibits academic Performance.

Violence is the use of physical force to apply a state to others contrary to their wishes

School; A place of primary instruction; an establishment for the instruction of children; as, a primary school; a common school; a grammar school.

CHAPTER TWO

RELATED LITERATURE

Concepts, Ideas, Opinions from Authors/ Experts

'Violence is aggressive behaviour that may be physically, sexually or emotionally abusive. The aggressive behaviour is conducted by an individual or group against another, or others. Physically abusive behaviour, is where a child, adolescent or group directly or indirectly ill treats, injures, or kills another or others. Smith & Levan (1995) say that the aggressive behaviour can involve pushing, shoving, and shaking, punching, kicking, squeezing, burning or any other form of physical assault on a person or on property. Emotionally abusive behaviour is where there are verbal attacks, threats, taunts, slagging, mocking, yelling, exclusion, and malicious rumours. Sexually abusive behaviour is where there is sexual assault or rape.'

The phenomenon of school violence encompasses all incidents in which any member of the school community is subjected to abuse, threatening, intimidating or humiliating behavior, or physical assault from a pupil, teacher, or staff member. Estimates for Latin American schools show that violence among pupils is the most common type (80 percent of cases), followed by violence on the part of pupils directed at teachers (15 to 20 percent), and violence on the part of parents toward teachers (2 percent) (Vanderschueren & Lunecke, 2004).

Academic performance; refers to how learners deal with studies and the way they cope with or accomplish different tasks given to them

by their teachers in order to achieve the preferred teaching and learning outcome..

Theoretical Perspectives

No one single theory of violence can explain all of the various forms of violence and often there is more than one type of violence present in any given incident. Understanding these various forms of violence may provide health care professionals with an awareness of what to expect and how to approach any given behavioral emergency, however the study will be supported by the Human Needs Theory by Maslow, Burton, Rosenberg and Max-Neef as cited in Marker (2003). Human needs theorists argue that one of the primary causes of protracted or intractable violence is people's unyielding drive to meet their unmet needs on the individual, group, and societal level.

Human Needs Theory offers insights into a range of peace building processes that are involved in "the reduction of both direct and structural violence. Christie, (1997) says that to this theory, in order to live and attain well-being, humans need certain essentials. These are called human needs or basic human needs. Human needs theorists argue that conflicts and violent conflicts are caused by unmet human needs. Violence occurs when certain individuals or groups do not see any other way to meet their needs, or when they need understanding, respect and consideration for their needs. Rosenberg states that violence is a tragic expression of unmet human needs, implying that all actions undertaken by human beings are attempts to satisfy their needs. If we are able to connect with our needs

and those of others, we will therefore be able to look at other ways of meeting such needs, avoiding violence and destruction.

Rosenberg (2003) contends that, human needs or basic human needs are confused with subsistence needs. However, such a view of human needs may limit our understanding of the human being to simply exist as a biological creature. Although there are conflicts over subsistence, most conflicts have to do with other unmet human needs, such as protection, identity, recognition, participation and understanding. Only by giving more importance to these latter needs, truly recognizing them as human needs essential to the wellbeing of all human being, will we be able to address current and intractable conflicts. Our confused view of human needs as subsistence needs only is also in part due to the alienation of "needs" we have created in our society. Needs are often associated with weakness, and someone who needs is considered weak and fragile. This also further impedes the inclusion of needs approaches in conflict transformation and peace processes.

Various researchers have applied human needs theory, like Maslow, Burton, Rosenberg and Max-Neef. Maslow (1973) in his Pyramid of Human Needs puts emphasis on the hierarchy of needs, stating that some are more urgent than others. He says although all needs are instinctive, some are more powerful than others. The lower the need is in the pyramid, the more powerful it is. The higher the need is in the pyramid, the weaker and more distinctly human it is. The lower, or basic, needs on the pyramid are similar to those possessed by non-human animals, but only humans possess the higher needs. On the base of the pyramid he places food,

water, and shelter. On a second level, he places the need for safety and security, followed by belonging or love. The need for self-esteem is found on a fourth level and finally on a fifth and final level, personal fulfillment. Maslow (1973) further argues that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy in terms of their potency and each human being is trying to meet needs on a certain level at any one time. An individual looking to meet needs for food and water will not be looking to meet needs of belonging, love or self-esteem. Only when the needs on the lower end of the Pyramid are met, will humans look to meet their need for personal fulfillment.

Burton (1979), since the publication of his book, *Deviance, Terrorism and War: The Process of Solving Unsolved Social and Political Problems*, has been closely identified with the theory of basic human needs. Burton did not invent the theory, which posits the existence of certain universal needs that must be satisfied if people are to prevent or resolve destructive conflicts, but he gave it its most impassioned and uncompromising expression. He has been applying human needs theory more actively to current social and political conflicts. In his work on protracted, social conflicts, he looks at how universal human needs often are neglected, leading groups to use violence to claim their rights and satisfying their needs. In what is really a compatibility of human needs, Burton argues that education and culture make parties manipulate the issues and dehumanizing the other parties. In Burton's view (1990), the needs most salient to an understanding of destructive social conflicts were those for identity, recognition, security, and personal development. Over

time, however, he tended to emphasize the failure of existing state systems to satisfy the need for identity as the primary source of modern ethno-nationalist struggles. The great promise of human needs theory, in Burton's view, was that it would provide a relatively objective basis, transcending local political and cultural differences, for understanding the sources of conflict, designing conflict resolution processes, and founding conflict analysis and resolution as an autonomous discipline. Galtung (1997)

Rosenberg's (2003) approach, human needs are universal and meeting them is essential to human survival and well-being. Rosenberg groups the needs in sub-groups, and is open to the existence of needs beyond what he has defined. He states that our education and culture often alienate us from connecting with our real needs, and through Nonviolent Communication, he proposes a model for connecting with our own and others' needs, an approach he applies in all levels of society and which he has used in mediation in several countries.

The Chilean economist Max-Neef also proposes nine universal human needs, through which he argues that we can achieve human development and peaceful societies. Max-Neef defines his main proposal, Human Scale Development, as "focused and based on the satisfaction of fundamental human needs, on the generation of growing levels of self-reliance, and on the construction of organic articulations of people with nature and technology, of global processes with local activity, of the personal with the social, of planning with autonomy, and of civil society with the state." Like Burton and Rosenberg, Max-Neef agrees that no

need is superior to other, and that they are all complementary and essential to human life. The main contribution that Max-Neef makes to the understanding of needs is the distinction made between needs and satisfiers. Human needs are seen as few, finite and classifiable (as distinct from the conventional notion that "wants" are infinite and insatiable). Not only this, they are constant through all human cultures and across historical time periods. What changes over time and between cultures is the way these needs are satisfied.

In Table 1, needs as defined by Maslow, Burton, Rosenberg and Max-Neef have been presented. Please note that there is no relationship between needs in each row. They are merely listed according to the theorist who refers to them. Only Maslow ranks them by importance. The other theorists' lists of needs are random.

