

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

**GENDER BASED DISCRIMINATION AND VIOLENCE AMONG SECONDARY
SCHOOL STUDENTS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SINGLE SEX AND MIXED
SEX SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NAIROBI COUNTY**

BY
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DECLARATION

I, Kevin Atieno Kadiri certify that this Research project is my own original work and has not been submitted either wholly or in part to this university or any other institution for the award of any degree.

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SUPERVISOR'S APPROVAL

This Research project has been submitted with permission from the following supervisor:

Signed: Date.....

Dr. Mumbi Machera

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents who have always been there for me and imparted in me the value of education early in life, my wife Vaati, whose words of encouragement and push for tenacity ring in my ears, and my daughter whose smile gave me the courage to keep on!

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CESCR	Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
EFA	Education for All
GBD	Gender Based Discrimination
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GCE	Global Campaign for Education Report
GOK	Government of Kenya
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
NGEC	National Gender Equity Commission
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SRGBV	Sexual Related Gender Based Violence
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

ABSTRACT

A robust education institution that responds to gender issues is paramount in overcoming socio-cultural norms that are discriminative to either sex. The third goal of the now defunct MDG's targeted eliminating gender disparities in education institutions by the end of 2015; this however has not been fully achieved to date.

While several studies have focused on separation of the sexes and education outcomes, there is little information from studies on the comparative effects of separating the sexes with regards to gender-based discrimination and violence. The study therefore sought to fill in this critical gap by comparatively determining whether and how, the single-sex or mixed sex grouping of schools affects the occurrence, form, and severity of gender based discrimination and violence in the schools.

The study was guided by the following objectives: to identify forms of gender based discrimination in secondary schools; To compare patterns of gender based discrimination among female and male students in single and mixed sex schools; To compare students' perception of the opposite sex among female and male students in single and mixed sex schools; and To compare and Assess students' perceptions on teachers' attitudes towards them in single and mixed sex schools

The study was exploratory and descriptive utilizing guided self-administered questionnaires for the students and key informant interviews with selected teachers for data collection. In total, the study had 317 students taking part with majority being males (66%). 27% of the respondents were from mixed sex schools while 73% were from single boys/ girls schools. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in data analysis.

The study findings indicate differences in the patterns of gender-based discrimination between single and mixed sex schools. Abuses that border physical aggression and violence are meted more towards the males while those that are non-violent but may have a huge psychological effect are meted more towards the females. The study showed that due to certain socially constructed beliefs, unfounded or not, determines how either sex is viewed. From the study, mixed sex schools are more gender conscious compared to the single sex schools.

Moving forward, unless schools are cognisant of the major role they play in shaping students' attitudes and behaviour with regards to gender and until they are provided with the required resources including training, education institutions will continue promoting gender inequalities albeit unintentionally. This therefore has the potential to limit both the boys and the girls from fully acquiring the requisite skills to enhance their success in school and after school.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides background of and rationale for the study. It further defines the research problem, outlining the research questions and objectives. The study concepts and terms are also defined in this chapter

1.1 Background to the Study

The study sought to establish the dynamics of gender based discrimination in single and mixed sex schools in Nairobi County. Gender based discrimination in this study was defined ‘as any action, treatment or consideration of, or making a distinction in favor of or against, a person’ based on their gender rather than on individual merit.

The arguments and debates on the effects of separating the students in school based on sex began in the last century. “In the 1920s, it was reasoned that mixed sex schools could help to control sex resentment, improve the quality of marriage and discourage homosexuality” (Yates, 2004).

In the 1960s, there was belief that students were more comfortable in the mixed sex schooling environment. However, in the 1970s and 1980s, feminists emphasized that single-sex schools were better for girls, even if mixed sex schools was better for boys. In the 1990s, the debate continued about which type of schooling gives better school results, and there were evidence coming suggesting that single-sex schooling could be helpful in getting improved school grades. Thus, the debate rages on as alluded to by Yates, “Over the past three decades, the relative merits of single sex and coeducation for the educational and socio-emotional development of school aged students have been debated extensively” (Yates 2004).

A robust education institution that responds to gender issues is paramount in overcoming socio-cultural norms that are discriminative to either sex. The third goal of the now defunct MDG’s targeted eliminating gender disparities in education institutions by the end of 2015; this however has not been fully achieved to date.

As earlier stated, there has been ongoing debates on whether separating the sexes in the schooling system provides equality and equity. This led to instances where even with evidence of an impoverished state of girls education in comparison to the boys’, some researchers remained glued to educating the girl child in isolation, this led to lack of focus on

the core agenda in gender studies which calls for analysing the relationships within the socio-economic processes. Reinforcing this approach most often led to researchers mixing-up the understanding gender concepts in relation to sex education. This therefore led to the introduction of single sex schools with the aim of improving education outcomes and learning abilities especially of the girls. Many of these programs were based on the premise that the female and the male brain functions differently and therefore the pedagogical methods employed should be different and designed based on which sex is on the receiving end. These beliefs have however been rejected by experts in child development. As opposed to a scientific approach backed by evidence, such assertions are founded on gender stereotyping.

“A “good” school is one that has high achievement outcomes and a low correlation of those outcomes with socioeconomic status, or high achievement outcomes and a small gender gap” (Lee, 1998). This description however does not reflect the actual state of school; this therefore led to proponents to argue for single sex schooling in specific situations and not generalized to the entire population. Often the focus for such proponents has been the aggressiveness of the boys which they believe may not provide a conducive environment for the girls to demonstrate their abilities and capacities in class.

This notwithstanding, few studies have actually analysed the social effect of these schools to the individual. As earlier alluded to, most researchers have focused on separation of the sexes and education outcomes while overlooking the social effect of separating the sexes for such long periods in the name of according them learning environments that are conducive.

Opponents of separating the sexes when it comes to education argue that separating girls and boys goes against the natural set up where both sexes co-exist. They argue that separating the sexes takes away the ability of both the boys and girls to develop interpersonal skills which are of importance for them to function properly in the wider society. In a well-organized and managed mixed sex school, both sexes learn to value, appreciate and respect one another (Schmuck, 2005).

Opponents of single sex schools further claim that separating girls and boys is a barrier with regards to social relations among the students which could later be useful in their career and other relevant networks which are usually male-dominated.

Where there are girls' only schools, they will be boys' only schools by default. Some studies indicate that this kind of separation can lead to strained relations between the sexes and even promote sexism (Younger and Warrington, 2005). If girls are presumed to be unequal and are therefore not respected and valued as equals, this kind of culture would worsen their relationships outside the school set-up.

1.2 Statement of the Research problem

While several studies have focused on separation of the sexes and education outcomes, there is little information from studies on the comparative effects of separating the sexes with regards to gender based discrimination and violence. The study therefore sought to fill in this critical gap by determining whether and if so, how, the single-sex or mixed sex grouping of schools affects the occurrence, form, and severity of gender based discrimination and violence in the schools.

If boys and girls do not get to relate as they study and play together, they will not be able to witness and understand fully the abilities and capacities of the opposite sex which may end up leading to stereotyping. This may be a potent ingredient for gender biasness within the wider society. In addition, opponents of separating the sexes argue that separating them is tantamount to acknowledging that either the girls or the boys have problems and therefore need special attention. This may lead either of the sexes to either think less or more highly than required of themselves.

In the classroom, separating boys and girls is presumed to reinforce gender discrimination and stereotyping in ways may be harmful to both the girls and the boys. This could also lead unequal distribution of resources and opportunities. Individuals make choices, but institutional patterns shape the alternatives and make one choice more likely than another (Epstein 1988:99).

"The marginalization of gender equality in mainstream educational policy perpetuates traditional gender construction and influences teachers and students This therefore calls for the need to understand how gender relations are re-contextualized, produced and reproduced through education" (Arnot & Miles 2005).

"Sitting in the same classroom, reading the same textbook, listening to the same teacher, boys and girls receive very different educations" (Sadker, 1994).

1.3 Research questions

- i. Is there a difference in the patterns of gender-based discrimination between single sex and mixed sex schools?
- ii. Is there a difference in the students' perception of the opposite sex between single sex and mixed sex schools?
- iii. Do male and female tutors treat male and female students differently

1.4 Broad objective

The purpose of this study was to investigate and compare the patterns of gender based discrimination, violence and gender perceptions among students in single and mixed sex secondary schools in Nairobi County.

1.5 Specific objectives of the study

- i. Identify forms of gender based discrimination in secondary schools
- ii. Compare patterns of gender based discrimination among female and male students in single and mixed sex schools
- iii. Compare students' perception of the opposite sex among female and male students in single and mixed sex schools
- iv. Compare and Assess students' perceptions on teachers' attitudes towards them in single and mixed sex schools

1.6 Justification of the study

Clearly the socialization of gender is reinforced in school, "Because classrooms are microcosms of society, mirroring its strengths and ills alike, it follows that the normal socialization patterns of young children that often lead to distorted perceptions of gender roles are reflected in the classrooms" (Marshall, 1997). Yet gender bias in education reaches beyond socialization patterns, bias is embedded in textbooks, lessons, and teacher interactions with students. When sex stereotypes guide educational programming, discrimination follows.

Many school administrators around the country have latched onto the notion that teachers should provide very different classroom experiences for boys and girls. Often this approach may result in forcing boys and girls into gender stereotypes that serve neither group. For example, boys-only classes often focus on sports and leadership themes, while girls-only

programs teach manners and cooperation. It for this reason that the study sought to determine whether gender based discrimination is perpetuated differently in mixed and single sex schools, the patterns, extent, and effects.

1.7 Scope and limitations of the study

The study though broadly anchored on sociology of education, the focus was on gender based discrimination and violence in the schools with a view of comparing forms, patterns, and extent between single sex and mixed sex schools.

The research was limited to 6 public secondary schools. Private schools were not included in the study. The selected schools were also not homogeneous in terms of academic performance or categorization of school as per the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. However, appropriate sampling techniques were applied to ensure that the sample is representative and the findings can be generalized to the entire secondary students' population in Nairobi County.

1.8 Definition of concepts

1.8.1 Gender

Gender describes the socially constructed roles, responsibilities and perceptions of women and men, and includes expectations held about characteristics, and likely behaviors of both men and women.

1.8.2 Gender based discrimination

This refers to any action, treatment or consideration of, or making a distinction in favor of or against, a person based on their sex rather than on individual merit. Gender based discrimination (GBD) can be expressed in attitudes, norms and practices of a social unit, communities and societies. Often times, individuals discriminate against others on the basis of gender because of their deeply held beliefs regarding what is expected of a men, women, girls and boys. Therefore, gender based discrimination often leads to various forms of gender based violence (GBV)

1.8.3 Forms of gender based Violence

Sexual discrimination : This include any incident of sexual contact involving a student that is perpetuated or allowed to be perpetuated by fellow students, teachers, or any other authority

figure in the school in order for the student to gain preference based on their gender rather than on individual merit. These include but not limited to rape, intercourse, fondling, kissing, and other sexual behaviors.

Physical abuse: This is the non-accidental use of physical force by the teachers, fellow students, or any other authoritative figure in the schools that may result in bodily injury, physical pain or impairment of the student on the basis of their gender. E.g. bullying, corporal punishment

Psychological/emotional abuse: This are any actions, negative statements, threats, made or allowed to be made by teachers, students, or any other authority figure in the school directed at the student because of their gender Denying the students anything in school because of their gender is also regarded as emotional abuse.

1.8.4 Secondary School

A legally registered institution for educating individuals who have completed their primary education that has students in all four levels of secondary education and is recognized by the Ministry of education, Science and Technology

1.8.5 Single sex school

A secondary school that has either male or female students only

1.8.6 Mixed sex school

A secondary school that has both male and female students

1.8.7 Teacher

An individual certified by the Kenyan government to teach at the secondary level

1.8.8 Student

An individual who is registered and studying at a secondary school

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section a broad overview of literature from international, regional and national sources has been presented. A comprehensive literature review should identify studies and other existing information which has been carried out and which is of relevance to the proposed study. This chapter reviews relevant literature from relevant sources with the aim of connecting the current proposed study with previous evidence and more so to enable the identification of theories that are of relevance to the proposed study. It further outlines an in-depth review of gender based discrimination in the schools set up, the forms, effects and the probable mediums including teachers, school curriculums, students and societal expectations

2.1 A Global Overview of Gender Based Discrimination and Education Systems

The debate about the pros and cons of separating the sexes with regards to schooling is going on and is not about to stop. Although there have been studies carried out worldwide and mostly in Australia, Canada, England, the results have not been satisfactory, i.e. there has been inconsistencies and insufficient body of evidence about which form of schooling to adopt based on the merits and demerits of each. This notwithstanding, one agreeable fact is that as much as studies on separating the sexes has majorly focussed on education outcomes, the evaluation thereof cannot be devoid of the socio-cultural context of the school.

Studies have pointed out to the possibility of multiple and different linkages between gender equality and the right to education. Education is an enabling and transformative right. “As pointed out by the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), the right to education has been variously classified as an economic right, a social right and a cultural right. It is also a civil right and a political right, since it is central to the full and effective realization of those rights as well. In this respect, the right to education epitomizes the indivisibility and interdependence of all human rights” (Global Campaign for Education report 2012). A robust education institution that responds to gender issues is paramount in overcoming socio-cultural norms that are discriminative to either sex. CESCR in their report affirms this, “the prohibition against discrimination enshrined in article 2 of the Covenant of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights is subject to neither progressive realization nor the availability of resources; it applies fully and immediately to all aspects of education and encompasses all internationally prohibited grounds of discrimination”. The Global Campaign for Education (GCE) therefore sees the challenge posed by gender discrimination in

education as multiple: “policy and practice in education needs to be re-oriented to ensure the deconstruction of gender stereotypes as well as the promotion of equality of experience and relations for both sexes in education, thus addressing power imbalances that perpetuate gender inequality and leveraging access to all rights by woman and girls.”

Finally, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) adopted in 1979 by the UN general assembly defines what constitutes discrimination against women and sets up an agenda for national action to end such discrimination. CEDAW provides the basis for realizing equality between women and men through ensuring women’s equal access to, and equal opportunities in, political and public life as well as education, health and employment. By accepting the convention, states commit themselves to undertake a series of measures to end discrimination against women in all forms

2.2 Gender Based Discrimination in Sub Saharan Africa

A number of studies on gender based violence in schools available in Africa are majorly from sub Saharan Africa. This could be attributed to the continuous focus of foreign aid in responding to poverty eradication efforts especially in areas where HIV/AIDS is prevalent.

2.2.1 Explicit Gender Based Discrimination

Most research studies carried out in Sub-Saharan Africa have majorly focused on gender based violence against the girls and how it affects their education. There are very limited studies that investigate the same issues i.e. the effects of Gender Based Violence among boys. These studies have also looked at the state of sexual abuse in schools focussing those meted by male teachers against female students (UNICEF, 2002). Studies carried out in Zimbabwe, Ghana and Malawi on abuse against secondary school girls found that boys were very aggressive and yet this behaviour went unpunished by the teachers, inafct some of the teachers sought sexual relationships with the girls. (Leach and Machakanja, 2000; Leach et al. 2003). “All three educational systems (Zimbabwe, Ghana, and Malawi) were characterised 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 victimised (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)”(Leach et al. 2003) .

Incidences of sexual harassment have also been reported in the region (Hallam, 1994). It is important to note, however, that sexual violence in schools is not a new phenomenon. The history of sexual violence has in the past been documented as a political issue in South Africa during the anti-apartheid struggle (Niehaus 2000). Much supplementary evidence of sexual abuse comes from media coverage in a range of countries.

Other research studies around the world bumped into gender based violence as they carried out more generalized studies on education of the girl child. It however is important to observe how sexual related violence is brought up: there is mention of instances of girls desiring closer relationships with the male teachers (Brenner, 1998); some studies also revealed some male teachers demanding for sexual favours from the girls and boys teasing girls who stop their sexual advances on them (Anderson-Levitt et al, 1998). These issues do not weigh heavily on the studies and therefore comes out as an attempt to lessen the veracity of the problem especially where researchers were embarrassed to out rightly point out these vices. This is summed up by the WHO report that states “up to one-third of adolescent girls report forced sexual initiation” (WHO, 2002:18).

Other HIV/AIDS related studies in the region also point out to similar results with regards to sexual violence in secondary schools e.g. Bennell et al., 2002, on Botswana, Malawi and Uganda; Mirembe and Davies, 2001, on Uganda.

2.2.2 Implicit gender based discrimination

Teachers and students alike have been found to perpetrators of subtle forms of gender based discrimination. Studies in Sub Saharan Africa have shown high levels of verbal abuse especially by female teachers who preferred it compared to corporal punishment. (Bendera, Maro and Mboya 1998; Bunwaree 1999; Leach and Machakanja, 2000). 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.

From these 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. 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, or of human or children's rights (Ohsako, 1997).

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. The beating of girls was rationalized by a few of the girls and women interviewed as being part of their socialization into becoming respectful and obedient wives and mothers (Kuleana, 1999). 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 against 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.

2.3 Gender based discrimination and Education in Kenya

In Kenya, studies have reported behaviour consistent with the Sub-Saharan region (Omale, 1999). These behaviours include incidents of rape on the way home from school, teachers found guilty of sex with primary pupils and in some cases impregnating them. An example is 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. In a study of pre-marital sex in Kenya, it's reported that one third of 10,000 girls reported that they were sexually active, of whom 40% said that their first sexual encounter was forced (Mensch et al. 1999).