Table 1: Human Needs, as presented by various theorists

Maslow	Burton	Rosenberg	Max Neef
Food, water, shelter (1)	Distributive justice	Physical Nurturance	Subsistence
Safety and security (2)	Safety, Security	Interdependence	Protection
Belonging or love (3)	Belongingness	Love Integrity	Affection
Self-esteem (4)	Self-esteem	Autonomy	Understanding
Personal fulfillment (5)	Personal fulfillment	Play	Creation
	Identity	Celebration and mourning	Identity
	Cultural security	Spiritual Communion	Leisure, Idleness
	Freedom		Freedom
	Participation		Participation

Source; Marker (2003)

Conceptual Framework

Independent Variable

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ Violence                        │
│    Explicit violence            │          **Dependent   variable**
│      ●  Sexual harassment(-ve)  │
│                                 │       ┌──────────────────────┐
│                                 │       │                      │
│    Implicit violence            │       │  Girl child academic │
│      ●  Stealing- food          │       │     performance      │
│            -   money            │       │                      │
│            -   stationery       │       │                      │
│                                 │       │                      │
│      ●  Verbal Abuse (-ve)      │       │                      │
│      ●  Corporal punishments (-ve) │    └──────────────────────┘
│                                 │
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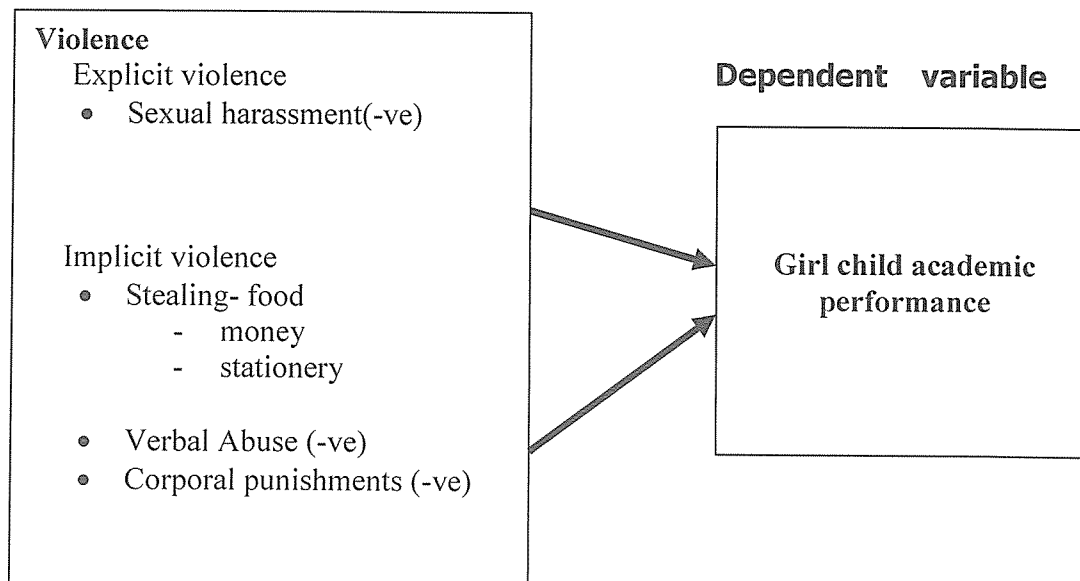
Source: Researcher Developed

Forms and causes of violence in schools

Explicit (sexual) violence

Studies from sub-Saharan Africa have focused almost exclusively on heterosexual relations and violence against girls and have not investigated the incidence of violence against boys or against teachers. They have also addressed primarily the sexual abuse of female pupils by male teachers and male pupils. For example, Leach and Machakanja (2000) and Leach et al. (2003) examined the abuse of junior secondary school girls by older boys, teachers and 'sugar daddies' in Zimbabwe, Ghana and Malawi and found that there was a high level of sexual aggression from boys, which went largely unpunished in the schools, and

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some cases of teachers propositioning girls for sex. This behaviour was largely tolerated and 'normalized'. All three educational systems were characterized by a reluctance to take action against either teachers or pupils. Teachers downplayed or dismissed the suggestion that some teachers had sex with their pupils, although both male and female pupils talked about teachers offering to give girls high grades or gifts in exchange for sex. At the same time, there was reluctance among girls to report incidents for fear of being blamed for having 'invited' the abuse, being ridiculed or victimized (e.g. a male teacher singling a girl out for beating in class because she turned him down, or threatening to fail her in tests and exams).

Omale (1999) reported similar behaviour in schools and higher education institutions in Kenya, including incidents of rape on the way home from school, teachers found guilty of sex with primary pupils and in some cases impregnating them. She reminds us of the infamous St Kizito incident in 1991, in which boys went on the rampage through the girls' dormitories in the school, killing 19 girls and raping 71 others. Hallam (1994) has also reported sexual harassment in the SSA region. It is important to note, however, that sexual violence in schools is not a new phenomenon. Niehaus (2000) documents the history of masculine sexuality as a political issue during the anti-apartheid struggle in South Africa and shows that sexual liaisons between male teachers and schoolgirls were commonplace in the 1950s and continue today. Much supplementary evidence of sexual abuse comes from media coverage in a

range of countries. The recent furore over sexual abuse by UN workers in refugee camps has further highlighted the issue.

Other studies from sub-Saharan Africa and other regions of the world have uncovered explicit gender-based violence in schools as part of more general research into girls' education. It is interesting to note how the issue of sexual violence is raised: Brenner (1998) talks of 'girls trying to get too close to male teachers'; Anderson-Levitt *et al.* (1998) mention 'a tiny minority' of male teachers pressurizing girls for sexual favours and of boys 'teasing' girls who have rejected their sexual advances. The issue is dealt with largely as an 'aside' which is barely worthy of comment and the terms chosen to describe it appear to be an attempt to downplay its seriousness or suggest that the authors are too embarrassed to mention it. It is also of note that many studies of girls' education provide evidence of high levels of pregnancy and drop-out among girls but very few make the link with sexual harassment and coercive or transactional sex.

Some of the most interesting studies of adolescent violence are located outside the school setting within discussions of adolescent sexuality. For example, Wood and Jewkes' (1998) study of violence in heterosexual relationships among pupils in a South African township found that physical assault, rape, and coercive sex had become the norm, making it very difficult for young women to protect themselves against unwanted sexual intercourse, pregnancy, HIV infection, and other sexually transmitted diseases. Masculine prowess was largely defined by numbers of sexual partners or claimed conquests, choice of main partner, and

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ability to control girlfriends. As a result, multiple sexual partners featured in intensely competitive struggles for position and status within the male peer groups. The boys clearly saw sex as their right and so forced sex was legitimate. Girls found it difficult to escape from violent relationships because of the status attached to being in a relationship and fear of reprisals. At the same time, in accepting this subordinate relationship girls were showing themselves to be complicit in the construction of their own unequal gender relations. Mensch *et al.* (1999), in a study of pre-marital sex in Kenya, cite a report where one third of 10,000 girls reported that they were sexually active, of whom 40% said that their first sexual encounter was forced. CIET, a South African NGO running a community project in Johannesburg, found that one in four adolescent men in a sample of 30,000 male and female youth claimed to have had sex without a girl's consent before the age of 18 (Dreyer, 2001). The WHO World Report on Violence and Health (2002), referring to studies in parts of Nicaragua, Peru, Indonesia, Tanzania, South Africa, Mexico, Zimbabwe and the UK, suggests that 'up to one-third of adolescent girls report forced sexual initiation' (p.18).

Other studies on HIV/AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa (e.g. Bennell *et al.*, 2002, on Botswana, Malawi and Uganda; Mirembe and Davies, 2001, on Uganda) have similar findings which expose adolescent sexual violence in schools (see also special issues of the South African journals *Agenda*, 53, 2002 and *Perspectives in Education*, 20,2, 2002). Clearly in this context, there is an important contradiction between the school as a

location for high risk sexual practice and the school as an effective forum for teaching about and encouraging safe sex.

Beyond sub-Saharan Africa, the evidence of sexual violence is very sketchy. Save the Children in Nepal has worked with girls who reported being harassed by boys at school and subject to inappropriate touching by male teachers (including on the buttocks and breasts) and undoing of girls' brassieres (Save the Children Fund, n.d.). Fox (1997) found that female students in Papua New Guinea fear sexual assault and violence in schools and in society generally, and feel threatened by male teachers' sexual advances and by unemployed youths on their way home from school. Evidence that teachers are not just the perpetrators of violence but also its victims comes from a USAID (1999) report of girls' access to primary school in rural areas of North West Pakistan, where female teachers are frequently threatened or assaulted in the villages where they work and are frightened to leave the school. Some teachers were under pressure to marry local men who seek financial gain from the teacher's salary.

Implicit gender violence

There is a wide range of implicit violence in schools which is perpetrated by teachers and students. Bendera, Maro and Mboya (1998) looked at gender and violence in selected primary schools in six areas of Tanzania, which included insults and verbal abuse, stealing money, food and stationery. Bunwaree (1999) found high levels of verbal abuse in schools in Mauritius; this was also found by Leach and Machakanja (2000)

in Zimbabwe and was particularly prevalent among female teachers, who often preferred to use it rather than corporal punishment. Brenner (1998) studied gender differences in classroom interaction in Liberia and Anderson-Levitt *et al.* (1998) examined factors affecting girls' participation in schooling in Guinea. Some studies have uncovered gender violence while investigating underachievement, e.g. Gordon (1995) in Zimbabwe, Dunne, Leach *et al.* (2003) in Botswana and Ghana. Terefe and Mengistu (1997) look at violence in secondary schools in Ethiopia, and Human Rights Watch (2001) in South Africa. With the exception of the latter, they are all small scale studies.

Corporal punishment is the most widely reported form of implicit gender violence in schools and there are numerous studies and reports documenting its abuse worldwide. There is evidence of very widespread use of corporal punishment in many of the above reports. This is reported against girls even where it is banned e.g. in Zimbabwe (Leach and Machakanja, 2000) and there are cases where teachers get students to give corporal punishment to other students (Anderson-Levitt *et al.*, 1998). Beyond sub-Saharan Africa, reports of violence in schools exhibit only slight, if any, consideration of gender in the analysis and are largely interpreted within gender-blind frameworks of school discipline and security (e.g. Ohsako, 1997), or of human or children's rights. A UNICEF overview of school corporal punishment in seven countries in South Asia (2001) found examples of excessive forms of corporal punishment such as tweaking ears and slapping, and in Bangladesh and in Pakistan there were reports of children being put in chains and fetters. A 1998 government

report in India cited in the UNICEF document cited above noted that physical and verbal abuse was often directed at lower caste pupils by higher caste teachers.

The nexus of gender, age/authority relations (which is often further complicated by caste, socio-economic status, ethnicity etc. depending on the location and the circumstances) is crucial to an understanding of the gendered nature of corporal punishment. A report by Kuleana (1999) (a children's rights organisation) investigating corporal punishment in seven schools in Tanzania offers some clues. The beating of girls was rationalised by a few of the girls and women interviewed as being part of their socialisation into becoming respectful and obedient wives and mothers. Conversely, the harsh beating of male students by male teachers could be viewed both as performance of domination by an adult male in authority over a juvenile male in an inferior position, and as a juvenile male's initiation into adulthood. This latter interpretation is underscored by comments by (male) teachers and head teachers that corporal punishment can be used to 'toughen' them (UNICEF, 2001).

It is precisely this 'coming-of-age' that makes some older boys contest a teacher's authority (Kuleana, 1999), particularly a female teacher's, as gender takes precedence over authority (Mirembe and Davies, 2001; Dunne, Leach *et al.*, 2003). Such performances of masculinity are also evident in relations between students where the boys subject the girls to a range of physical and other forms of implicit violence. In parts of Africa, prefects too are often encouraged to enforce discipline in the absence of the teacher and to beat other students

(Kuleana, 1999; Bendera *et al.*, 1998). Peer violence, especially through authority and gender relations, is condoned and discipline thus blurs with bullying. This is associated largely with student interactions, including male on female as well as older male student on boys in the lower classes. The absence of evidence of girl on girl violence presents girls as innocent victims, although they may in fact be complicit in such acts. Bullying takes a variety of forms including verbal and physical violence. Examples include the appropriation of space and resources in the classroom and school compound, the use of teacher time, boys shouting down girls trying to answer teacher questions and public ridicule. In Latin America bullying is manifest in extreme forms of violence e.g. gun culture and male gang conflict.

Relationship between school violence on girl child academic performance

In July 1991, the Kenya public was stunned by the boys' rape of the girls at a boarding school in Meru which resulted in 19 deaths[i]. The horror of this event prompted calls from women organisations for public debate on gender violence and the general harassment and inequality suffered by women. It was a call which was partially heard , and as terrible as this tragedy was, the government authorities seem to have acted to suppress it, with only two of the many boys involved charged and then only with rape (Weekly Review 19th July 1991). In January 1993, 13 girls at Hawinga Girls were attacked and raped by armed men as they slept in their dormitories. In July 1996, a number of girls were attacked and raped at Mareira Mixed Secondary School, a catholic school, in

Muranga. In August 13th 2005 a 40 year old man was charged for abusing his 15 year daughter for six years after her mother died. According to a survey by the Central Bureau of statistics, between 10 000 and 30 000 children are involved in commercial sex in Kenya. On September 6th 2005 a school girl was raped when her family was attacked by a gang. On 31st August a man was charged for impregnating a standard seven girl.

Guedes (2004) asserts Gender-based violence and HIV/AIDS are inextricably linked. The experience of violence affects the risk of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) directly when it interferes with women's ability to negotiate condom use. Guedes (2004) further indicated that Gender-based violence can result in many negative consequences for women's health and well-being as it has become a public health and human rights problem throughout the world. It can affect women and their children and undermine the economic well-being of the societies. A study by Karanja (2003) on linkage between domestic violence and HIV/AIDS found that women who experience rapes, attacks and violence by their husbands refuse to access   HIV/AIDS   information,   HIV testing, and HIV/AIDS treatment and counseling for fear of the repercussions from their husbands. A study to explore links between HIV infection, serostatus disclosure, and partner violence among women in Dar es Salaam, Maman et al. (2001) found that there is serious barrier to disclose HIV status for women.