Kenyan children and especially the girl child continue to experience numerous problems associated with gender factors, the Kenyan child suffers violation of human rights as a result of these gender related abuses. Children in this case are those under 18 years of age. The same definition is provided by the United Nations convention on the rights of the child, the African charter on the rights of the child and the Kenyan children's act 2001 of the laws of Kenya. Some key gender issues that affect children in Kenya are female genital mutilation, gender bias usually in favour of boys against girls, moranism, and a practice in which boys stay in isolated places (bush or forest) for a certain period as requirement to attain manhood. The latter practice affects boy children by denying them the opportunity to acquire education; the communities that embrace this practice have a huge number of illiterate men. A good example can be seen among the Maasai and Samburu among others whose youngsters serve as security guards in the city for lack of education. Issues such as education of girls are also major gender issue.

Education of the girl child is a major issue in Kenya. Despite the many gains realized in the education sector, such as free education, boys are still much ahead of girls in enrolment especially at secondary schools and colleges. A study conducted revealed that in the 8 former provinces of Kenya more boys received secondary education compared to girls (GOK & UNICEF, 1998:75). The study is a clean demonstration of the gender bias, whereby most parents will prefer to educate sons rather than a girl child. Researchers pointed out to the problem of early marriage and teenage pregnancy as the ones accounting for some of this high drop- out (UNICEF/GOK 2006: 30). The drop-out was (10.6%) boys and 12.3% for girls. According to the International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 3 No. 4 [Special Issue – February 2013] Gender based labour discussion occurs when particular roles

are assigned to a particular sex. In this case the view of women as the appropriate domestic workers has affected girls.

2.4 Key gender-related concerns in education institutions

Schools are protective of young adolescents' health and welfare if they are safe places that supply girls and boys with friends and mentors and engender a love for learning and new ideas, but they can also be unsafe places that provoke humiliation, alienation and fear. Discriminatory attitudes and practices (the "hidden curriculum of gender") selectively affect boys and girls as well as members of different socioeconomic groups, as measured by students' treatment by teachers, their progress through grade levels, their academic and vocational course options and opportunities for extracurricular activities such as sports, and their expectations for the future (Lloyd 2005:113–117).

Access alone is only a first step. If educational experiences are not gender equitable, girls' and boys' academic learning is compromised and the psychological empowerment that education can confer is greatly reduced. Ensuring that both girls and boys stay in school and eventually complete the basic education cycle requires that educators look beyond enrolment and address the impact that gender based discrimination has in fostering inequitable classroom processes and unsafe learning environments.

Research is therefore needed not only to identify the range of risk and protective factors in the schools but also to test the effectiveness of initiatives designed to improve curricula and the quality of teaching; eliminate gender-based and other forms of bias and discrimination; assign students to adult mentors whom they can trust; incorporate effective life-skills and comprehensive sexuality education; and end the practice of (and tolerance for) harassment and coercion, so that the schools become safe and reliable learning environments (Mgalla et al. 1998; Mensch et al. 2001; Mirsky 2003).

The debate on single-sex education has been ongoing for a long time. However, recently, a fresh dimension has become important: the role single-sex schools can play in advancing gender equality/inequality. The right of each girl and each boy to equal and free education is central to the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Gender equality is about each girl and each boy, each man and each woman being able to enjoy their human rights and their potential as individuals in economic, socio-cultural, civil and public life. It is about men and women being partners and making decisions together so there is peace and harmony in their

homes, communities and societies. Schools have an important role to play in preparing girls and boys to listen and communicate effectively with each other to build this respectful partnership. The choice of how to educate girls/boys can be expected to influence girl-boy relations and may impact boys' quality of education and also girls' and boys' family life

2.4.1 Social Concerns

There is very little research on the long-term social consequences of single-sex and mixed sex schooling. Nevertheless, many advocates of mixed sex schooling argue that mixed schools are essential so that girls and boys can learn to live and work together. In general, their argument is that schools should reflect 'real' life (presumably out-of-school life), and as society is mixed, schools should also be mixed.

Some advocates of girls' schools, on the other hand, argue the opposite. They suggest that the fact that girls' schools do not mirror 'real life' is a key reason to have them. They argue that generally, societies are male-dominated and women are frequently second place to men in terms of, amongst other things, opportunities, pay and power. So students and teachers need to challenge and change these inequalities rather than reproduce them in schools. Proponents of this argument suggest that single-sex schools can be spaces where girls can begin to challenge male dominance and power, where girls can learn that they do not have to take second place to boys, that they can work free from harassment and taunts, and that they can do science.

Some of the social concerns highlighted by proponents of mixed sex schooling as arguments against single sex schooling are:

Social skills: Critics of single-sex education argue that girl-only schools are unnatural social settings which isolate girls from boys. In well-managed co-educational environments boys and girls learn to respect and value each other's ideas. They learn to listen and communicate with each other. Isolating girls and boys in single-sex schools is considered a barrier to them developing the effective interpersonal skills they will need to function as grown-ups in their society (Schmuck, 2005).

Systemic gender bias: Single-sex schools can lead boys and girls, who are not witnessing the ideas, talents and skills of the other sex, to rigidly stereotype the other sex. This can reinforce the existing gender bias in society. In addition, some contend that creating schools for girls

suggests girls have problems and need special attention. This may cause girls to think less positively of themselves.

Limited networking: Girl-only schools do not facilitate girls forming friendships with boys that could later provide useful links to professional and political networks which are dominated by men. If girls do not have links to their male age group, they do not have these potentially valuable connections.

Macho culture: In most systems where there are separate girls' schools, there are separate boys' schools by default. Research indicates that creating sex-separate schools would make a bad problem worse: boys' schools may fan the flames of sexism. A boys' school culture of macho male bravado causes alienation between boy students (Younger and Warrington, 2005). As girls and women are not valued and respected as equals, this macho culture could, in turn, worsen relations among boys and girls in the out-of-school social context.

Sidestepping bad behaviour: Some girls' schools are established in order to create safe and appropriate learning opportunities for girls. Instead of addressing the aggressive and inappropriate behaviour of boys and male teachers in existing schools, the girls are removed. Critics argue that the disrespect and violence against girls will not end until girls are treated well by their teachers and peers in all schools as well as in their communities. Creating safe bubbles for girls to learn in is giving silent approval to the bad behaviour elsewhere.

This being said, the little empirical evidence that exists regarding the long-term social consequences of single-sex and mixed schooling reveals no consistent differences in the personal development of girls and boys in these school types. Evidence suggests, for example, there are no significant differences between students who attend single-sex schools and students who attend mixed sex schools in terms of how easy or difficult they find it to adjust socially to university life. Overall though, this is yet another area where we have more unanswered than answered questions.

2.4.2 The Socio-Cultural Concerns

Socio-cultural context relates to the country and the cultural mores that influence the boundary between the school and the society. There is an emerging pattern in research findings to suggest that when the culture within a school matches that of the families who send their children to the school, the higher the academic success. So, the greater the

agreement between school expectations and family expectations the more likely the child is to conform to the school culture and recognise academic expectations. When there is a conflict between school culture and what parents expect of their children then children and young people face challenges in coming to recognise school and academic expectations and accept them. Therefore in strongly gender-segregated societies, for example, with recognisably different social roles for men and women, attending single sex schools reinforces the segregated gender roles in society. This sets up a dilemma for feminist educationalists and raises the wider questions about the purposes of education. Should education maintain the social status quo or change it?

2.4.3 Experiences of Schooling

Although the current educational climate is one in which academic performance and the acquisition of credentials are emphasised, it is important not to downplay the significance of educational experiences for children. For example, teachers may be more intellectually encouraging to, and demanding of, boys and rewarded girls for good, appropriately 'feminine' behaviour; boys dominating in the classroom, both in terms of space and teacher time; sexual harassment of girls by boys in the classroom; and boys' contributions to classroom discussion may be taken more seriously than girls' contributions.

However, it is important to note that not all boys dominate classroom space and not all girls are quiet, and research conducted more recently tends to be more attentive than work conducted in the 1970s and 1980s to differences within gender groups, as well as between them. Nevertheless, although factors such as social class, race and ethnicity can be as important as gender for shaping how young people experience schooling, evidence suggests that the gendered patterns of behaviour identified in the 1970s and 1980s persist in mixed sex schools today. Of course, this does not mean that single-sex schools offer wholly positive experiences for all children, and this is an area that would benefit from more research.

2.5 Channels of Gender Based Discrimination in Schools

2.5.1 Teachers

The role of teachers in the maintenance or challenging of gender stereotypes is highly influential. Teachers are major players in the formation of educational identities, and the efficacy of teaching has been shown to have a significant impact on aspects of gendered behaviour in school. In particular, the literature suggests that the educational formation of

boys (in learning literacy) is especially sensitive to the success or otherwise of teaching (Connell; 1989; Rowan et al, 2002; Tsouroufli, 2002; Kimmel et al, 2005). A debate has also taken place as to whether the gender of the teacher matters in terms of learning for different gender groups.

There is some evidence that women's maths performance was higher when they were taught by competent women teachers (Marx and Roman, 2002). A large scale study in Baden-Wuerttemberg (Germany) of 21,000 students in 900 classes also found that girls who were taught mathematics in secondary schools by female teachers scored 7% higher than girls taught by male teachers, (Lorcher and Meier, 2000 cited in Kessels, 2005:320). Kessels suggests that the female gender profile of the teachers may have helped reduce the masculine stereotype of mathematics (ibid). However, it is not clear from these studies how much of the difference in attainment can be attributed to the gender of the teachers per se, and how much can be attributed to differences in teaching quality. Without controlling for the quality of teaching, and the attitudes of teachers regardless of gender, it is not possible to claim that the gender of the teacher is a defining factor in terms of school performance.

While it is evident that teachers have a key role to play in addressing sexual related gender based violence and discrimination, some, unfortunately, are also perpetrators of sexual abuse and exploitation, often acting with impunity. A 2010 survey by the Ministry of National Education in Côte d'Ivoire found that 47% of teachers reported having elicited sexual relations with students (Dedy, 2010). The SACMEQ III survey from 2007 shows that Teachers were also reported to be perpetrators of gender based discrimination, with an average of 39% of school principals stating that teacher– pupil harassment had occurred in their schools.

2.5.2 Peers

Adolescence is a key period of identity formation, and identifying with certain subjects in school and dis-identifying with others is a way of developing an identity as a person. Because some subjects are seen as masculine and others as feminine, subject choices are not simply driven by academic interests or even by capabilities. They are driven in some part by the desire to present oneself as particular kind of (attractive) masculine or feminine person (Hannover, and Kessels, 2004). Peers tend to reinforce gender stereotypical behaviour and punish non-conformity; this impacts on subject choices (Kessels, 2005). For example,

Kessels's research in German high schools found that girls who excelled in physics in particular considered themselves to be particularly unpopular with boys.

However, boys (and girls) who excelled at music did not feel that they were less popular with girls than other boys (or girls). There was a strong disincentive for girls to identify overtly with physics if they were to be seen as traditionally feminine; however, if boys opted for music they did not feel as sanctioned for this as girls did for choosing physics. Kessels does not explain why this was the case, but it does show that the sanction for girls to opt into a male-defined subject was strong in the particular context of their study.

Older male students may also take advantage of their position of power at school to abuse female students. In Cameroon, 30% of sexual violence experienced by schoolgirls was committed by male students (Devers et al., 2012). The SACMEQ III survey from 2007 provides comparable data on sexual harassment in primary schools across 15 education systems in sub-Saharan Africa, the only regional or international learning assessment to do so. Of 229 schools surveyed, an average of 41% of school principals acknowledged sexual harassment between pupils in their schools. In six countries, including Kenya, Uganda and Zambia, over 40% of school principals reported that pupil–pupil sexual harassment had occurred either ‘sometimes’ or ‘often.’

2.5.3 Curriculum

The study of curriculum enables us to understand what is possible to think about and who can think about it (Bernstein, 1990). The nature of curriculum materials used in the schools and their relationship to the world of boys and girls gives a critical window into the knowledge conveyed by schools. Across the world, the official curriculum tends to cover the same subjects and to give them similar emphasis, a tendency that has been relatively stable since the 1990s. In some developing countries, however, the curriculum is still differentiated for girls and boys, with girls receiving more information on family life and home science, and boys in productive skills and sports (Mirembe & Davies, 2001).

Making education more acceptable involves ensuring that the curriculum, the classroom and school culture are of high quality, uphold rights, and are relevant and safe.. In terms of classroom culture, teachers must ensure full participation of both sexes in the classroom – which itself may involve a break with cultural norms – and schools need to work harder to avoid directing boys and girls into subjects, activities and games deemed ‘appropriate’ for

their gender. Research shows that overall around half of pupils still tend to identify so-called ‘soft’ subjects with girls, and more technical subjects with boys. The majority of pupils were aware of games that they described as being “only” for girls or for boys.

2.6 Effects of gender based Discrimination

Gender based discrimination can have serious detrimental effects on children’s health and well-being and their ability to learn to their full potential. This can negatively impact school participation, learning levels and completion rates, and raises barriers to gender equality in education and wider society. Combating gender-based discrimination in and around schools will help increase school attendance, enhance children’s quality of education and improve learning outcomes. It is a vital component for the achievement of the post-2015 education targets.

Children who have been abused or bullied often experience low self-esteem and depression, which may lead to self-harm and risk-taking, and result in poor performance and disengagement from school. Sexual violence and discrimination can have health consequences, including mental health problems, pregnancy and STIs such as HIV, all of which have a negative effect on education progress and well-being.

Bullying can increase absenteeism, as shown in studies in Brazil, Ghana and the United States (Abramovay and Rua, 2005; Dunne et al., 2013; Kosciw et al., 2013). Bullying can also reduce school achievement for both boys and girls. Analysis of TIMSS 2011 data from 48 mainly developed countries shows that grade 4 students who reported being bullied weekly at school scored 32 points lower in mathematics compared with those who reported that they had almost never been bullied (Mullis et al., 2012). Analysis of the same dataset shows that girls and boys in grade 8 in many countries scored lower in mathematics if they had reported being bullied compared with those who had not.

Corporal punishment and harsh treatment from teachers have been linked to students’ early exit from schooling. A small study in Nepal found that 14% of school leavers attributed the reason to fear of the teacher. A study of Palestinian children in refugee camps in Lebanon found that 68% of boys and 58% of girls had left school because of harsh treatment by their teachers (Pereznieto et al., 2010).

In a survey of gender-based violence in Malawi, 61% of girls who experienced gender-based violence said it affected their school performance (Bisika et al., 2009). Qualitative studies have shown that gender-based violence contributes to girls' poor performance and dropout (Dunne et al., 2005).

Girls subjected to SRGBV in the form of rape, forced or coerced sex can have early and unintended pregnancies and, as a consequence, an increased risk of their education being curtailed (Psaki, 2015). In some countries, there are policies that expel or exclude pregnant schoolgirls from school. Where girls do remain in school or return after childbirth, they face continued gender-based violence in the form of bullying and verbal abuse by classmates and teachers. Little support exists for pregnant girls or teen mothers at school (UNESCO, 2014a).

Significant gaps in knowledge exist regarding the nature and extent of the impact of sexual forms of gender based discrimination on children's participation in education. This neglected area of research needs to be addressed in order to identify mechanisms, policies and programmes to support girls – and boys – at risk of poor progress or dropout, as a result of sexual violence and discrimination.

2.7 International Frameworks and legal polices on Education

2.7.1 The Dakar Framework for Action (2000)

This framework for action was adopted during The World education forum held on the 26-28th April, 2000 in Dakar. The Dakar Framework for Action is a re-affirmation of the vision set out in the World Declaration on Education For All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand a decade earlier. It expresses the international community's collective commitment to pursue a broad-based strategy for ensuring that the basic learning needs of every child, youth and adult are met within a generation and sustained thereafter.

Goal number 6 of this framework reads thus, "Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality." It highlights the fact that Gender-based discrimination remains one of the most intractable constraints to realizing the right to education. Without overcoming this obstacle, Education for All cannot be achieved. A major strategy in this framework is implementing integrated strategies for gender equality in education that recognize the need for change in attitudes, values and practices. It further states that, specific actions must be included in

schools to address discrimination resulting from social attitudes and practices, economic status and culture.

The framework further highlights the need to ensure that the content, processes and context of education must be free of gender bias and support and encourage equality and respect. This includes teachers' behaviors and attitudes, curriculum and textbooks, and student interactions

2.8 The legal and policy frameworks on Gender Based Discrimination in Kenya

2.8.1 The constitution of Kenya 2010

Article 10 (2) (b) sets out the national values and principles of governance to include, among others, human dignity, equity, social justice, inclusiveness, equality, human rights, non-discrimination and protection of the marginalized. Article 19 (2) states the purpose of recognizing and protecting human rights and fundamental freedoms as being to preserve the dignity of individuals and communities and to promote social justice and the realization of the potential of all human beings. This general proposition is important and relevant to women's struggle for gender equality and gender equity. Further, the Constitution imposes a positive duty on the State and all State organs to observe, respect, protect, promote and fulfill the rights and fundamental freedoms in the Bill of Rights.

The 2010 Constitution contains a very detailed clause on equality and freedom from discrimination. From a gender equality perspective, this clause is commendable on four limbs. First, it states explicitly that men and women have the right to equal treatment and equal opportunities in the 'political, economic, cultural and social sphere'. Second, the grounds on which the state is not to discriminate are much broader than existed under the old constitution, and they include pregnancy, marital status, health status, disability and dress. Third, it is not only the state that may not discriminate- the prohibition of discrimination applies horizontally among all persons. Lastly, there is constitutional provision for the principle of affirmative action, in order to 'give full effect to the realization of the rights guaranteed under this Article'. The Constitution therefore recognizes that in order to give full effect to the right to full equality before the law, it may be necessary to take measures to redress past patterns of discrimination, such as those that relate to gender relations.