The Kenya Gender Series briefing books report high levels of physical violence; 65% of 'out of home' physical abuse takes place at

school and is perpetrated by peers and teachers (Population Communication Africa, 2002). In a survey of eight junior and senior secondary schools in Ethiopia, 72% of student respondents said that girls were the main victims of school violence (Terefe and Mengistu, 1997). Evidence from the previous section strongly supports this finding in terms of explicit gender violence and this is also likely to be the case for implicit forms of gender violence, especially bullying by peers. The majority of studies, however, indicate that boys experience more frequent and harsher forms of corporal punishment from teachers (Youssef et al., 1998; Lloyd et al., 2001).

Boys are also more likely to be involved in public acts of implicit gender violence in the school and classroom. In South America, the dominant male culture in the region is 'machismo', which is significant in the construction and performance of a form of hyper-masculinity (Welsh, 2001). Widespread male on male violence contributes to the highest regional murder rate which is usually associated with extreme poverty, unemployment, crowded living conditions (Rogers, 1999) and drug related crime. Often violence from gang members outside the school moves into schools, as students and teachers are subjected to explicit and extreme forms of bullying through threats of, and actual physical violence (Guimarães, 1996 and Webb, 1999). In some cases schools are controlled by local gangs who simultaneously offer protection from rival gangs. Similarly, intrusions from the wider society occur in school in contexts of civil conflict e.g. abduction of students from schools in Congo (HRW, 2002) and the burning of girls' schools in Afghanistan (UN Commission on

the Status of Women, 2003). Again in these studies, there is limited attention to the gendered dimensions of this violence.

It is only through the above named studies that we can assess the impact of gender violence in schools. They suggest that gender violence is an important cause of poor performance and drop-out, although it is difficult to establish cause and effect. The study by Dunne, Leach et al. (2003) on the impact of gendered experiences on retention and achievement found that gender violence in the form of sexual intimidation, verbal abuse and physical assault was a significant contributor to irregular attendance and underachievement of girls. Pregnancy (which in some cases may be the result of sexual abuse) has been identified in other studies also, along with early marriage, as a major reason for girls' drop-out. Schoolgirls who became pregnant rarely returned to school. Boys developed strategies to avoid excessive corporal punishment, of which truancy was the most common; this also led to permanent drop-out in some cases.

The same study shows how the manipulation of gendered space by boys both inside and outside the classroom constrained girls' participation in lessons while boys themselves are distracted by the need to confirm their masculinity through performances of disrupting the lesson, demanding the teacher's attention and distraction (boys sitting at the back of the class and gossiping and eating snacks). Other studies report that boys resent girls being 'favoured' by male teachers (Brenner, 1998; UNICEF, 2002) and that seeing male teachers proposition female students

encourages them to behave likewise (Leach and Machakanja, 2000); this may, in turn, contribute to further bullying and sexual harassment. So, for both girls and boys, the gender relations that are played out in the school serve to reduce academic performance.

A number of the above studies also show that teachers' widespread use of verbal abuse (especially by female teachers who resort to verbal abuse rather than corporal punishment) generates low self-esteem and is found by many pupils to be more hurtful than corporal punishment. Loss of self-esteem may also stem from teachers' low opinion of either male or female students, e.g. in Zimbabwe, Gordon's (1995) study found that some teachers viewed girls as less able academically, as lazy and as lacking in concentration; they were said to 'only think about boys'. The HRW Scared at School (2001) study reports the consequences of gender violence on girls in South Africa as including disrupted education (absenteeism, changing schools, drop-out), ridicule by classmates (especially taunting by boys), diminished school performance through trauma, emotional or behavioral disorder, and risk to health.

Policies Measures and Strategies Dealing With Violence against School Girls

As has already been stated, studies specifically about gender-based violence in schools have only been carried out in a very small number of countries in the developing world, mostly in Sub-Saharan Africa. Consequently, measures to tackle the problem are equally sparse and concentrated in the same countries, in particular where the issue has

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received most publicity, and donor funding has been made available. Because the existence of widespread gender-based violence in schools is not fully recognized, or is classified as, for example, bullying, lack of discipline, youth crime and excessive corporal punishment, it is unlikely that many governments will have addressed the issue explicitly at the policy level. It has not been possible within the scope of this review to investigate fully whether any Ministries of Education have developed such a policy and so what follows is by necessity partial. There is no doubt, however, that the country that has made the most effort to develop interventions to tackle the issue is South Africa, largely within the context of HIV/AIDS.

National initiatives; Ministries of Education have policies on school discipline and codes of conduct for teachers that outline procedures for disciplinary measures, sanctions and prosecution in cases of teacher misconduct. However, all the evidence from the reports; WHO (2002), pointed to lack of enforcement, with efforts at the national level to tackle teacher misconduct being patchy at best. The studies from sub-Saharan Africa (and regular media coverage) suggest that prosecutions of teachers for having sexual relations with their pupils, or for sexual assault or rape are rare, that those few that are followed up take years to progress through the courts and that they do not often end in dismissal. There is a lack of political will to tackle the issue and much shifting of responsibility from one government office to another (HRW, 2001; Leach et al., 2003). Cumbersome bureaucracy, a backlog of cases and a reluctance to confront the problem mean that the only punishment a teacher found

guilty of sexual abuse is likely to suffer is transfer to another school. At the school level, head teachers are reluctant to report cases as they know it will lead to lengthy paper work and possibly unwanted media attention. Through their inaction, education officials and Ministries are implicated in perpetuating gender violence in schools. Many charges against teachers for sexual misconduct with a pupil are dropped by parents themselves, who either prefer to make a financial settlement with the teacher, or who find the court proceedings too onerous, time consuming, incomprehensible and/or expensive. Police units tasked with tackling rape cases of children report that parents drop cases at the last minute and teacher unions fight to defend teachers accused of rape (Leach et al., 2003). Communities also find it difficult to report teachers or head teachers for misconduct, whether for sexual abuse, excessive corporal punishment or misappropriation of school funds. As for sanctions against students, although a girl who becomes pregnant will have to leave school, the boy is rarely required to do likewise, even in countries such as Botswana where there is a policy that he should. National policies in sub-Saharan Africa to allow for the re-admittance of schoolgirl mothers appear not to be working effectively (See Chilisa, 2002).

Student on student violence is often shrugged off as part of growing up, except where it involves severe injury or the use of weapons, when it is likely to result in dismissal. As for implicit forms of gender violence such as corporal punishment by teachers and bullying by students, as the above has made clear, both are endemic in many

educational systems and are largely seen as a necessary part of school life.

Although most governments have made explicit commitments to meeting the goal of gender equity in education, and some are taking active steps on gender mainstreaming at the policy formulation and implementation stages, there is little evidence of national strategies and/or examples of good practice specifically to tackle gender violence in schools. South Africa stands out in that the government has recently introduced initiatives to address it by banning corporal punishment, developing a National Crime Prevention Strategy for schools and requiring through the Employment of Educators Act the dismissal of teachers found guilty of serious misconduct, including sexual assault of students (HRW, 2001: 7). However, it has yet to produce a national policy on gender violence in schools (although Western Cape Province has developed one). Evidence also from Uganda (Hyde et al., 2001) suggests that resolve by the Ministry of Education there to address the issue, leading to the dismissal/expulsion and imprisonment of some teachers and male students who have had sex with under-age girls, has had a positive impact in reducing sexual misconduct and violence in schools.

International and regional initiatives; A common framework to tackle gender violence has been produced by the Commonwealth Secretariat as part of a series of gender mainstreaming manuals; this is entitled Promoting an Integrated Approach to Gender-based Violence (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2002a). While the materials acknowledge

that both women and men can be 'victims' and 'perpetrators' of gender-based violence, it is emphasized that women and girls are most at risk. Education is also included in the reference manual Gender Mainstreaming in HIV/AIDS (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2002b).

Action Aid's Stepping Stones (Welbourn, 1995) is a widely used HIV/AIDS prevention programme. Originally designed for use with illiterate rural communities in Africa using participatory methods, it has now been adapted for use in various contexts with people of all ages in over 100 countries in Asia, North and Latin America and Europe and has been promoted for use in schools (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2002b). Feedback suggests increased awareness, improved self-confidence and attitudinal change among participants (Jewkes et al., 2000; Welbourn, 2000), although in some case the facilitators have found the content of the materials too controversial or difficult to deal with.

Peer counseling is judged to be an effective way to approach sensitive issues such as HIV/AIDS and sexuality, gender violence and abuse. In Latin America, Save the Children Fund has been working with the Institutes of Education and Health in Brazil, Colombia and Peru to train young people as peer counselors to work within schools on sexual and reproductive health issues from a gender perspective. In Peru, an evaluation (Webb, 1999) suggested that the programme has led to increased levels of self-esteem, greater awareness and discussion of gender and HIV issues, and more widespread use of health facilities.

UNESCO is involved in an international anti-violence initiative in schools called Living Values Education (www.livingvalues.net). Founded by a Hindu spiritual leader, the programme was launched in 1993 to reach a wider audience and now operates in 66 countries in 4000 sites, many of which are schools. It has a rights-based approach to fostering positive self-development and social cooperation in children and young people. The programme provides activities, methodologies and materials for teachers and facilitators to use with young people.

Although not explicitly aimed at schools, the White Ribbon Campaign, which started in Canada in 1991 and has spread worldwide, is an international campaign aimed at involving men in working towards eradicating all forms of violence against women. By wearing the white ribbon, men are taking a public stand against gender violence. They are also encouraged to participate in awareness-raising and fund-raising events for women's shelters and advocacy campaigns. Some women have also been involved in promoting the campaigns in schools. UNICEF also supports an initiative to coordinate the work of organizations working with men and boys to end violence against women and girls (Hayward, 2001), some of which operate in schools. The aim of the initiative (which in 2001 listed 60 such organizations) is to foster networks and to share good practice, to stimulate the creation of more groups to combat violence, and to counteract stereotypes about masculinity and violence.

UNICEF has also been instrumental in producing excellent materials for use in Guidance and Counseling lessons in a number of sub-Saharan African countries. These include topics on sexuality, sexual health and violence. However, evidence from research in Zimbabwe (Leach and

Machakanja, 2000) suggested that teachers did not like using these books as they required a pupil-centred approach which they had not been trained to use, and they tackled difficult topics such as homosexuality, which they were uncomfortable talking about.

Local initiatives; Much of the most innovative work with young people has been done by NGOs, mostly in connection with HIV/AIDS education. Some of this work has been carried out with schoolchildren, although not always in a school setting, with the overall aim of changing sexual behaviour and developing more constructive gender relations. Again, South Africa has been the most pro-active. NGO initiatives tend to have in common the use of participatory approaches and popular media forms, including drama and storytelling. For example, The Storyteller Group based in Cape Town uses comic stories (www.id21.org/education/gender_violence/index.html) as a dramatic tool to explore previously undiscussed topics such as rights over one's body, male violence, sexual double standards, teenage sexuality, and traditional gender roles. Dramaide, a national NGO, has used drama to raise awareness about HIV/AIDS and gender among schoolchildren in Durban (www.id21.org/education/gender_violence/index.html). The drama work allowed the learners to reflect critically on their lives and to challenge entrenched ideas about gender inequality. In Namibia, parents in one community took the initiative, with assistance from the UK NGO ACORD, to develop 'The Total Child' programme, which sought to create a safer and more conducive school environment for their children in the face of an increasingly violent world (ACORD, 1998).

Summary of the literature; this review has sought to document the extent of gender-based violence in schools in developing countries. Much of the evidence comes from sub-Saharan Africa, although, as has been shown, this does mean that it does not exist elsewhere in both the developing and the developed world. In the developing world, however, the failure of educational authorities to acknowledge its existence and to address it, in particular in contexts of weak policy compliance, low resources and entrenched gender roles, has allowed it to flourish unchecked and to become institutionalized. To prepare for effective interventions against gender-based violence in schools, it is important that broad dissemination of the analysis of gender relations and their complexity as well as further research using an accepted gender sensitive framework of analysis be undertaken.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative paradigms since the variables entailed in the study were thoroughly explained and some, measured with numerical and analyzed with statistical procedures. The study adopted cross-sectional survey design. It was cross-sectional in a sense that data was collected from the selected respondents once and for all in the interest of time and a survey study since a large number of respondents were used.

Research Population

The target population for this particular study constituted of teachers, head teachers and deputy head teachers and senior teachers totaling to 156 targeted respondents.

Sample and Sampling techniques

Total sample sizes of ten schools were considered to be adequate and representative. This sample was selected in a way that was capturing possible variations among scattered schools and took into account the clustering of primary schools within strata in the selected locations. That gave an allocation of three schools (one from major urban center, one from small urban center and one from rural) per sampled location in the division. In all the other locations, two schools per location (one from

urban center and the other from rural settings) were considered for the survey.

Table 2: Study Population

	Parent population	Sample population	Sampling Method
Teachers	130	83	Simple random
Head teachers & Deputies	20	20	Purposive
Senior teachers	6	6	Purposive
Total	150	109	

According Slovenes' formula (1978)

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where   n = the sample size

N = Parent Population

e = the level of significance and this is 0.05.

Purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher used professional expertise to select groups who presume to represent the population. According to Thomas (1995) random sample is chosen in such a way that every member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample.