2.8.2 The Sexual offences Act 2006

The Sexual Offences Act was enacted in response to curb the escalating sexual violence. Primary purpose was to ensure complainants of sexual offences get justice commensurate to the harm caused to them. It makes provisions for the sexual offences, their definition, prevention and protection of all persons from harm arising from unlawful sexual acts. It prohibits all manner of sexual offences from defilement to attempted defilement, rape to attempted rape, sexual harassment and sexual exploitation. This is the first legislation in Kenya's legal history, to recognize sexual harassment as a crime. It has also prohibited child trafficking, prostitution and sex tourism.

2.8.3 The Children's Act 2001

The Children's Act makes provisions for the safeguards of the rights and welfare for the children. The Act stipulates that all activities done on behalf of children should be in the best interest of the child. Violence meted against children therefore does not constitute best interest of the child. Section 13 guarantees children (both girls and boys) the right to protection from physical and psychological abuse, neglect and any other form of exploitation including sale, trafficking or abduction. The Act also explicitly prohibits sexual exploitation of children as well as actions that expose children to torture or cruel or inhuman treatment such as circumcision or child marriages.

2.8.4 National Gender and Equity commission (NGEC)

National Gender Equality Commission is a constitutional Commission established by an Act of Parliament in August 2011, as a successor commission to the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission pursuant to Article 59 of the Constitution. NGEC derives its mandate from Articles 27, 43, and Chapter Fifteen of the Constitution; and section 8 of NGEC Act (Cap. 15) of 2011, with the objectives of promoting gender equality and freedom from discrimination.

The over-arching goal for NGEC is to contribute to the reduction of gender inequalities and the discrimination against all; women, men, persons with disabilities, the youth, children, the elderly, minorities and marginalized communities.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

Community development seeks to empower local communities around specific themes or policy initiatives. Community can hereby be defined geographical, by interest or identity. The

education fraternity including education institutions can therefore be looked at as a community by virtue of common interests. Community development at its core is a set of values/social principles covering human rights, social inclusion, equality and respect for diversity; and a set of specific skills and knowledge base.

This study focused on two theories in the broader field of sociology i.e. feminist theories and Bandura's social learning theory. This is because a community development worker needs to understand the social learning theory to better understand human behavior as catalysts of change and by extension development. These theories focus on learning and behavior adoption that occurs within a social context. When working in communities, understanding how the community members interact with each other and what forms their behaviors will help in designing strategies and interventions that will enhance community development. Below is a further in-depth description of the theories:

2.9.1 Liberal Feminism Theory

Most of the literature on Gender based discrimination is anchored on Feminist theories. Feminism can be defined as a diverse variety of beliefs, ideas, movements, and agendas for action. Other profound definitions include; ideas and beliefs about what culture is like for women just because they are women, compared to what the world is like for men just because they are men. In ethical terms, this form or aspect of feminism is descriptive. The assumption in feminism is that women are not treated equally to men, and that women are disadvantaged in comparison to men. Feminism also includes ideas and beliefs about how culture can be and should be different -- goals, ideals, visions. In ethical terms, this form or aspect of feminism is prescriptive.

Liberal feminism's primary goal is gender equality in the public sphere - equal access to education, equal pay, ending job sex segregation, better working conditions - won primarily through legal changes. Private sphere issues are of concern mainly as they influence or impede equality in the public sphere. Gaining access to and being paid and promoted equally in traditionally male-dominated occupations is an important goal.

Liberal feminism upholds that both men and women should be given equal treatment in all spheres of life. Tong, R. (1989), affirms this when she says in her book "Feminist thought; a comprehensive introduction" that the society owes girls the same education as boys simply

because all persons deserve an equal chance to develop their rational and moral capacities so that they can achieve personhood.

Taylor in the book, "Enfranchisement of women" argue that sexual inequality is not the result of nature's decrees but of society's customs and traditions, this fact, according to Taylor, becomes apparent to all as soon as women are given the following:

- i. Education in primary and high schools, universities, medical, legal and theological institutions
- ii. Partnership in the labors and gains, risks, and remunerations of productive industry
- iii. A coequal share in the formation and administration of laws through legislative assemblies, courts, and executive officers.

Based on these assertions, it can be implied that the school type i.e. single sex or mixed sex schools, is a response to the feminist belief that a school should offer unbiased education. The school is also viewed as a channel or avenue to create, affirm and pass on certain customs and tradition plays a role in the construction of gender among students.

Tong, R. (1989) states that Liberal feminism in the twentieth century has to deal with the following questions/options:

- i. Is there really a way to treat women and men differently yet equally?
- ii. Must liberal feminists work toward the elimination of differences as the first step toward true equality?
- iii. Should women become like men in order to be equal with men or should men become like women in order to be equal with women? Or should both men and women become androgynous, each person combining the correct blend of positive masculine and feminine characteristics in order to be equal with every other person?

2.9.2 Social Learning Theory

Learning may be defined as a persisting change in human performance or performance potential as a result of the learner's interaction with the environment (Driscoll, 1994). Learning theories see the environment as the major force in development.

Albert Bandura's social learning theory "states that behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning" (Bandura, 1977). It is Bandura's belief that "humans are active information processors and think about the relationship between their behaviour and its consequences" (Bandura, 1977). Furthermore, unless cognitive processes are at work, observational learning cannot occur (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, the same way a child can learn aggression from observation, they can also learn discrimination and therefore in institutions such as schools, it's essential that the appropriate actions are taken to reduce and or prevent discrimination as much as possible.

The theory further regards gender identity and role as a set of behaviours that are learned from the environment. The main way that gender behaviours are learned is through the process of observational learning. Children observe the people around them behaving in various ways, some of which relate to gender. They pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode their behaviour. At a later time they may imitate the behaviour they have observed. They may do this regardless of whether the behaviour is 'gender appropriate' or not but there are a number of processes that make it more likely that a child will reproduce the behaviour that its society deems appropriate for its sex.

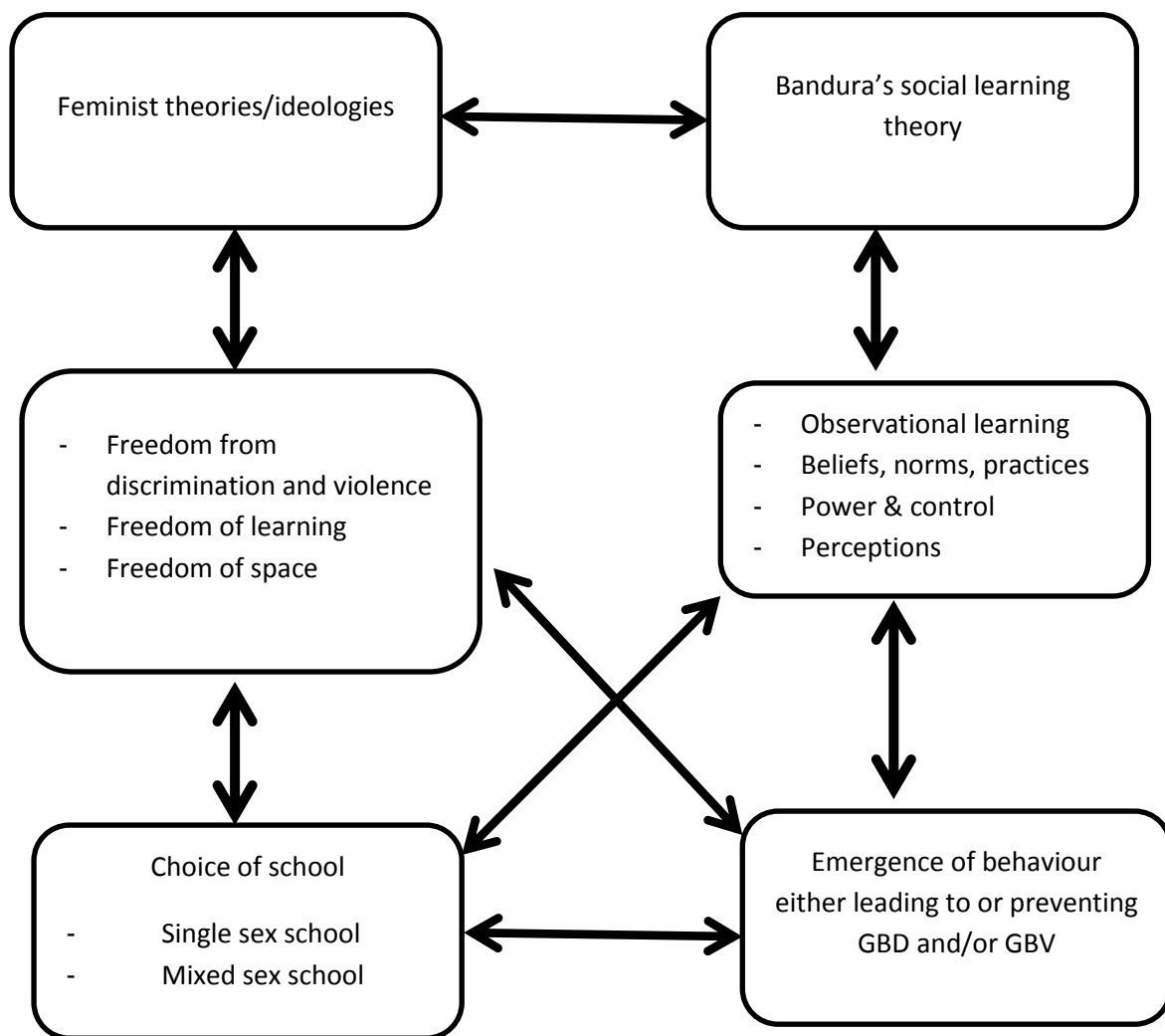
First, the child is more likely to attend to and imitate those people it perceives as similar to itself. Consequently, it is more likely to imitate behaviour modelled by people the same sex as it is. Second, the people around the child will respond to the behaviour it imitates with either reinforcement or punishment. It is likely that the child will be reinforced for acting in gender appropriate ways and punished or ignored for gender inappropriate behaviour. Third, the child will also have observed the consequences of other people's behaviour and will be motivated to imitate the behaviour it has seen reinforced and avoid imitating the behaviour it has seen punished (vicarious reinforcement and punishment).

In a school set-up for example, a study done by Dweck et al (1978) found that teachers reinforced boys for getting things right but reinforced girls for working neatly. This as a result would lead to boys forming certain behaviours as well as perspectives about girls and vice versa. The famous Bobo doll experiment conducted by Bandura demonstrated the way "children observe the people behaving around them in various ways" (Bandura, 1961). The children observe individuals who were referred to as models. According to McLeod, "children are surrounded by many influential models, such as parents within the family,

characters on children’s TV, friends within their peer group and teachers at school” (McLeod, 2011). McLeod further states that the children observe the models and “encode their behaviour” (McLeod, 2011). Later on, children may copy the behaviour that was previously observed. Children “may do this regardless of whether the behaviour is ‘gender appropriate’ or not but there are a number of processes that make it more likely that a child will reproduce the behaviour that its society deems appropriate for its sex” (McLeod, 2011).

2.10 Conceptual framework

2.10.1 Theoretical model

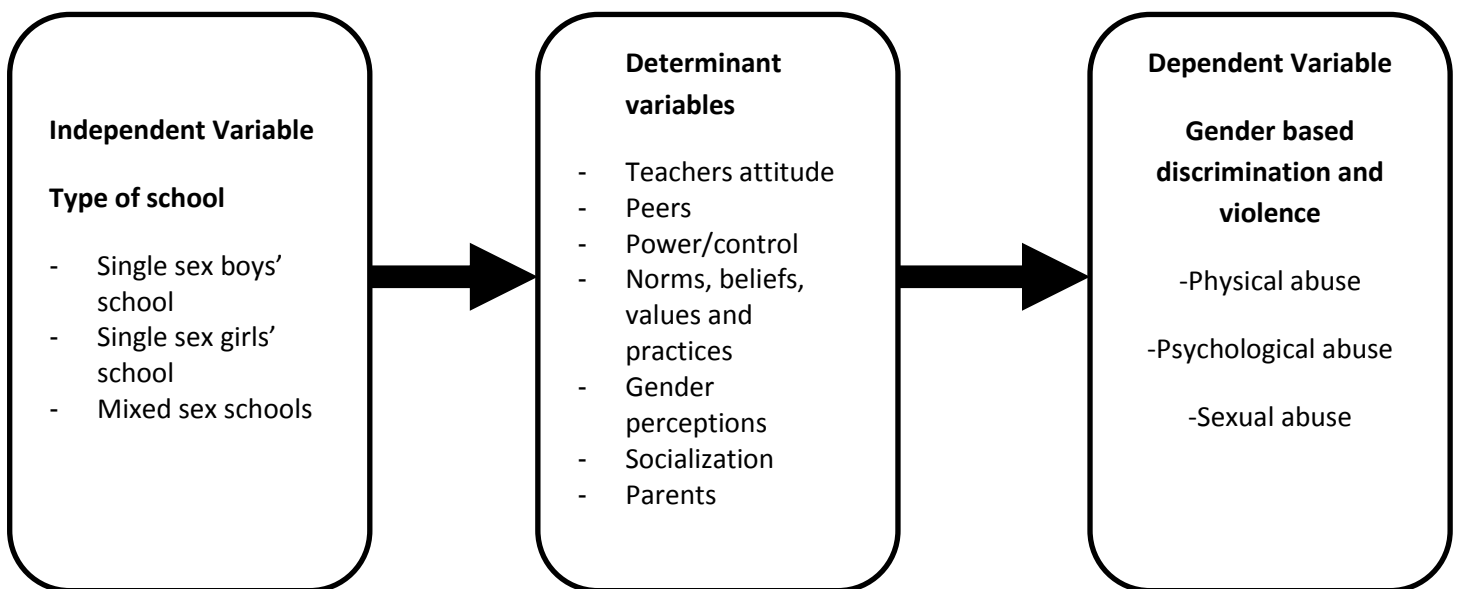


The theoretical framework of this study postulates that exposure to and belief in feminist ideologies may determine the choice of school in terms of sex i.e. either single sex or mixed sex school. On the other hand as well, the type of school one is in could also influence or lead

to either conformity or rejection to certain ideologies practiced in the school. Conformity/non-conformity to these ideologies may in turn lead to formation of either positive or negative behaviours towards the opposite sex which may or may not lead to gender based discrimination and/or violence

On the other hand, based on the social learning theory, through observational learning and modelling by teachers and peers, pre-existing norms, beliefs and practices, students may form certain behaviours that may determine the choice of school as well as how they view and treat the opposite sex. This may also lead to GBD

2.10.2 Operational model



Every institution has its own culture, norms and practices that individuals may conform to or not and therefore shape behavior and interactions with one another. The model above postulates that socialization may occur differently in the different schools based on the sex of the students in the school, their beliefs, and teachers' attitudes towards the students, and perceptions they have. The socialization may lead to the construction of certain perceptions towards the opposite sex that will influence behavior towards the opposite sex. This behavior, formed based on the type of school one is in, may be either positive or negative and therefore may lead to gender based discrimination and violence.

On the other hand, prior experience (directly or indirectly) of GBD and GBV, and perceptions from a different environment from school e.g. the home, may also determine the choice of school and therefore a student will come with preconceived notions on how to treat the opposite sex. E.g. due to the entrenched patriarchal systems, the boys feel they must be aggressive towards the females to ascertain their authority over them while the girls may feel they need to be submissive and therefore affirm certain unacceptable practices.

2.11 Summary

Gender inequalities in education are a function of gender discrimination and patriarchal social and cultural structures, which exist everywhere in the world. Peers tend to reinforce gender stereotypical behaviour and punish non-conformity which may further entrench GBD in the schools. Parents are also powerful players in the gender game; they can and do reinforce gender stereotypical expectations. Students and teachers carry into school the cultural mores and values that are dominant outside of school thereby replicating the gendered assumptions of parents and society at large within education. Challenging gender stereotypical attitudes and values outside of schools is as vital as challenging it within them.

Policy makers in many education ministries are debating the value of single-sex education. In single sex education, all learners are either girls or boys. The heart of most debate is whether girls will be safer and get a better education if they learn only with other girls or in mixed classes with boys. Educators have three main choices of educating girls. There can be single-sex education in separate boys' or girls' schools, mixed sex schools of girls and boys in the same classes in the same school, or mixed models. Mixed models can take various forms. They include mixed sex schools where boys and girls study several subjects in mixed classes but also have girl-only or boy-only classes for specific subjects like mathematics or science. A common example is schools that have separate physical education or vocational skills classes for girls and boys who study other subjects together. Separate boys' schools and girls' schools may also bring their students together for some joint education for sport or extra-curricular activities.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a description of the research design adopted by the researcher during the study. It defines the research design, study site, target population, sampling procedures and sample size. It explains the research instruments and data analysis procedures that were used. The research tools and instruments used to collect the required data are also discussed.

3.2 Study Methods

The study is both exploratory and descriptive, utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. A researcher guided self-administered questionnaire was used. The qualitative aspect was conducted using Key Informant Interviews with the selected teachers in the sampled schools.

3.3 Unit of Analysis and Observation

The unit of analysis in the study is the forms, patterns and extent of gender based discrimination in schools

The main unit of observation was the students in either mixed or single sex schools. Other units of observation were the teachers

3.4 Study Site and Target population

The targeted population consisted of students and teachers randomly selected from 6 secondary schools in Nairobi County. It comprised of selected teachers and/or principals from the 6 schools, and 384 students. The principals/teachers were seen as useful respondents as they are the coordinators and managers of the learning activities in a school. The teachers are directly involved in the actual implementation of learning processes in the classrooms while the students are the recipients.