Research Instruments

Questionnaire Guides: This researcher used self administered questionnaires for the respondents. These were distributed among the teachers in their respective schools. The justification for using this instrument is that questionnaires are easy to quantify and analyze. In addition, the questionnaire was used because the study focused on opinions, attitudes, feelings and perceptions of teachers. A Likert scale was preferred because it is flexible and easy to construct. Questionnaire was used because the target population was large and literate; it was therefore possible for the respondents to respond to questionnaire items. Although 110 questionnaires were administered, 103 were adequately filled for data analysis hence giving a respondent rate of 95%.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Validity and reliability of the research instrument was ensured as follows:

Validity

After constructing the questionnaire, the researcher contacted the supervisor and three other experts. Hence, the researcher established the validity of the instrument by the use of expert judgment. This method is hailed by Gay and Airasian (2003) for being effective for survey tools. Some of the items that were recommended to be removed from the 14 instrument were removed. Then the researcher made appropriate adjustments until the instruments were declared valid.

Reliability

The reliability of a questionnaire is the consistency with which respondents interpret and respond to all the questions (Amin, 2005). There are two common methods of assessing questionnaire reliability. The method selected for this study was internal consistency method. This method involved a single pre-test group and indicated the degree to which the items in the questionnaire are inter-correlated. In this study, the split half reliability or sub divided test was calculated to further ascertain the coefficient of internal consistency. The test scores were split into two subsets, placing odd numbered items in one sub set and the even items in the other sub set. The scores were then computed for each individually using the Pearson product moment formula. Overall, the questionnaire had a CVI index of 0.8 which was above 0.5, thus it was acceptable as valid (Amin, 2005). Following the calculations, the results revealed a product moment which meant that the instrument was 80% reliable. This rendered the instrument appropriate for use.

Data Gathering Procedures

Before going to the field, the researcher obtained an introduction letter from office of the Director Postgraduate Studies. This introduced the researcher as a student attempting to carry out an academic research. The researcher then sought permission from the head teachers of the different selected primary schools to gain access to the respondents. The researcher used research assistants to administer the questionnaires to the target group who were the primary school teachers. After the data

had been collected, it was processed, analyzed and then the researcher came up with a written report.

Data Analysis

Collected data was be edited, categorized or coded and fed into the computer to have them summarized using trouble free and complex frequency tables or cross-tabulations by the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS). Objective one was analyzed using percentages and the objective two and three the researcher computed the average means that were used for interpretation. A correlation analysis was carried out to find out the relationship between school violence and academic performance of the girl child.

Ethical Considerations

The main ethical consideration was voluntary participation, obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality and privacy of the respondents. The researcher obtained an approval from the District Education Department, concerned schools and individual respondents prior to conducting the research. The rights and the welfare of the respondents will be protected. Ethical consideration included obtaining authority to conduct research. It tried to minimize risks to respondents as much as possible. In relation to holding interviews the researcher feels the most important ethical considerations is to make the following aware to interviewees were; entirely voluntary, free to withdraw from the interview at any time and will be kept strictly confidential by the researcher.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

This chapter focuses on presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The chapter examines the state of the profile of the respondents in terms of: Age, gender, marital status and level of education, establishing the level of violence in schools, determining the level of the girl child academic performance, establishing the relationship between school violence and girl child academic performance and suggest measures to be undertaken in an attempt to address violence in schools in Suba West, Migori County, Kenya. Table 3 presents the age analysis of the respondents.

Table 3: The Profile of the Respondents in Terms of Age, Gender, Marital Status and Level of Education

Profile	Description	Frequency Analysis	Percentage
Age	Below 20	1	1.0
	20-29	23	22.3
	30-39	12	11.7
	40-49	49	47.6
	50 & above	18	17.5
Sex	Male	45	43.7
	Female	58	56.3
Level of Education	Certificate	25	24.3
	Diploma	37	35.9
	Bachelors	37	35.9
	Masters	3	2.9
	PhD	1	1.0
Marital Status	Single	0	0
	Married	100	100

Table 3 reveals that all teachers were beyond 20 years of age, which is normal with the education system that by the time the teacher trainee completes teacher training course is in the age bracket of 20 – 29 years. The 1.0% that was lying below may have been attributed to licensed teachers or support staff. The distribution of the age throughout the age brackets is normally distributed.

As seen earlier from Table 3, the teachers who are accessing the system are dreaming as far as their eyes can see by the time they reach their, they again see further. Thus teachers have kept on upgrading from certificate to diploma and degree as seen from table 3. Hence the

Ministry Education and the council for higher education have got no resilience about the teachers upgrading. Table 3 shows that the ratio of female teachers upgrading is higher than the men, this has an implication that since they are married their domestic responsibilities in terms of finance is catered for, therefore they can afford to sponsor themselves. .

Respondents of the age group 50 & above of the respondents had attained a certificate level of education who did not manage to upgrade to other levels of education. Irrespective of the age group it was found that the number of degree holders was same as the diploma holders. It also seen that approximately 1% of the teachers could afford to proceed to the Ph.D level. This may attributed to failure of recruit the respondent to higher education institutions or the respondent being beyond 50 years may be retired offering voluntary work to the community. Table 4 presents the means of opinions about the forms and causes of school violence of respondents.

Table 4: varied level of violence

	Mean	Interpretation	Std. Deviation	N
Sexual harassment on the side of girls in the school	4.10	Agree	1.080	103
Stealing of food, money, stationery and like is rampant in the school	4.11	Agree	1.267	103
Verbal abuse of girl child from male learners and teachers exists in the school	4.09	Agree	1.172	103
Corporal punishments to girl child do exist in the school	4.47	Strongly Agree	.968	103
Average Mean	4.19	Agree		

In view of the respondents' opinions about school violence the respondents. An average means of 4.19 was agreed on with some doubt. However corporal punishment was ranked highest with a strongly agreed response. Therefore this is a call from well functioning schools that should foster learning, safety, and socially appropriate behaviors. Therefore there should be a strong academic focus and support pupils in achieving high standards, foster positive relationships between school staff to pupils, pupil to pupil and promote meaningful parental and community involvement. On the same note prevention programs of school violence should be set that are effective in schools to address multiple factors that cause school violence and recognize the safety of children's social, emotional, and academic development.

Table 5 presents the level of girl child academic Performance between a period of 2007 – 2010 in their respective classes extracted from the school files (See Appendix C) of the various schools that were sampled.

Table 5: Level of Academic performance of the girl child between 2007 – 2010 of different schools

	Average score	Mean	Interpretation	N
2010	61.1	2.10	Good	103
2009	55.3	1.11	Fair	103
2008	67.0	2.09	Good	103
2007	55.6	1.47	Fair	103
Average Mean	59.75		Fair	

As clearly seen from Table 5, announces that the mean average score for the girls in their academic performance between the period of 2007 - 2010 in the sampled school was fair with an average mean score of 1.69. This may be was attributed to bullying, sexual harassment and aggressive behaviour largely by boys directed at girls. Such behaviour is rarely punished as teachers regard such acts as normal and a 'natural' part of growing up. By condoning sexual abuse and aggressive behaviour, school authorities communicate to pupils that violence is a 'normal' feature of life. Schools, therefore, have become breeding grounds for potentially damaging gendered practices which remain with pupils into adult life. Yet, with appropriate intervention, schools can provide an enabling

environment for the prevention of gender-based violence and good academic grades for the girls.

Table 6: Summary of the Pearson correlation of the research hypothesis about the relationship between School violence and Girl Child Academic Performance

	Mean	N	r-value	sig	Interpretation	Decision on H_o
School Violence Vs	4.1893	103	0.042	0.325	Positive and insignificant	Accepted
Academic Performance	1.6932	103				

Table 6 shows the correlation of between the school violence and girl child academic performance. It was found out that at a five level of significance the r – value is less than 0.05 hence accepted the hypothesis. There was significant relationship between school violence and academic performance of the girl child. Therefore this calls for strategies that should be through curricula that teach anger management, empathy and perspective taking, social problem solving, communication, and peace building. School violence studies are relatively new, but research has shown a high degree of correlation between violent behavior of pupils and other factors such as poverty, substance abuse, low levels of aggression (such as bullying and taunting). Such factors are referred to as risk factors, can negatively

affect efforts to reduce violence in the school. Such risk factors can occur at the individual, school, peer, family, and community level.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter looks at the discussion of the findings of the research from the varying forms and causes of violence in school within Suba West, the relationship between school violence and girl child academic performance and measures to be undertaken in an attempt to address violence in schools in Suba West, Migori County, Kenya.

FINDINGS

Violence in pupils' lives can come in many forms. Sometimes it is violence pupils' witness, such as violence between their parents or caregivers, or violence in the communities in which they live. Sometimes pupils themselves are the victims of violence, whether it be abuse by a parent or relative, or physical (or verbal) attacks in their neighborhoods. These kinds of violence have long-term impacts on pupils, affecting their expectations about life and their views of the world.

According to Table 4, teaching opinions about violence in schools having lasting effects on pupils and youth, the family, and the community, this finding is in line with Morotti and Roberts Jr., (2000). At the individual level, pupils who are repeatedly victimized especially the girl child generally show a broad range of emotional and behavioral problems, including sleep disturbances, separation anxiety, hyper-vigilance, physical complaints, irritability, regression, emotional withdrawal, blunted emotions

and distractibility. The build-up of those emotional and behavioral problems from being victimized in school can turn into more serious behavior in the future.

Research (Blumstein et al., 1985; Robins, 1978; Robins and Ratcliff, 1979) shows that pupils witnessing or experiencing violence while young are more likely to engage later in violent behavior. This risk increases if there are recurrent episodes of serious antisocial behavior during the early years of development in school. Violence in the classroom may have specific cognitive and behavioral effects on pupils, making them less satisfied with school. This, in turn, may lead to lower performance and increased truancy as earlier found by Bowen and Bowen (1999). Grogger's (1997) also came up with the same results that in schools with moderate or serious levels of violence the likelihood of high school graduation fell by 5.1 and 5.7 percentage points respectively. Furthermore, said pupils like the girl child who feel unsafe in school and stay home run a higher risks of falling behind and dropping out of school. If violence is not dealt with effectively, it can indirectly convey a message to pupils that the use of violence has a viable means to solve problems.

Corporal punishment as observed in table 4 is seen with the highest mean value, mean that is the most widely reported form of implicit violence in schools. Although the study did not assess the scale of violence, the findings tally with those of HRW, (2001) and Leach et al., (2003) who said that suggest that much violence in schools was unreported or under-reported; pupils feared victimization, punishment or ridicule. Moreover, while girls did not report some incidents of abuse

because they had been 'normalized' to the extent that they were not recognize as violations and the laissez-faire attitude of teachers around the 'natural' inter-relations between boys and girls results in their non-intervention in incidents of implicit school violence, usually against girls.

Evidence from chapter four strongly supports the findings in terms of violence,. The teachers reported that school violence is an important cause of poor performance and drop-out of the girl child, although it is difficult to establish cause if not report by the victim. A study carried out by Dunne, Leach et al. (2003) on the impact of gendered experiences on retention and academic performance found that school violence in the form of sexual intimidation, verbal abuse and physical assault was a significant contributor to irregular attendance and underachievement of girls. Pregnancy (which in some cases may be the result of sexual abuse) was identified in other studies also, along with early marriage, as a major reason for girls' drop-out. Schoolgirls who became pregnant rarely returned to school. Boys developed strategies to avoid excessive corporal punishment, of which truancy was the most common; this also led to permanent drop-out in some cases.

As reported by one of the male respondents said that; *"teachers' widespread use of verbal abuse (especially by female teachers who resort to verbal abuse rather than corporal punishment) generates low self-esteem and is found by many pupils to be more hurtful than corporal punishment"*.

Gordon's (1995) study found that some teachers viewed girls as less able academically, as lazy and as lacking in concentration; they were said to 'only think about boys'. The HRW Scared at School (2001) study reported the consequences of school violence on girls in South Africa as including disrupted education (absenteeism, changing schools, drop-out), ridicule by classmates (especially taunting by boys), diminished school performance through trauma, emotional or behavioural disorder, and risk to health.

Measures to be undertaken in an attempt to address violence in schools for effective prevention, intervention, and crisis response the following suggestions by the respondents from the field were cross cuttings:

It was suggested that schools should focus on academic performance; Schools to be effective should convey the attitude that all pupil can achieve academically and behave appropriately, while at the same time appreciating individual differences as adequate resources and programs help provided ensure that expectations of pupils are met. Thus expectations should be communicated clearly, with the understanding that meeting such expectations is a responsibility of the pupils, the school and the home. Pupils who do not receive the support they need are less likely to behave in socially desirable ways.

Involving families in meaningful ways; Pupils whose families are involved in their growth in and outside of school are more likely to experience school success and less likely to become involved in antisocial activities. School communities must make parents feel welcome in school,

address barriers to their participation, and keep families positively engaged in their pupil's education. Effective schools also support families in expressing concerns about their pupil-and they support families in getting the help they need to address behaviors that cause concern.

Developing links to the community; every community must be committed to improving schools. Schools that have close ties to families, support services, community police, the faith-based community, and the community at large can benefit from many valuable resources. When these links are weak, the risk of school violence is heightened and the opportunity to serve pupil who are at risk for violence or who may be affected by it is decreased.

Emphasizing positive relationships among pupils and staff; Positive relationship with adults who are available to provide support when needed is one of the most critical factors in preventing pupil violence. Pupils often look to adults in the school community for guidance, support, and direction. Some pupils need help overcoming feelings of isolation and support in developing connections to others. Schools should make sure that opportunities exist for adults to spend quality, personal time with pupil. Schools also should foster positive pupil interpersonal relations by encouraging pupils to help each other and to feel comfortable assisting others in getting help when needed.

Discussing safety issues openly in schools; Pupils come to school with many different perceptions and misconception about death, violence and the use of weapons. Schools can reduce the risk of violence by teaching pupil about the dangers of firearms, as well as appropriate strategies for dealing with feelings especially the girls, expressing anger in

appropriate ways, and resolving school conflicts. Schools also should teach pupils that they are responsible for their actions and that the choices they make have consequences for which they will be held accountable.

Create ways for girl child to share their concerns; it has always found that peers often are the most likely group to know in advance about potential school violence. Schools must create ways for pupils to safely report such troubling behaviors that may lead to dangerous situations. Pupils who report potential school violence must be protected. It is important for schools to support and foster positive relationships between pupils and adults so pupils will feel safe providing information about a potentially dangerous situation.