3.5 Sampling procedure

3.5.1 Sample size determination

The student sample size was determined by applying the following formula (Fisher et al, 1998).

$$n = \frac{z^2 p(1-p)}{d^2}$$

Where:

n-is the sample size.

z-is the standard normal deviation at 95% confidence level.

p-is 50% since there is no other similar study conducted

d-is the target margin of error put at 0.05.

$$= \frac{1.96^2 * 0.5(1-0.5)}{0.05^2}$$

=384

3.5.2 Sampling

The following are the steps followed by the researcher in sampling:

Step 1: Compiling the list of all schools into the 9 sub counties

Multi-stage cluster sampling was used by the researcher to compile a list of all the schools in Nairobi county (308) and cluster them according to the 9 sub counties (Ministry of Education Science and Technology still uses this format to cluster the schools) as shown in the table below:

	Sub county	Number of schools
1	Lang'ata	41
2	Dagoretti	44
3	Makadara	23
4	Kamukunji	16
5	Starehe	30
6	Westlands	26
7	Kasarani	48
8	Njiru	39
9	Embakasi	41
	Total	308

Step 2: Identifying the 6 sub counties to be included in the study

The researcher employed **simple random sampling** to randomly pick 6 sub counties from which a school was to be picked. This was done through writing the 9 sub counties on a piece of paper each and blindly picking 6 from the 9. The following 6 sub counties were picked:

	Sub county
1.	Dagoretti
2.	Makadara
3.	Kamukunji
4.	Starehe
5.	Westlands
6.	Njiru

Step 3: Selection of 6 schools to participate in the study (one per Sub County)

From the selected 6 sub counties, the researcher again used **simple random sampling** to identify which school type will be picked from which sub county. Afterwards, the researcher compiled all the school within the category and randomly picked the representative school as follows:

Table 1: Sampling frame for the study

	Sub county	Name of school	Type of school	Students' population
1.	Dagoretti	Dagorreti high school	Single sex boarding(boys)	930
2.	Makadara	St. Anne's girls High school	Single sex boarding (girls)	750
3.	Kamukunji	Eastleigh High School	Single sex day (boys)	700
4.	Starehe	Muslim academy	Single sex day (girls)	360
5.	Westlands	Hospital hill high school	Mixed sex boarding	336
6.	Njiru	Dandora secondary school	Mixed sex day school	670
	Total			3,746

The sampling frame was drawn from Table 1 above

Step 4: Identification of the sample size from each of the 6 schools

The 384 respondents were selected proportional to the schools' student population sizes (**Proportionate random sampling**) of the secondary schools. The school registers were used as a sampling frame to get a representative sample from each class i.e. form 1, 2, 3, & 4 through proportionate sampling, afterwards **Simple random sampling** was used to identify the specific respondents in each class from each school.

The table below shows the sample size for the selected schools:

Sub county	Name of school	Type of school	Number of respondents (sample size/school)(n/N)*422
Dagoretti	Dagorreti high school	Single sex boarding (boys)	95
Makadara	St. Anne's girls High school	Single sex boarding (girls)	76
Kamukunji	East Leigh High School	Single sex day (boys)	72
Starehe	Muslim academy	Single sex day (girls)	37
Westlands	Hospital hill high school	Mixed boarding	34
Njiru	Dandora secondary school	Mixed sex day school	70
TOTAL			384

In order to supplement and bear out results arising from the survey, key informant interviews were also conducted. Purposive sampling procedure was applied in the selection of the 6-principals/deputy principals and 6 teachers/tutors as key informants.

3.6 Methods of data collection

The researcher used both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. Two research assistants were recruited to assist with the data collection. They were trained on interviewing techniques (including ethical considerations) prior to data collection. The principle investigator consistently monitored them during data collection period.

Data collection was through guided self-administered questionnaires for the students and key informant interviews for the teachers. Informed consent was sought from the schools' administration before the students were allowed to participate in the study. The students were also given the freedom to choose whether to participate in the study or not. Permission was also sought from the directorate of education and NACOSTI to conduct the study within schools in Nairobi.

The Key informants on the other hand were approached and requested if they would be willing to participate in the study. An interview guide was used in the discussion. The

discussions were held in private places such as their offices for ease of recording and also to ensure confidentiality.

3.7 Methods of data analysis

The questionnaire was pre-coded to ease data entry. Quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS to obtain frequency distributions and cross-tabulations to enable the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically and descriptively; no software was used for qualitative analysis.

3.8 Ethical concerns

The following procedure was carried out to ensure that no harm comes to the participants of this study as a result of their participation and that acceptable standards for such a study have been adhered to:

1. **Approval from the University.** The proposal for this study was submitted for review and was subsequently approved by the Department of Sociology before data collection.
2. **Approval from NACOSTI:** After receiving the approval letter from the University, the researcher applied for a research permit from the National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). A permit covering one year was granted.
3. **Approval from the County commissioner:** Because the study was being carried out in Nairobi County, permission had to be sought from the county commissioner that was granted.
4. **Approval from the County Director of Education:** Because the study was being carried out in schools, permission had to be granted by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology through the County Director's office. This was also granted
5. **School heads:** Permission was also sought from the school heads to carry out the study in their schools and to help in the sampling process
6. **Informed Consent:** All participants were informed of the purpose of the study and what it involves through the Informed Consent Form affixed to the questionnaire. In this form, participants were given the option to opt out of completing the questionnaire and allowed to ask any questions related to their participation in this study. There were two levels of informed consent i.e. since the students are below 18, the researcher first sought consent from the school administration to carry out the study in their respective schools i.e. Key informant Interviews with the teachers and self-administered questionnaires for the students. Consent to interview the students was also sought from the school

administration as opposed to their parents because of inaccessibility of the parents due to time and resource limitations and the understanding that the parents have released their students to the school for the time they are in school. The second level was the students being taken through the informed consent for them to give consent before commencing the study.

7. **Confidentiality.** The investigator will treat the information provided during the study with utmost confidentiality. The identities of the participants were not captured, and only a code that is supplied by the participant was used as an identifier. This was also outlined in the consent form.
8. **Potential harm and benefits:** Participants were assured that no harm will come to them as a result of participating in this study. Additionally they were informed that there will be no direct benefits for participation e.g. monetary benefits, scholarships etc.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter focuses on the findings which are presented in different forms i.e. tables, charts and graphs. It also seeks to interpret and give meaning to the data. The section is organized following the research objectives.

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics

Out of the sampled 384 students, the response rate was 84.5 per cent (317 students). This was majorly because the identified mixed public boarding schools in Nairobi County were being gradually transformed into either girls boarding or boys' boarding schools.

Table 1: Per cent distribution of respondents by sex

Sex	Type of school		Total (N=317)
	Mixed school	Non-mixed/single sex schools	
Male	19.0 (40)	81.0 (170)	100.0 (210)
Female	43.0 (46)	57.0 (61)	100.0 (107)
Total (n/N)	27.1 (86)	72.9 (231)	100.0 (317)

Majority of the students who participated in the study were males (n=210, 66.0 per cent) as compared to females (n=107, 33.7 per cent). The study also had more respondents from single sex schools (72.9 per cent) as compared to mixed sex schools (27.1 per cent). This however did not affect the study due to its comparative nature. Each cluster was analysed separately and the results compared.

Table 2: Per cent distribution of respondents by age

Respondent age	Type of school		Total (n/N; N=317)
	Mixed school	Non-mixed/single sex schools	
10-14 years	3.5 (3)	7.8 (18)	6.6 (21)
15-19 years	93.0 (80)	88.3 (204)	89.6 (284)
20-24 years	3.5 (3)	3.9 (9)	3.8 (12)
Total	100.0 (86)	100.0 (231)	100.0 (317)

As shown in table 2 above majority of the respondents were between ages 15-19 years which is the expected average age of secondary school students. This therefore means that, the findings of the study will also reflect the gender perceptions of this particular cohort who is the ideal population expected to be found in a secondary school based on the Kenyan education system as at time of study.

Table 3: Per cent distribution of respondents by religion

Religion	Type of school		Total (n/ N; N=317)
	Mixed school	Non-mixed/single sex schools	
Muslim	4.7 (4)	28.6 (66)	22.1 (70)
Christian	95.3 (82)	68.4(158)	75.7 (240)
Hindu	0.0 (0)	1.3 (3)	0.9 (3)
Others	0.0 (0)	1.7 (4)	1.3 (4)
Total	100.0 (86)	100.0 (231)	100.0 (317)

From table 3 above, majority of the respondents from both mixed and non-mixed schools were from the Christian religion (75.7) while those professing the Islam religion were 22.1 per cent. Depending on how adherent the respondents are to their religion, their views/perceptions on gender based discrimination may be influenced by their religious views.

Table 4: Per cent distribution of respondents by family structure

Family structure	Percentage of respondents
Both parents alive	79.0
Father only alive	5.5
Mother only alive	11.6
Total Orphan	3.9
Total	100.0

It was important for the researcher to establish the family structure since the family environment also determines behaviour formation and perceptions and thus from the table 4

above, it implies that majority of the respondents have both parents alive and therefore may influence their understanding of gender roles based on the practices they observe at home.

Table 5: Per cent distribution of respondents by form/class

Form/Class	Type of school		Total (n/N; N=317)
	Mixed school	Non-mixed/single sex schools	
Form 1	23.3 (20)	34.6 (80)	31.5 (100)
Form 2	24.4 (21)	16.9 (39)	18.9 (60)
Form 3	27.9 (24)	29.9 (69)	29.3 (93)
Form 4	24.4 (21)	18.6 (43)	20.2 (64)
Total	100.0 (86)	100.0 (231)	100.0 (317)

As indicated in table 5 above there was an almost equal distribution of the respondents based on their form/class. The single sex schools however had a slightly higher percentage of form 1's. This was proportionate to their population during sampling. From this data, the findings of this study can therefore be taken to represent or be generalized to the entire student population in the respective schools.

Table 6: Per cent distribution of respondents by membership to a school club

School club membership	Type of school		Total (n/N; N=311)
	Mixed school	Non-mixed/single sex schools	
Member	65.9 (56)	78.8 (178)	75.2 (234)
Non member	34.1 (29)	21.2 (48)	24.8 (77)
Total	100.0 (85)	100.0 (226)	100 (311)

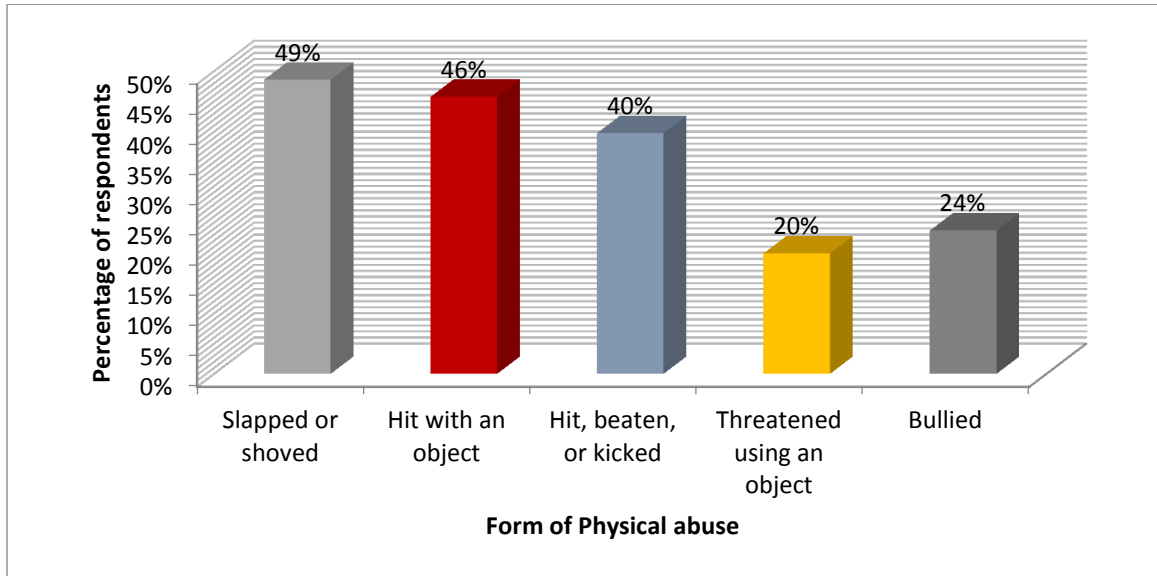
The importance of this variable was to find out how active and exposed the respondents were in school activities and thus have a broader view and perceptions on gender base discrimination. From the table 6 above, it is evident that 75% of the respondent belonged to a club in the schools and was therefore exposed to gender concerns outside the normal class activities.

4.2 Forms and occurrence of Gender Based Discrimination in secondary schools

4.2.1 Physical abuse

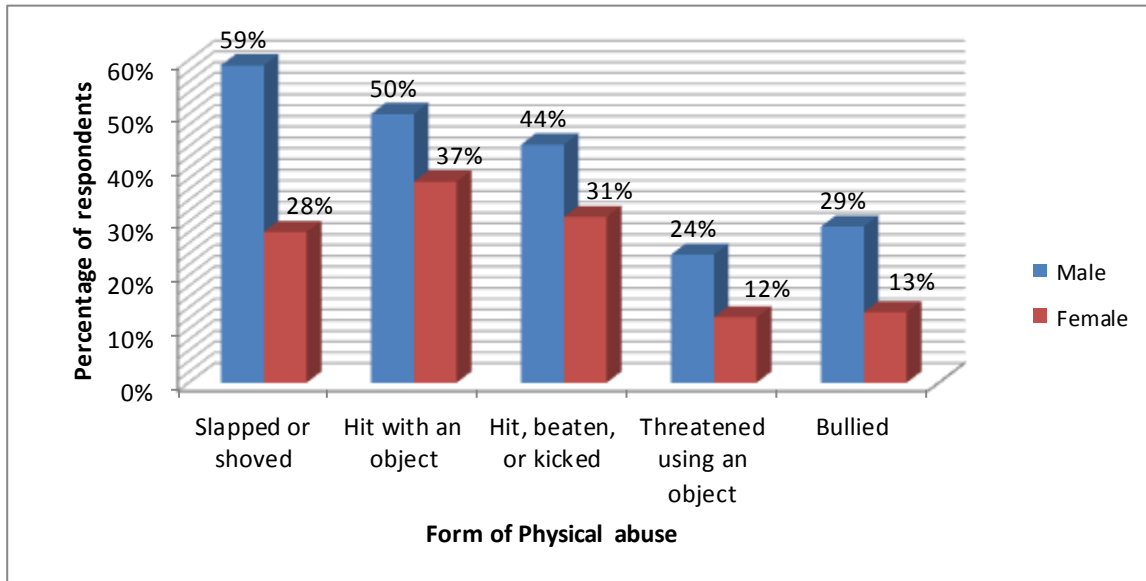
Below is a graphic representation of the occurrence of the different forms of physical abuse in secondary schools.

Figure 1 Per cent distribution of the occurrence of different forms of physical abuse in secondary schools



As shown in figure 1 above, majority of the respondents (49.0) recorded to have ever been slapped and/or shoved while another 46.0 had been hit with an object while in school. Threats (using an object) were the least form of abuse in terms of occurrence in secondary school with 20.0 saying they have ever experienced it.

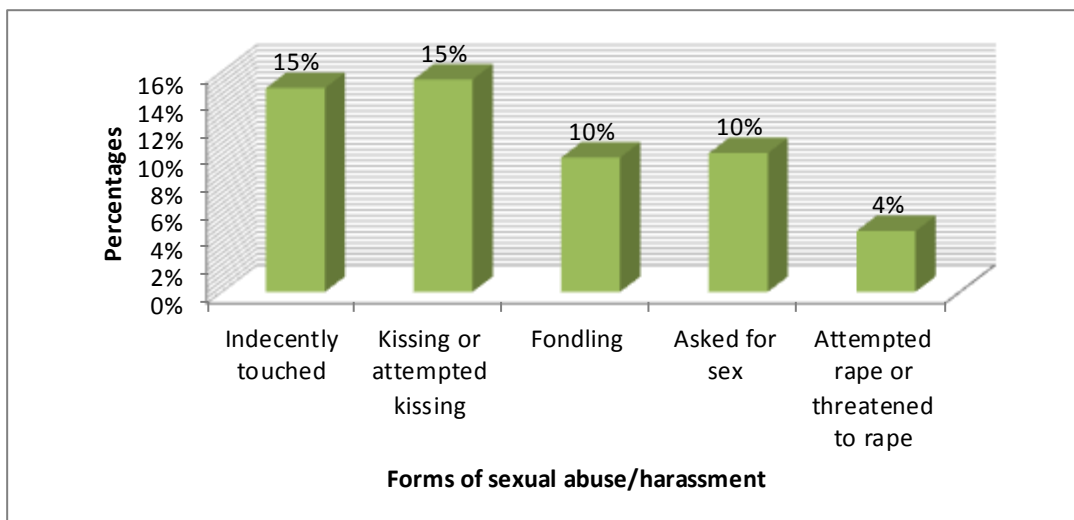
Figure 2: Per cent distribution of the forms of physical abuse in secondary schools by sex



As shown in figure 2 above, all forms of physical abuse were more among the male students as compared to the female students, an indication of more aggression towards the male students by the perpetrators

4.2.2 Sexual abuse

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of occurrence of different forms of sexual abuse in secondary schools



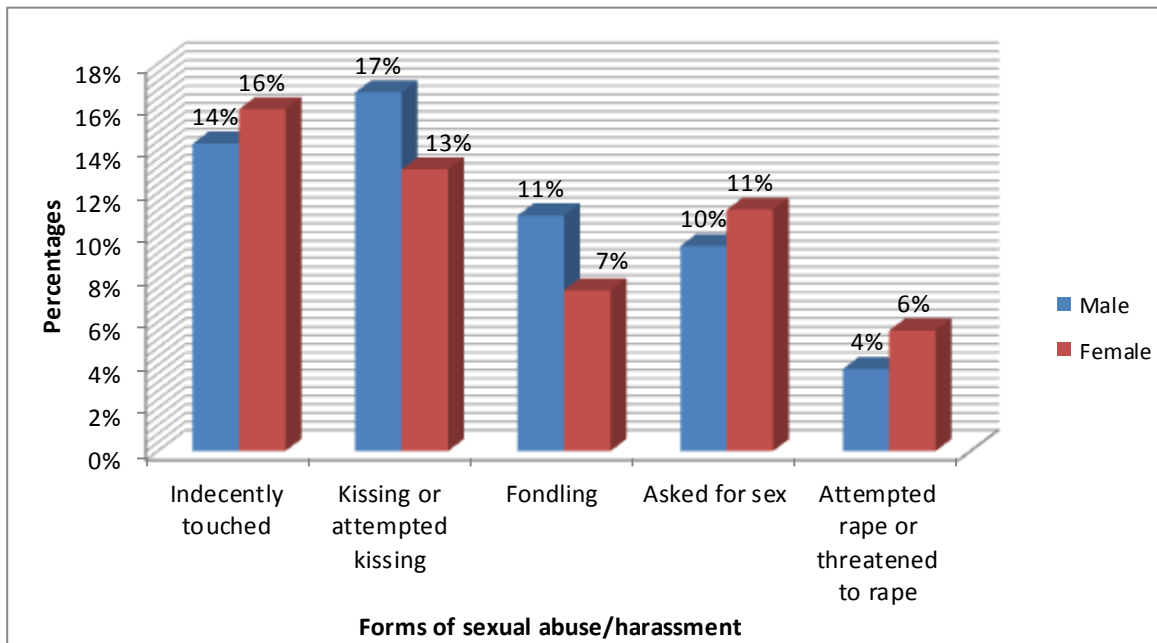
Most of the respondents indicated that they have ever been indecently touched (15.0) or kissed/attempted to be kissed (15.0) while in school. This however had a low occurrence

compared to physical abuse. Attempted rape/threatened to be raped had the least occurrence (4.0). This is corroborated by the teachers during the key informant interviews who said:

“...although minimum, there is sexual harassment...” Female teacher, mixed day school

Another said, *“...cases of sexual harassment are rare...” Female teacher, girls’ school*

Figure 4: Per cent distribution of the occurrence of sexual abuse among students in secondary schools by sex

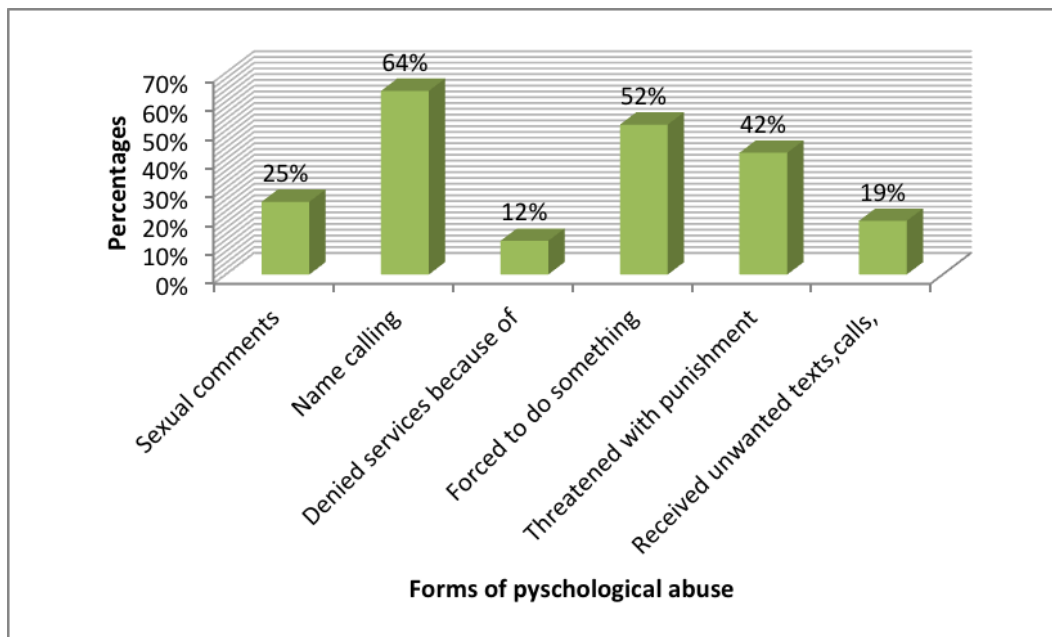


With the exception of fondling and kissing/attempted kissing (which occurred more among boys), sexual abuse generally occurred more among the female respondents than the male respondents as shown in figure 4 above. To note is that while physical abuse was more among the male students, sexual abuse was more among the female students and indication of gender perceptions and imbalances within the schools.

One of the teachers in the mixed school said, *“...in our case, the girls are very aggressive...they harass the boys...” Female teacher-mixed sex school.*

4.2.3 Psychological abuse

Figure 5: Per cent distribution of the occurrence of different forms of psychological abuse



As shown in figure 5 above, most of the respondents said they have experienced name calling/insulted or shouted at (64.0) while another 52.0 per cent said they have been forced to do something against their will. Only 12.0 per cent said that they have ever been denied anything in school because of their gender. 42.0 per cent also indicated that they have ever been threatened with punishment.

Figure 6: Per cent distribution of the occurrence of psychological abuse among students by sex

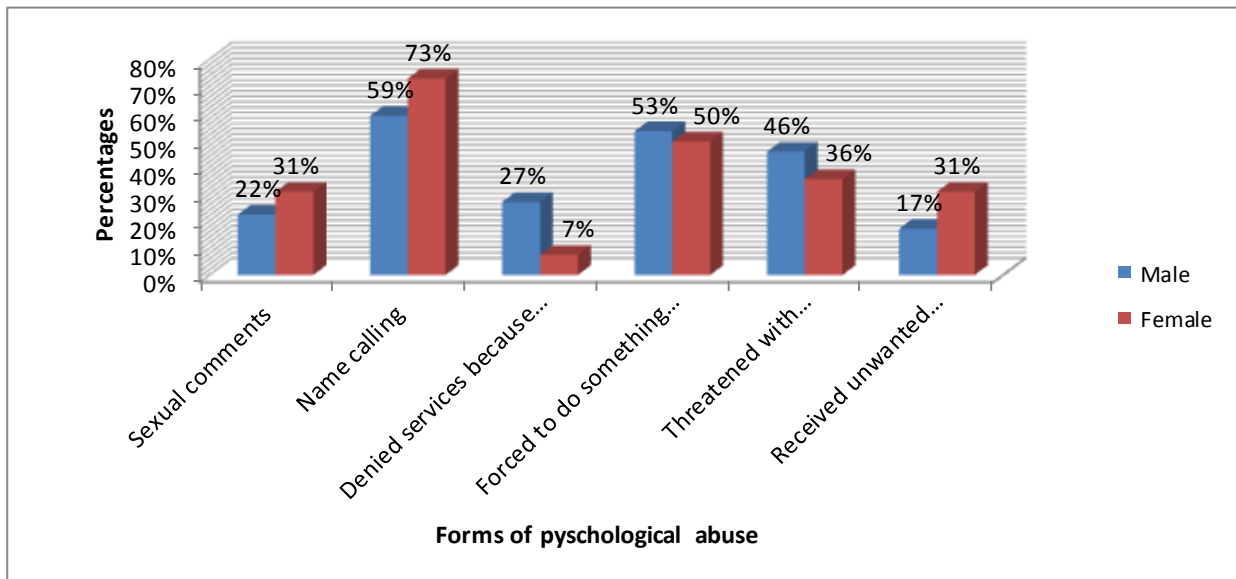


Figure 6 above shows that the females experienced more of the verbal abuses i.e. name calling/insults (73.0), sexual comments (31.0), and unwanted calls/texts/letters (31.0). The male respondents experienced more of the threats to be punished and forced to do something against their will. This again is an indication of more aggressive and physical measures against the male students with verbal abuse/intimidation more among the female students.

On the question of denial of anything because one's gender, the male students responded to have experienced this more than the female students (27.0 against 7.0). Could there be favouritism or is it a question of gender construction where the males are expected to be more self-reliant?

4.3 Patterns of gender based discrimination in single and mixed sex schools

This section focuses on the different forms of abuse and the pattern of occurrence based on; frequency of occurrence, type of school, and boarding status

4.3.1 Physical abuse

4.3.1.1 Frequency of occurrence of physical abuse

Table 7: Per cent distribution of the frequency of occurrence of the forms of physical abuse

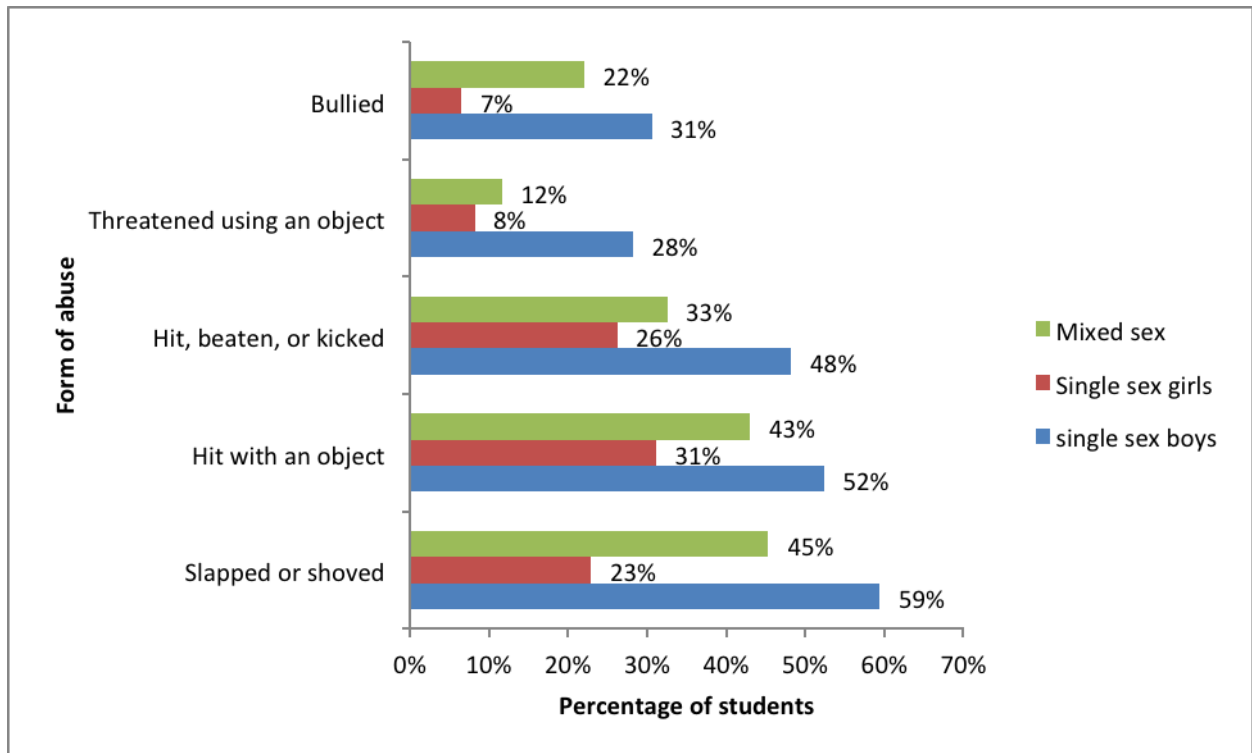
Form of abuse	Happened last term		Frequency		
	Yes	No	Once	2-5 times	Many times
Slapped or shoved	71.4	28.6	50.0	22.7	27.3
Hit with an object	71.0	21.4	32.0	28.2	39.8
Hit, beaten, or kicked	74.6	17.5	34.0	31.9	34.0
Threatened using an object	73.0	11.1	25.4	19.0	28.6
Bullied	65.3	25.3	24.5	20.4	55.1

From the table 7 above, out of the respondents that said they have experienced a form of physical abuse in the last school term, bullying was the most frequent at 55.0, followed by physical assault i.e. being hit with an object at 40.0. Although majority of the respondents (49.0) as shown in figure 1 have ever experienced slapping/shoving, it doesn't occur frequently. It only happened once to 50.0 per cent of the respondents who were slapped and/or shoved in the last term. Although only 24.0 (figure 1) had experienced bullying, it was the most frequent. This could mean that there is a group of students who are being bullied repeatedly in schools.

Being hit with an object also occurred to 46.0 per cent of the students and 40.0 of respondents who were hit in the last term said it occurred many times. This could mean corporal punishment is significantly practiced and especially among the male students as shown in figure 2

4.3.1.2 Comparison of occurrence of physical abuse based on school type

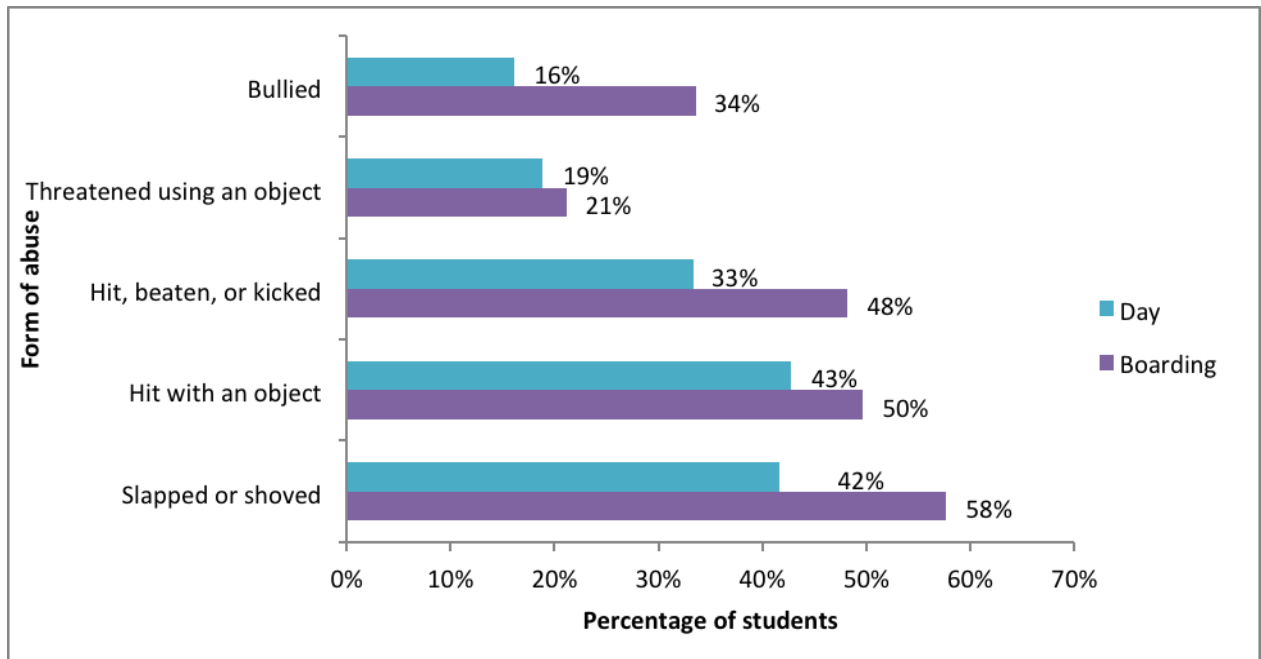
Figure 7: Per cent distribution of occurrence of physical abuse by school type



As shown in figures 7 above, all forms of physical abuse were experienced the most in single sex boys' schools followed by mixed sex schools. Physical aggression was least in single sex girls' schools.