CONCLUSION

Without a doubt, school violence is a complex and multifaceted issue. It is important to address risk factors at the individual, school, and community level that are conducive to violent behavior Schools play a critical role in violence prevention. With average of school violence lying in the agreed region and the academic level reported as fair. Therefore there exists a very strong relationship among the two variable for the failure and success of the girl child. Hence, many school-based programs should be set up to prevent school violent behaviours in schools. However, the failure of educational authorities to acknowledge the existence and to address school violence, in particular in contexts of weak policy compliance, low resources and entrenched gender roles, has allowed it to flourish unchecked and to become institutionalized. To prepare for effective interventions against violence in schools to the girl child, it is

important that broad dissemination of the analysis of gender relations and their complexity as well as further research using an accepted gender sensitive framework of analysis be undertaken.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study came up with the following recommendations;

i)   Extra co curricular activities; the school is the main institution outside the family that has access to the pupil population for long periods of time. Therefore, it is important to implement violence prevention activities in school settings as a complement to the school curriculum.

ii)   Teacher training is extensive and of high quality; Staff training for program-specific activities on violence prevention is needed. Educators do not always have the resources, responsibilities or skills to exert a positive impact on all the risks that drive pupil and youth to use violence. At the same time, the programs will have a larger impact if the school principal closely monitors implementation of activities.

iii)   Programs need to be implemented by school staff. Programs are started and implemented by school staff. However, there is a likelihood of having a greater impact that is high if those who implement the program work closely with external experts and researchers to develop programs that carefully address the needs of the school and the community (Gottfredson, 2004).

iv)   Interventions involving actors from outside the school; Activities may involve multiple actors, such as parents and other members of the community. Violent behavior is first learned and experienced in the household, so parental involvement in efforts to improve parenting skills

should be encouraged. At the same time, involvement by community members can play an important role in establishing a positive school climate and strong social networks that is a key in shaping a young person's identity.

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APPENDIX: A

INTRODUCTION LETTER

Self Administered Questionnaire for School Administrators on Violence against Girls' Academic performance in Primary Schools of Suba West, Migori County in Kenya

School of Postgraduate Studies & Research

Kampala International University

April 2011

Dear Sir / Madam

Am carrying out, a research study on "School violence and girl child academic performance in primary schools of Suba West division in Kenya". School administrators/ teachers like you are expected to embrace girl child education towards the achievement of zeroing down violence in schools. It is against this background that you have been selected to participate in research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per the instructions. You should provide the most appropriate answer in your opinion. Your responses will be kept confidential; after all, the questionnaire is anonymous.

Please endeavor to fill the questionnaire within ……………… and return in to……………………………………………………

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Abon'go Grace Akinyi.

Researcher

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is to help the researcher to gather information on: *School Violence and girl child academic performance in selected primary schools of Suba West, Migori County, Kenya.* Your responses will be treated with highest degree of confidentiality. To ensure the same, do not write your name or any other form of identity anywhere on this form. Give your responses in the spaces provided as honestly as possible. Where alternative responses are given, mark your choice by putting a tick [✔] in the box next to the appropriate answer.

Section A: Profile of the Respondents

1.1 Age: Below 20 ☐ 20 - 29 ☐ 30-39 ☐

  40-49 ☐ 50 and above ☐

1.2 Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

1.3 Marital status: Single ☐ Married ☐

1.4 Level of education

Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelors ☐

Master ☐ Ph.D ☐

2.0 Section B: School Violence

Your respective answers are to range from 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree.

Case	Variables	1	2	3	4	5
2.1	Sexual harassment on the side of girls exists in the school					
2.2	Stealing of food, money, stationery and like is rampant in the school					
2.3	Verbal abuse of girl child from male learners and teachers exists in the school					
2.4	Corporal punishments to girl child do exist in the school					

Identify any other forms of violence in your school that is affecting the academic performance of girl child if not in the above.

i)..

ii)..

iii)..

3.0 Section C: Academic Performance of the Girl Child

Level the girls' performance between the period of 2007 – 2010 in your respective subjects taught at the end of the academic years given. Your respective answers should range as the of scores given below for

0 – 49	0	fail
50 – 60	1	fair
61 – 69	2	good
70 – 79	3	Very good
80 – 100	4	Excellent

Year	Average Score
2007	
2008	
2009	
2010	

4.0   Measures to address school violence

Suggest measure to be undertaken so as to address the phantom of school violence

i)...

ii)...

iii)...

iv)...

v)...

Thank You

APPENDIX C

SCORES FOR THE GIRLS FROM VARIOUS SCHOOLS

SCHOOLS		Mean scores of the respective years in the different schools	2010	2009	2008	2007
A	2010	62	62			
	2009	56		56		
	2008	67			67	
	2007	56				56
B	2010	60	60			
	2009	53		53		
	2008	68			68	
	2007	58				58
C	2010	59	59			
	2009	56		56		
	2008	68			68	
	2007	56				56
D	2010	59	59			
	2009	52		52		
	2008	70			70	
	2007	51				51
E	2010	64	64			
	2009	58		58		
	2008	66			66	
	2007	59				59
F	2010	60	60			
	2009	54		54		
	2008	64			64	
	2007	54				54
G	2010	58	58			
	2009	57		57		
	2008	66			66	
	2007	56				56
H	2010	58	58			
	2009	54		54		
	2008	64			64	
	2007	55				55

I	2010	68	68			
	2009	55		55		
	2008	68			68	
	2007	54				54
K	2010	63	63			
	2009	58		58		
	2008	69			59	
	2007	57				57
Average scores			61.1	55.3	67	55.6
Overall Mean score		59.75				

Researcher's Curriculum vitae

Personal details

NAME:	ABONGO GRACE AKINYI
PHYSICAL ADDRESS:	MIGORI
DATE OF BIRTH:	1970
SEX:	FEMALE
MARITAL STATUS:	MARRIED
RELIGION:	CHRISTIAN
NATIONALITY:	KENYAN
CALL PHONE:	+254726561146
EMAIL:	graceabongo2007@yahoo.co.uk.

Educational background

Award	Year
Master of Educational Administration and Management	2011-present
University of Nairobi Bachelor Degree in Education (Arts) English/Literature	2004-2009
Migori Teachers Training College P1 Certificate course	1989-1991
Secondary School Moi Nyabohange Girls'	1983-1987

Primary School	1979-1982
Rapogi Girls' Boarding	

Training course/ seminars

Award	Year
Certificate guidance and counseling	Feb 2002-july 2003
Certificate course in sports	August 2006
Certificate course in social work	July 2008
Certificate course in Wagnet	September 2009

Work experience

Taught at Rapogi, Nyamone, Ombo	1991-present
Guidance and counseling coordinator Migori	2004-present

Responsibilities

Sports- General Secretary	2006-2007
Chairperson Guidance and Counseling	2004-2006

Hobbies

Reading

Traveling

Inventing new ideas

Swimming

Languages

Luo (mother tongue)

English good

Kiswahili good

References

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