4.3.1.3 Comparison of occurrence of physical abuse by boarding status

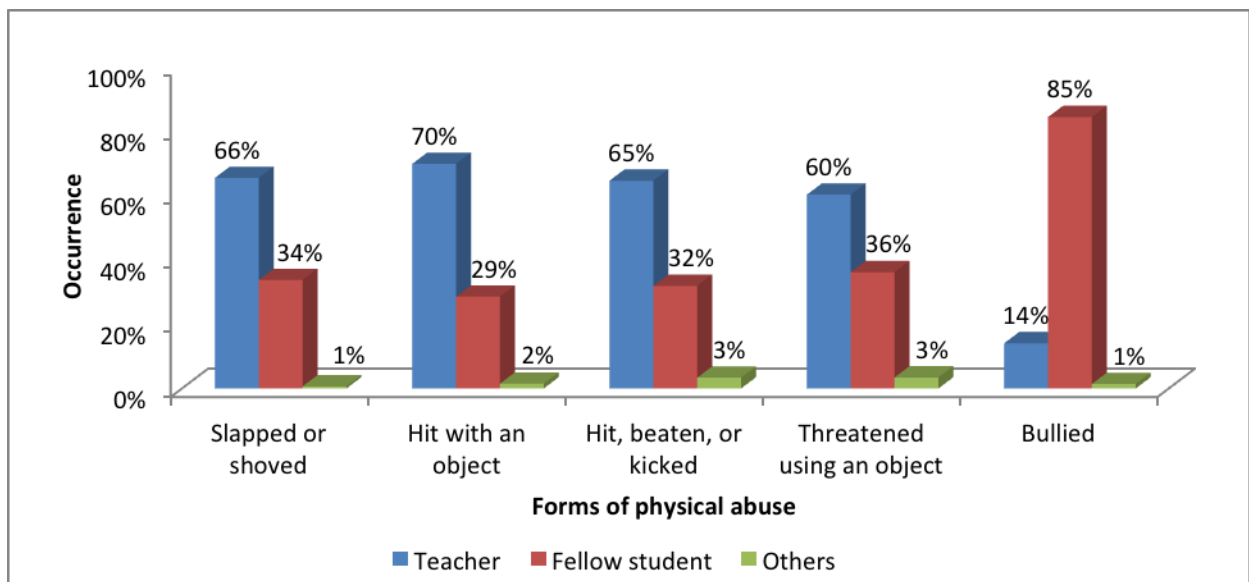
Figure 8: Per cent distribution of occurrence of physical abuse by boarding status



From figure 8 above, the respondents who experienced all forms of physical abuse the most were from boarding schools

4.3.1.4 Comparison based on perpetrator

Figure 9: Per cent distribution of perpetrators of the different forms of physical abuse



Except for bullying, teachers were the main perpetrators of physical abuse in schools. From figure 9 above, there is an implication that corporal punishment is still being practiced in schools despite its illegalization; 70.0 per cent of those who have been hit with an object were

hit by a teacher, 66.0 percent were slapped by a teacher, and 60.0 percent were threatened by a teacher using an object.

Although from the quantitative data, teachers are the main perpetrators, from key informant interviews the teachers had the following to say,

“...Although minimum there is sexual harassment...sometimes intimidation by the seniors...it’s not pronounced because we don’t allow it” (female teacher-mixed school)

“...Main perpetrators are senior students, prefects, cooks...” (Male Teacher-Mixed School)

4.3.1.5 Physical abuse based on student’s form

Table 8: Per cent distribution of occurrence of different forms of physical abuse by form

Form of abuse	Per cent distribution			
	Form 1	Form 2	Form 3	Form 4
Slapped or shoved	47.0%	61.7%	39.8%	52.4%
Hit with an object	39.0%	51.7%	45.2%	52.4%
Hit, beaten, or kicked	33.0%	51.7%	43.0%	34.9%
Threatened using an object	16.0%	16.7%	21.5%	27.0%
Bullied	24.0%	36.7%	16.1%	22.2%
Average	31.8%	43.7%	33.1%	37.8%

From table 8 above, on average, majority of the students in form 2 reported to have experienced physical abuses, followed by form 4, form 3 and lastly form 1. It is normally said that form 2 are the most indiscipline lot in high school and that could be one of the reasons whether true or false that teachers and fellow students are tougher on them than any other form.

4.3.2 Sexual Abuse

4.3.2.1 Frequency of occurrence

As shown in the table 9 below, out of the respondents who said they have ever been kissed or attempted to be kissed, 75.5 per cent said it occurred in the last term, with 86.5 per cent saying it occurred more than twice within the term; out of this 62.2 per cent said it occurred many times to them (more than 5 times).

Although majority said they have ever been indecently touched, 61.7 per cent said it occurred more than twice, 72.7 per cent said they have been fondled more than twice, 72.7 per cent have been asked for sex more than twice. Sadly, although 14 students said they have ever experienced attempted or threatened rape, 57.0 of them (8) said it occurred in the last term with 88.0 (7) of them saying it occurred more than twice.

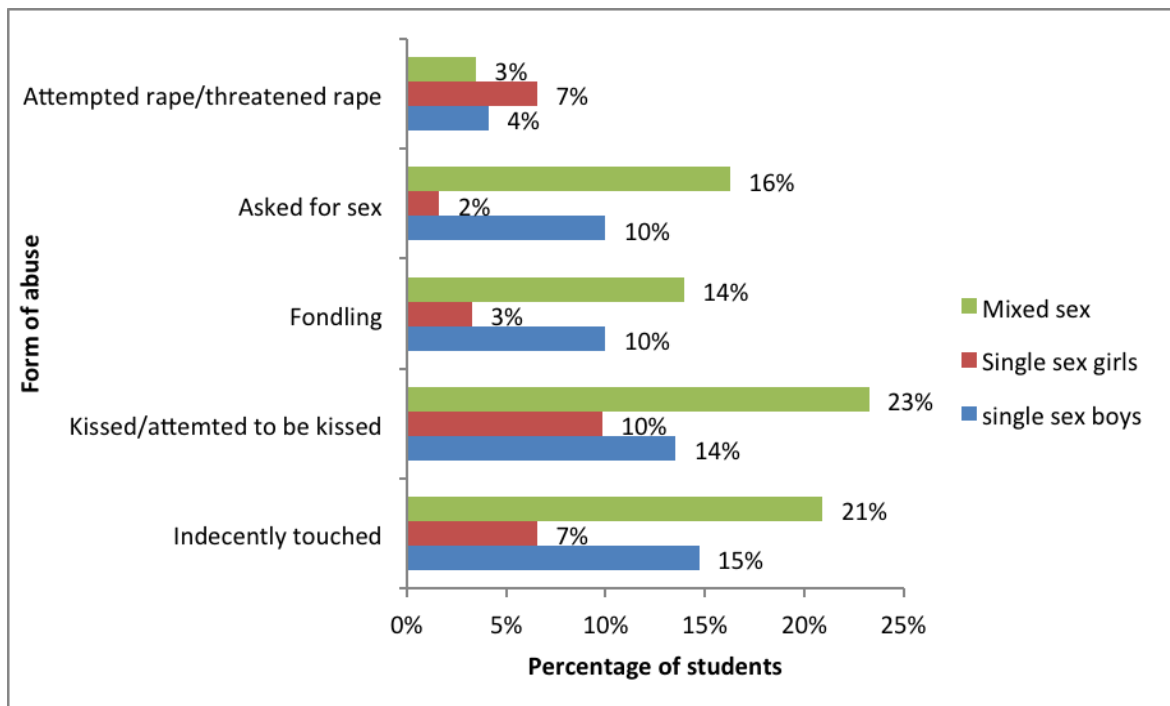
Table 9: Percentage distribution of frequency of occurrence of the different forms of sexual abuse

Form of abuse	Happened last term		Frequency		
	Yes	No	Once	2-5 times	Many times
Indecently touched	72.3	12.8	38.2	23.5	38.2
Kissed/attempted to be kissed	75.5	14.3	13.5	24.3	62.2
Fondling	71.0	19.4	27.3	22.7	50.0
Asked for sex	68.8	9.4	27.3	18.2	54.5
Attempted rape/threatened rape	57.1	14.3	12.5	25.0	62.5

4.3.2.2 Comparison of occurrence based on school type

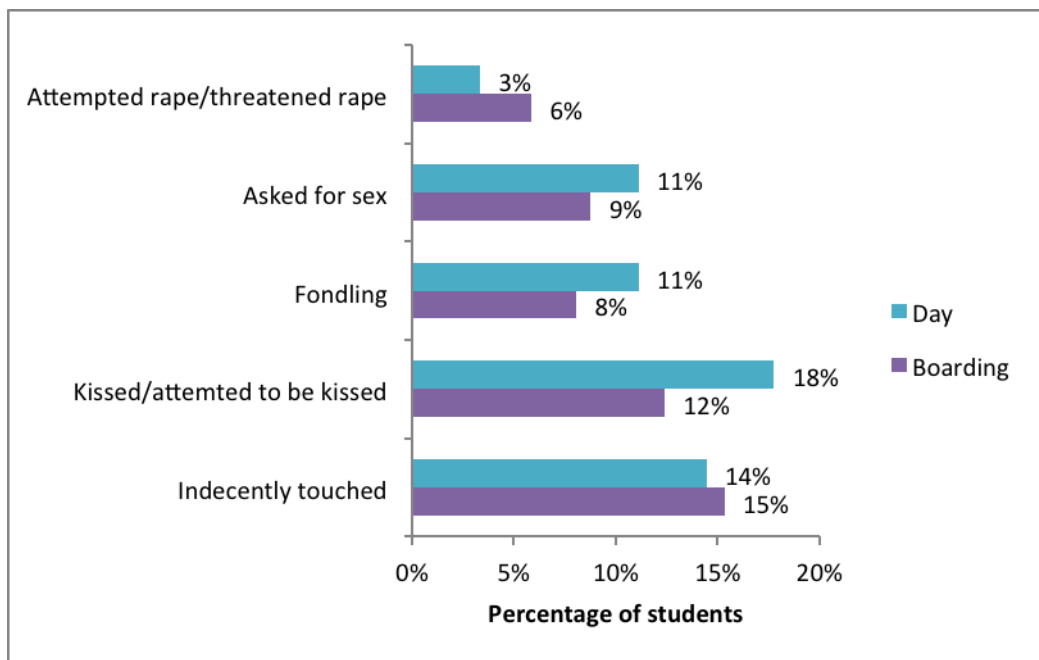
From the study, as indicated in figure 10 below, all forms of sexual abuse occurred more among students in the mixed sex schools with the exception of attempted/threatened with rape which had the most occurrence in single sex school. In the single sex category, the boy schools are seen to also experience sexual abuse more than the girl schools. Could this be a result of a lot of girl-child empowerment programs at the expense of the boy child? Should there be programs that also empower the boy child on his rights and responsibilities?

Figure 10: Per cent distribution of occurrence of sexual abuse by school type



4.3.2.3 Comparison of occurrence based on boarding status

Figure 11: Per cent distribution of occurrence of sexual abuse by boarding status

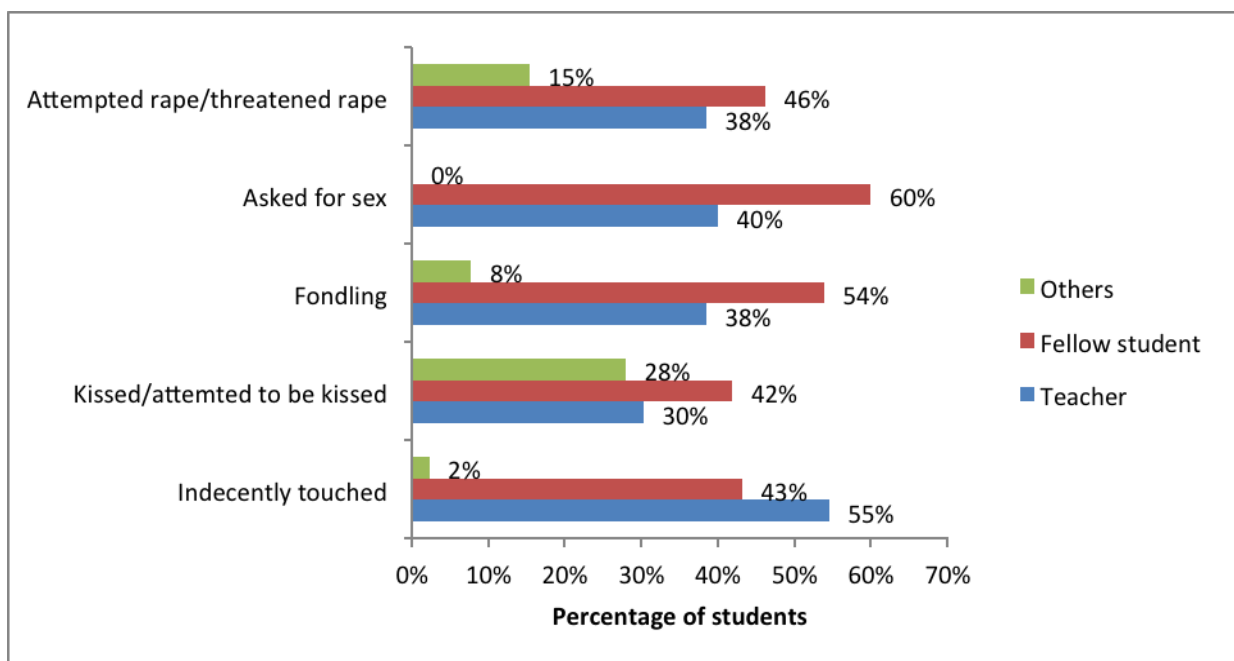


As shown in figure 11 above, cases of rape and indecent touching were more in boarding schools as compared to day schools, while all the rest (asked for sex, fondling, kissing) were more in day schools as compared to boarding schools.

4.3.2.4 Comparison based on perpetrator

While physical abuse was meted more by the teachers, 4 out of the 5 forms of sexual abuse assessed in the study were committed by the students towards their fellow students. However, a significant percentage of the perpetrators are composed of teachers' i.e. 55% of those who were indecently touched reported to have been touched by a teacher; 30% of those who had been kissed or attempted to be kissed; 38% of those that were fondled; 40% of those who were asked for sex were asked by a teacher as well as 38% of those who experienced attempted rape.

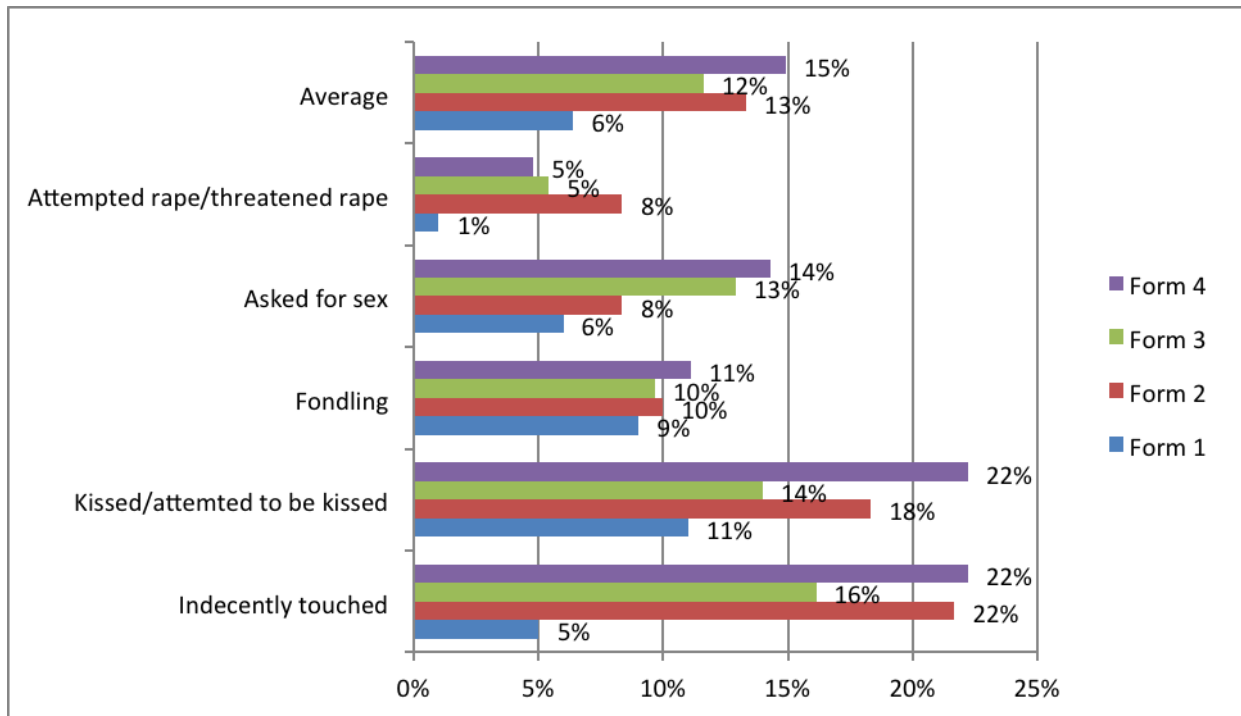
Figure 12: Per cent distribution of perpetrators of the different forms of sexual abuse



4.3.2.5 Comparison based on students' form

From figure 13 below, it shows that sexual abuses were committed the most among form 4 students on average, followed by form 2 students. The difference in percentage however is 2% and 3% between form 4 and form 2 and 3 respectively. There is however a huge gap between form 4, 2 & 3 and form 1s. From the study there is an indication that form 1's do not experience sexual abuses as much as the other forms

Figure 13: Per cent distribution of occurrence of different forms of sexual abuse by students form



4.3.3 Psychological abuse

4.3.3.1 Frequency of occurrence

Table 10: Per cent distribution of the frequency of occurrence of psychological abuse in the last term

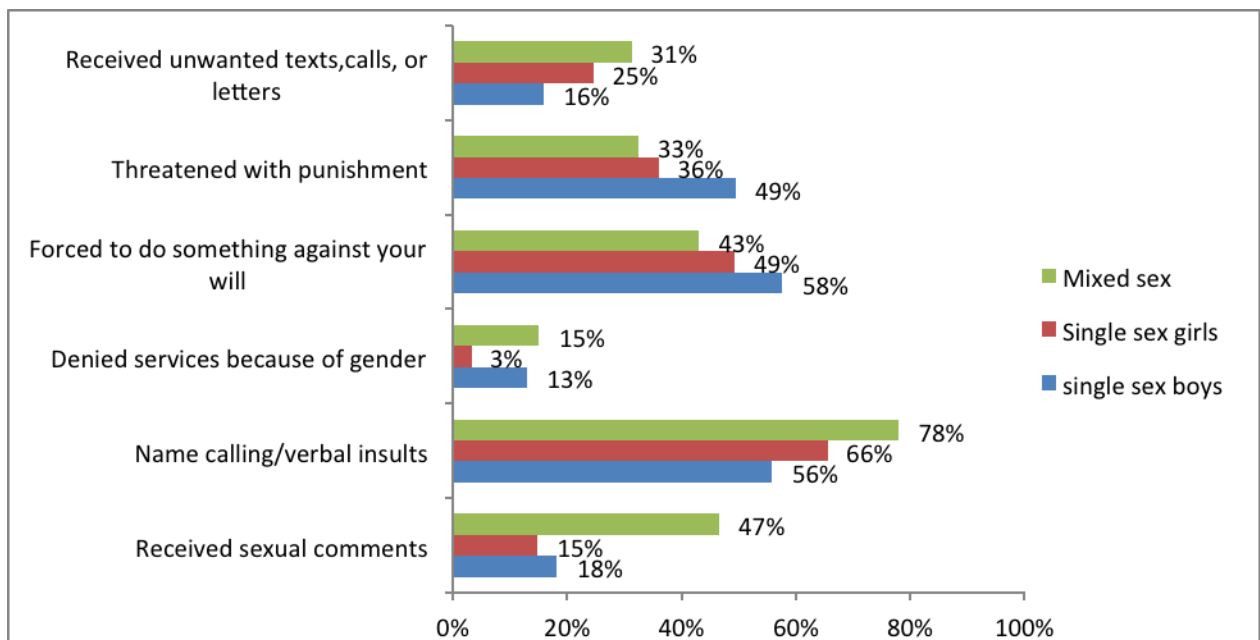
Form of abuse	Happened last term		Frequency		
	Yes	No	Once	2-5 times	Many times
Received sexual comments	70.0	15.0	23.2	10.7	66.1
Name calling/verbal insults	74.3	10.4	12.0	20.0	68.0
Denied services because of gender	59.5	24.3	45.5	31.8	22.7
Forced to do something against your will	78.2	12.1	20.9	17.1	62.0
Threatened with punishment	69.4	13.4	17.2	20.4	62.4
Received unwanted texts, calls, or letters	81.4	22.0	14.6	18.8	66.7

As indicted in table 10 above, out of the students who reported to have ever received sexual comments, 70.0 reported it happened in the last term with 76.8 indicating it happened more than two times and 66.1 reporting it happened more than 5 times. Name calling which was

what most of the respondents said they have ever experienced, 74.3 reported it to have happened in the last term with 88.0 of them saying it happened more than two times within that term. Out of those who were forced to do something against their own will, 78.2 reported it happened in the last term with 79.1 reporting it happened more than twice. Although only 19% of the respondents reported to have ever received unwanted text/call (majority of which were female respondents), 81.4 reported it happened in the last term with 85.5 reporting it happened more than twice within the same term. Table 4 above shows a summary of the findings

4.3.3.2 Comparison of occurrence based on school type

Figure 14: Per cent distribution of occurrence of different forms of psychological abuse by school type



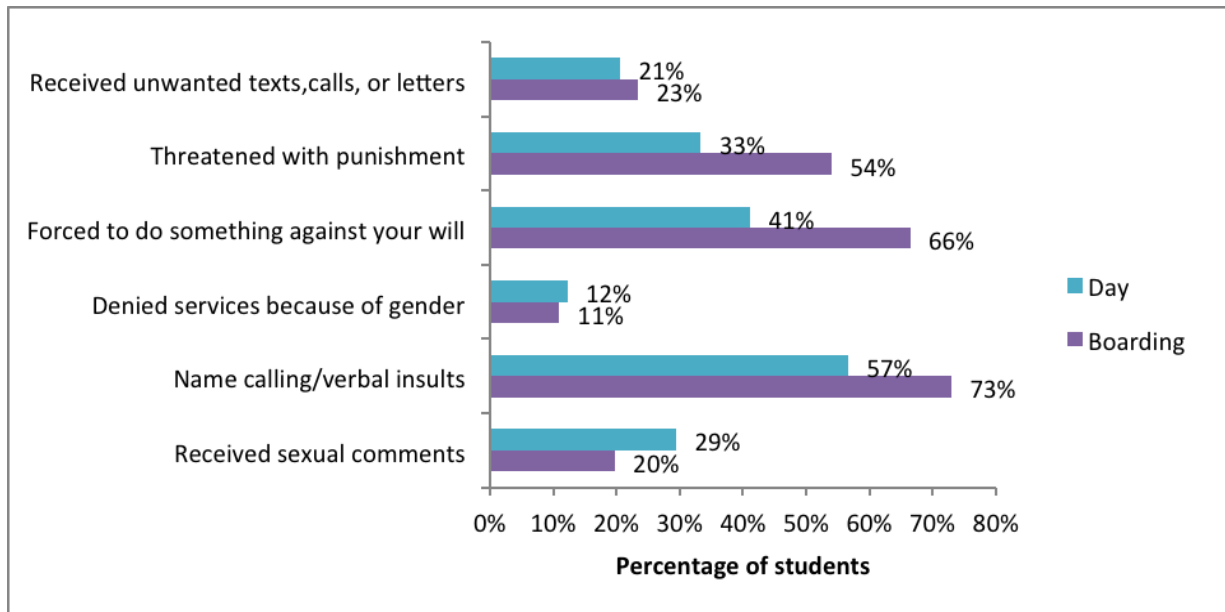
Name calling/verbal insults, receiving unwanted texts/call/letters, and receiving sexual comments occurred more in mixed schools followed by single sex girl schools with the exception of sexual comments.

Single sex boy schools experienced more of the punishment threats and being forced to do something against their will. From the analysis in figure 14 above, there is still an indication abuse that border physical aggression and violence are meted towards the males while those that are non-violent but may have a huge psychological effect are meted towards the females.

4.3.3.3 Comparison of occurrence based on boarding status

All forms of psychological abuses occurred more in the boarding schools with the exception of sexual comments and denial of services because of gender as shown in figure 15 below.

Figure 15: Per cent distribution of occurrence of the different forms of psychological abuse by school type

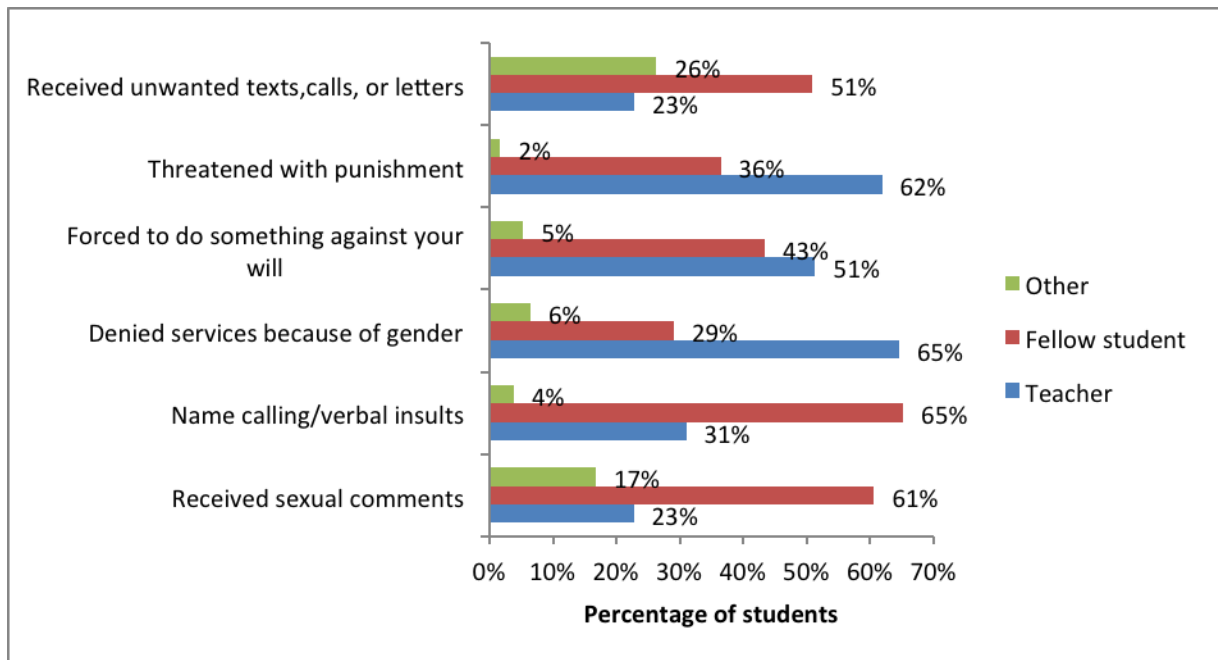


4.3.3.4 Comparison based on perpetrator

As shown in figure 16 below, there is an indication of power dynamics, for instance, teachers seem to use their position of authority/power to commit these abuses e.g. denial of services because of gender, forcing students to do something against their will, and threatening students with punishment.

Name-calling and sexual comments were committed by the students towards their fellow students. It is important to note that these two forms also occurred more in the mixed schools than the single sex schools. Is this an indication of battle of the sexes in the mixed schools? Would this be a result of social construction and societal expectations?

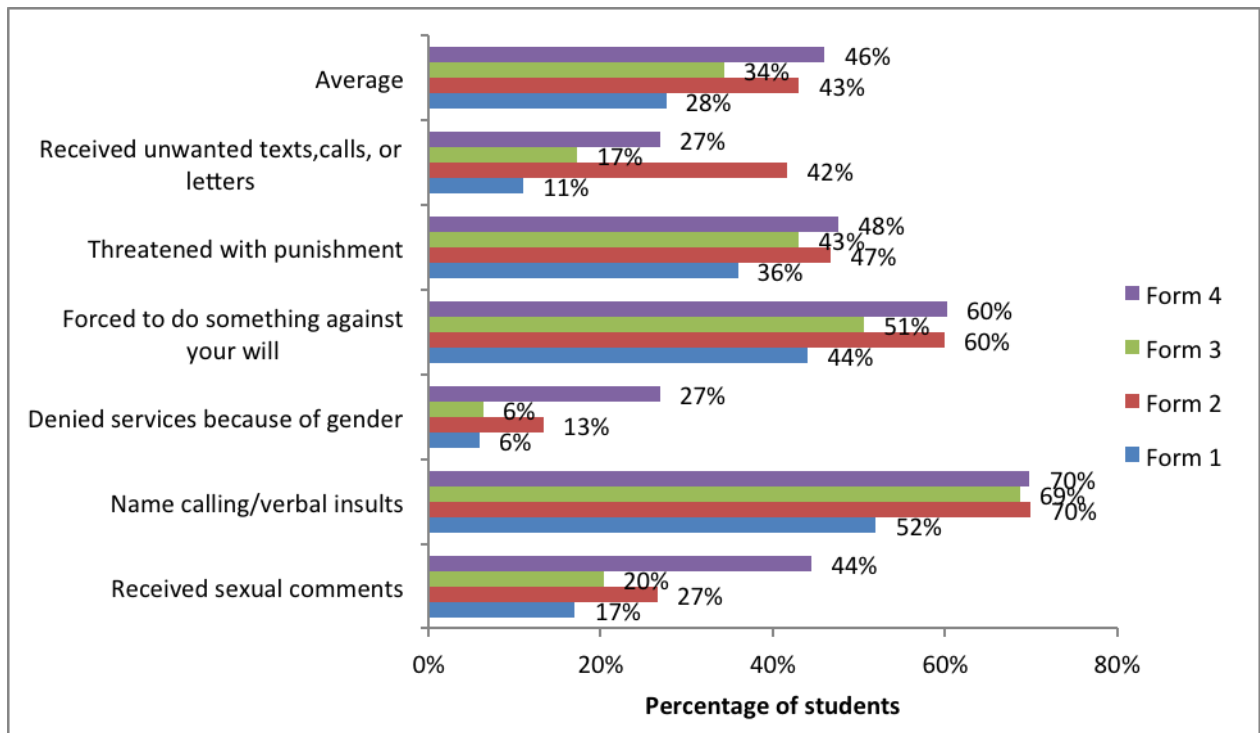
Figure 16: Per cent distribution of the perpetrators of the different forms of psychological abuse



4.3.3.5 Comparison based on students' form

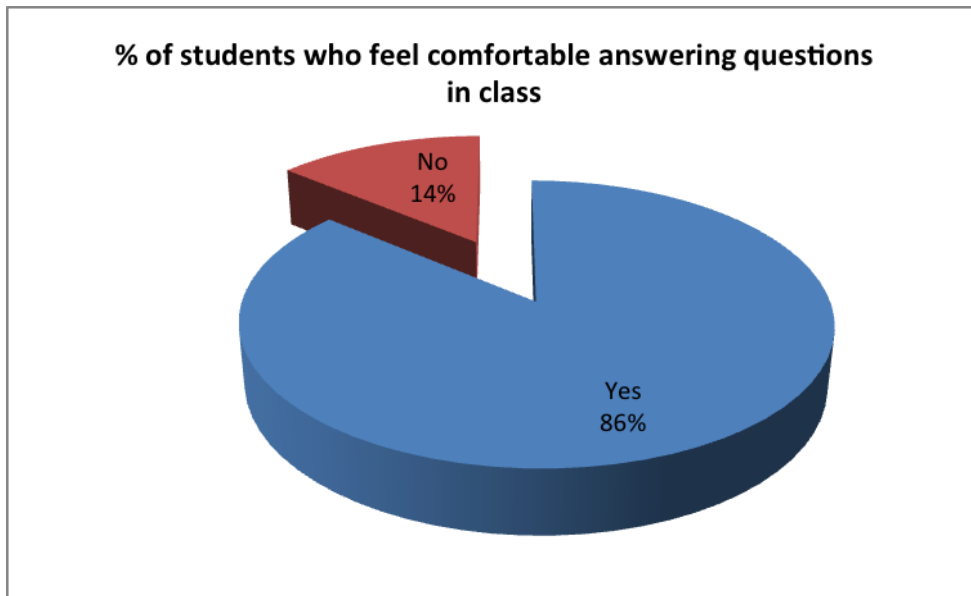
On average, the form 4 students formed the largest proportion of respondents who experienced psychological abuse, followed by form 2's, then form 3's and finally form 1's.

Figure 17: comparison of the different form of psychological abuse by students' form



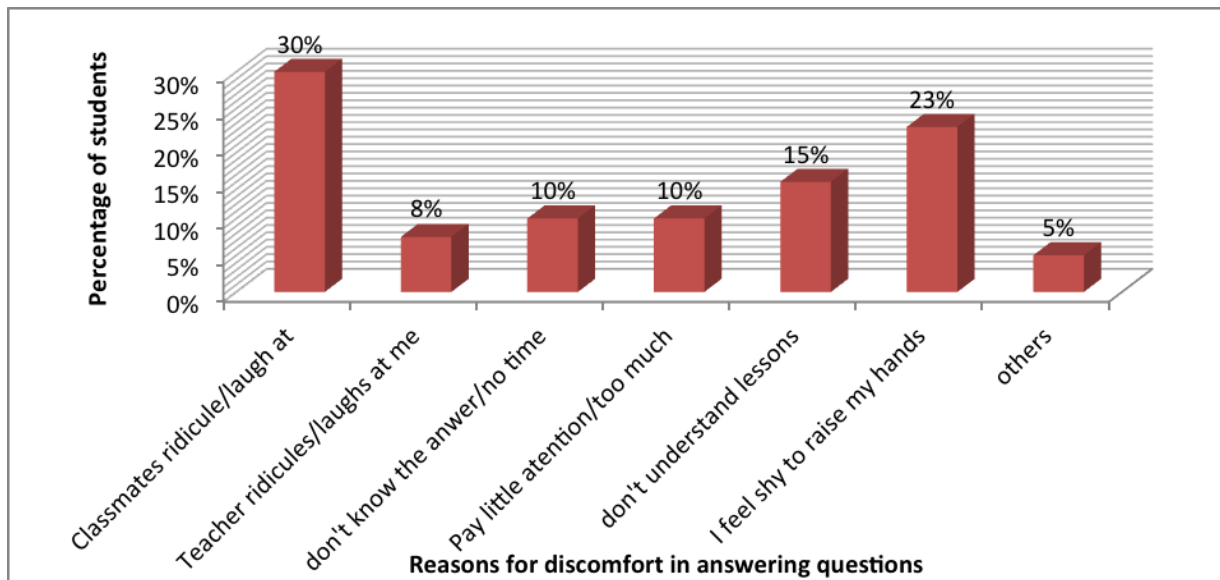
4.4 Students' perception of teachers attitudes towards them in single and mixed sex schools

Figure 18: Per cent distribution of students who are comfortable answering questions



On whether students felt comfortable to participate in class academic activities, from figure 19 above, 86% of the respondents reported to being comfortable in answering questions in class.

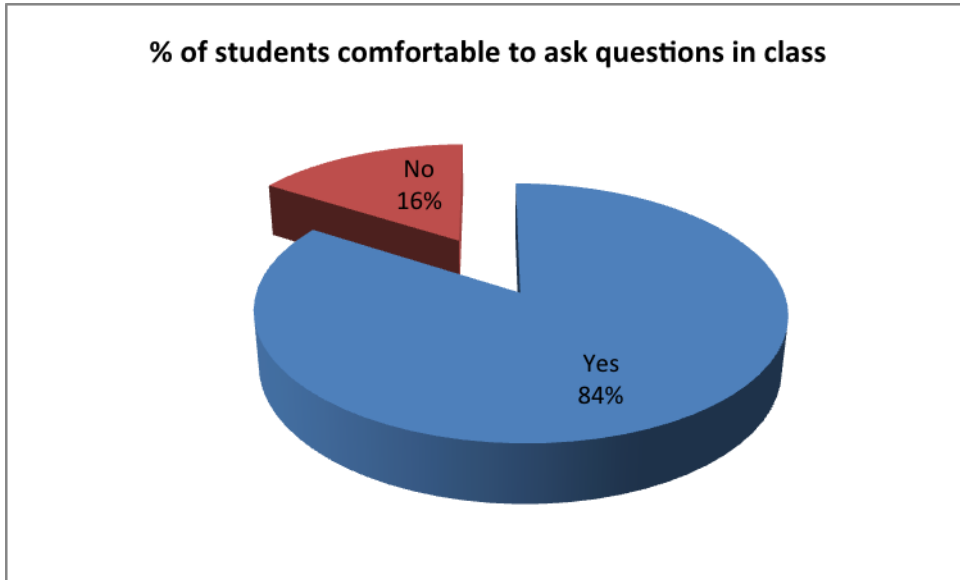
Figure 19: Per cent distribution of reasons for discomfort in answering questions



Out of those who reported to being uncomfortable in answering questions in class, low self-esteem was the main reason i.e. the two main reasons as shown in figure 19 above were:

- i. My classmates ridicule/laugh at me- 30%
- ii. I feel shy to raise my hand- 23%

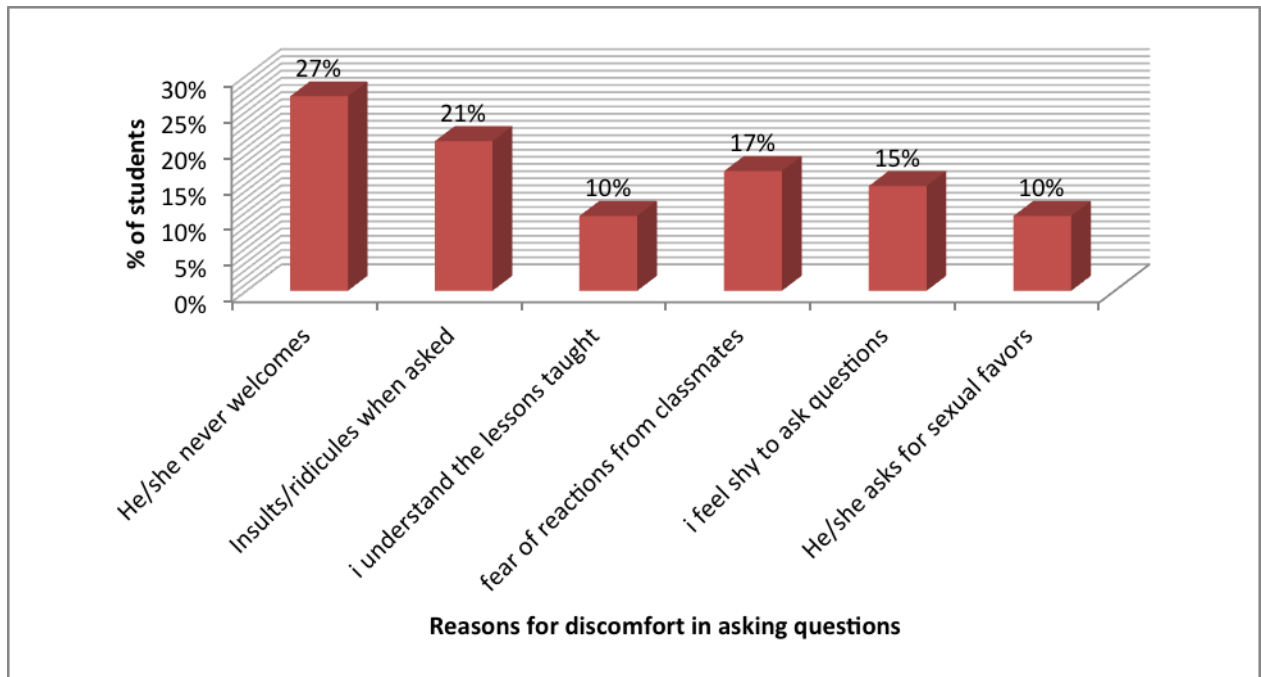
Figure 20: Per cent distribution of students comfortable in asking questions



84% of the students said they are comfortable asking questions as shown in figure 20 above. The researcher also sought to find out why the 16% of respondents found it difficult to ask the teacher questions in class and the top most reasons were as follows and as shown in figure 21 below:

- i. The teacher does not welcome questions
- ii. The teacher insults/ridicules when asked
- iii. Fear of reaction from classmates

Figure 21: Per cent distribution of reasons for discomfort on asking questions



These findings indicate that the social environment is very important in creating a favourable environment for students to feel comfortable in class and thereby learn. The researcher probed further to find out what the students' thought of teachers **maintaining discipline in school through corporal punishment** (Table 11 below); majority of the respondents were against corporal punishment; majority indicated that it is not okay for either of the sexes to be whipped neither is it okay for them to be given hard punishment e.g. chopping wood, digging etc. While majority were against corporal punishment, 45.8 indicated that there was partiality while punishing i.e. the same punishment wasn't given to both sexes. This question was directed towards the mixed sex schools only

On the question **sexual relationships** in school, as shown in table 11 below, 28.2 of the respondents indicated they have heard of teacher-student relationships in school. Majority of the respondents also indicated that it is not either the boy or the girl's fault if they receive a love letter from a teacher of the opposite sex. Table 5 below shows a summary of the findings

Table 11: Per cent distribution of students' perceptions on teachers' attitudes

Statement	Response		
	Yes	No	I Don't know
It is ok for teachers to whip boys to maintain discipline in class	31.2	57.3	11.5
It is ok for teachers to whip girls to maintain discipline in class	23.7	65.7	10.7
It is ok for teachers to ask boys to do hard physical punishment	9.4	87.6	3.0
It is ok for teachers to ask girls to do hard physical punishment	6.1	90.9	3.0
Have you heard of teacher-student sexual relationships in your school	28.2	71.8	0.0
It is the boys fault if he receives a love letter from a female teacher	10.8	79.5	9.8
It is the girls fault if she receives a love letter from a male teacher	24.0	66.8	9.2
Both boys and girls receive the same punishment at school from the teachers	31.7	45.8	22.5

On corporal punishment, from figure 22 and 23 below it was unanimous from all types of schools that neither of the sexes should be whipped in school. There was however a significant percentage in girls' schools and mixed schools that responded it is okay to whip boys to maintain discipline i.e. 39.0 in girls' schools and another 38.0 in mixed sex schools.

Figure 22: Per cent distribution of students' views on whipping (Is it ok for teachers to whip boys)

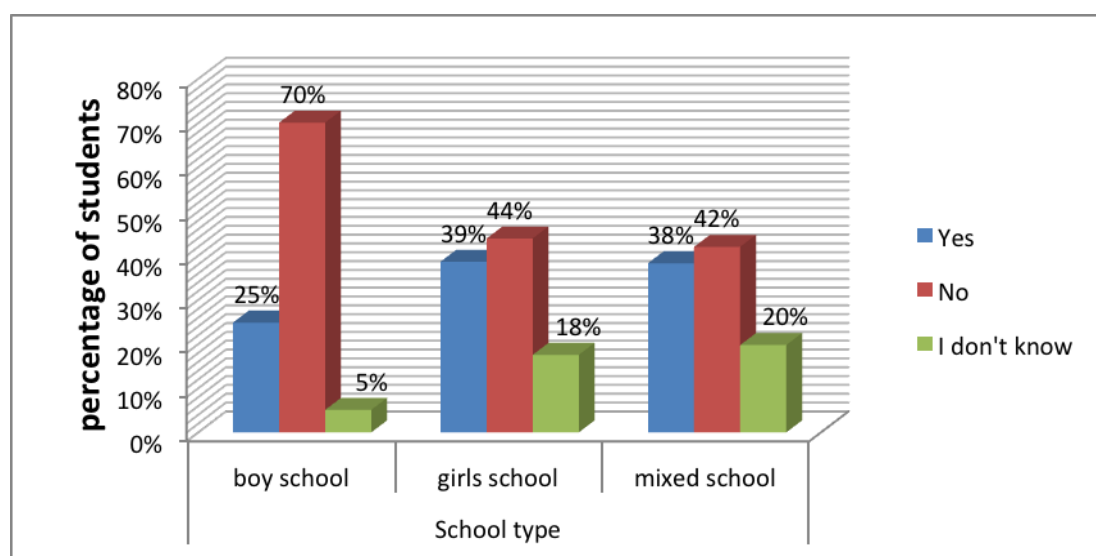
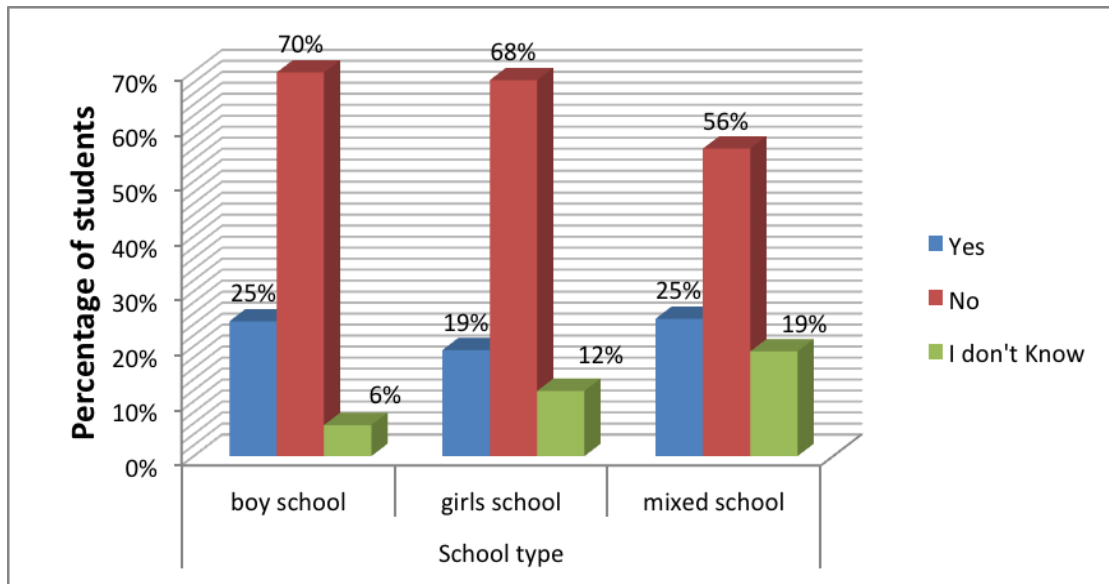
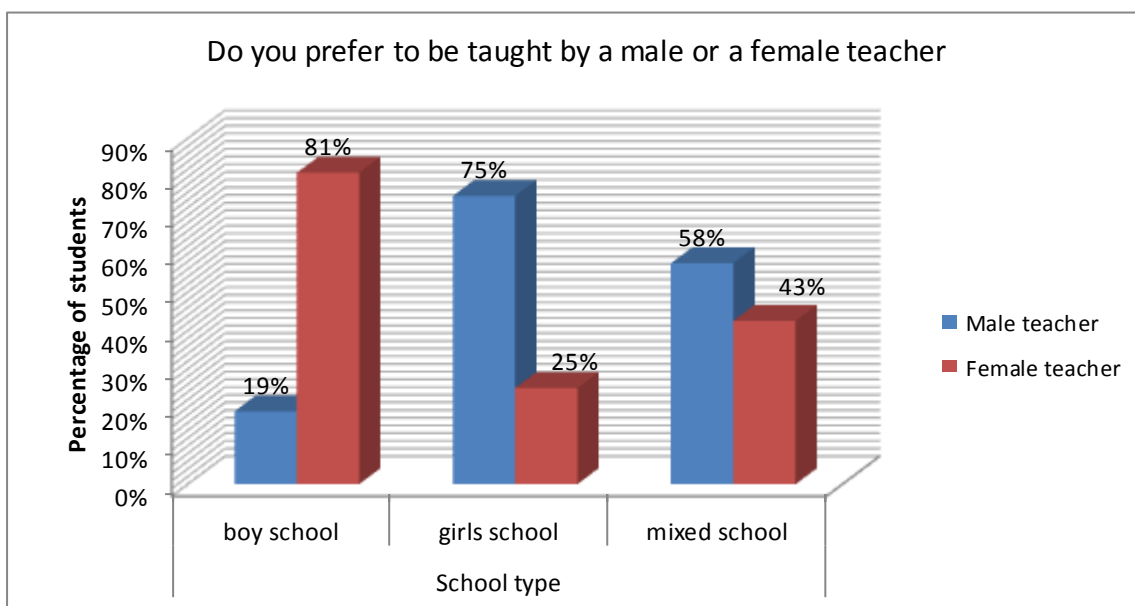


Figure 23: Per cent distribution of students' views on whipping (Is it ok for teachers to whip girls)



4.4.1 Teacher preference among students

Figure 24: Per cent distribution of teacher preference among students

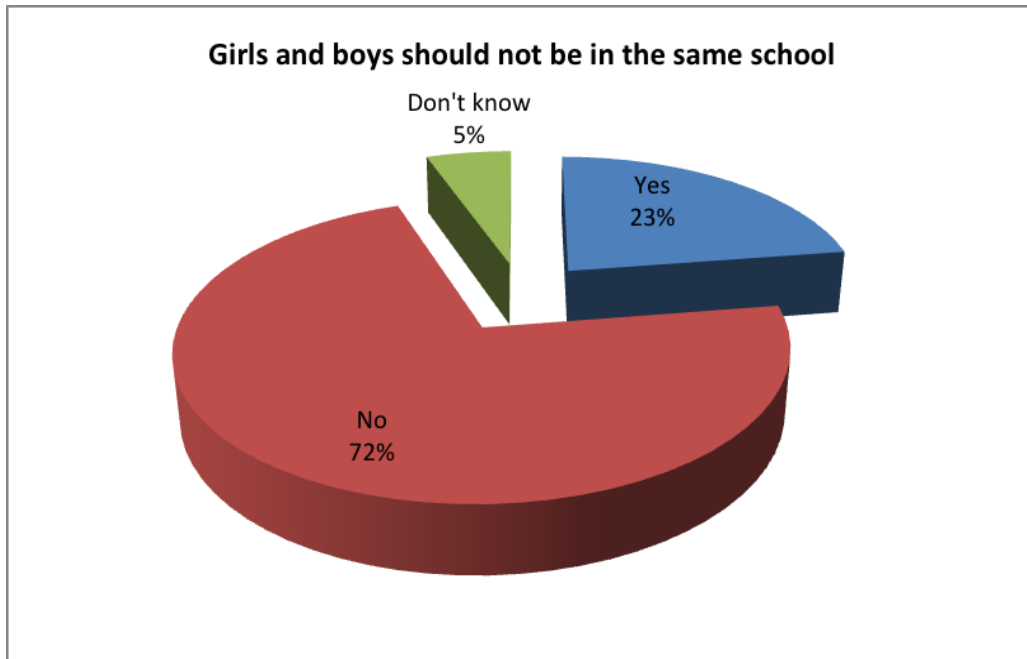


From figure 24 above, it shows that boy schools preferred to be taught by female teachers while the girl schools preferred to be taught by male teachers. The mixed schools preferred male teachers as well although the difference was not as huge as that of the single sex schools. Is it possible that due to minimal presence of the opposite sex, the male students

would naturally prefer the presence of female teachers while the female students prefer that of the male teachers? Or could it be that teachers are kinder to students of the opposite sex therefore creating liking from the students?

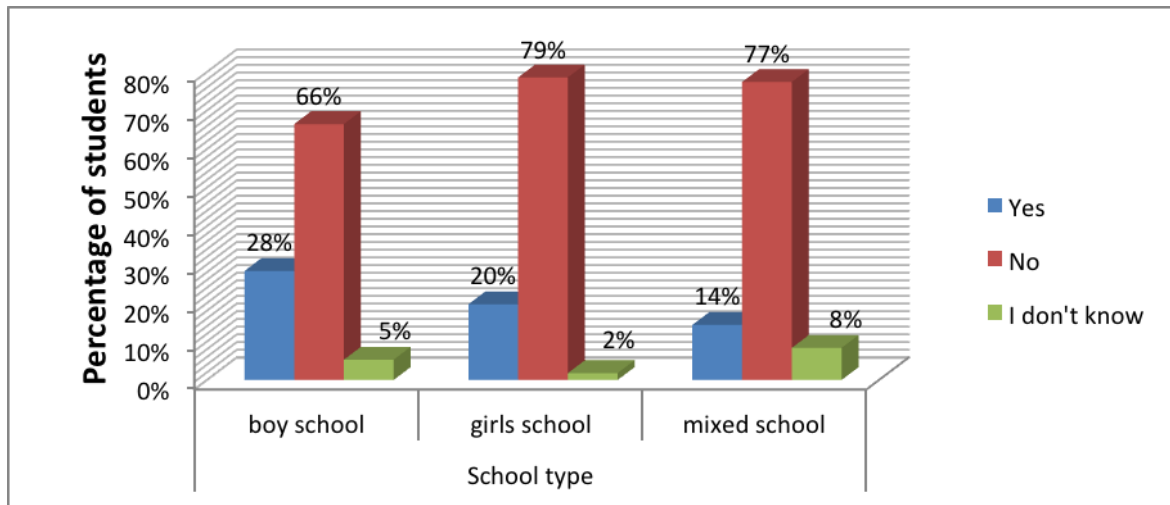
4.4.2 Students' views on their preference between single sex vs. mixed sex schools

Figure 25 : Per cent distribution of students' view on single sex vs. mixed sex schools



The researcher sought to find out the students' opinion on whether both boys and girls should not be in the same school; as shown in figure 25 above, only 23.0 said that the sexes should not be in the same school. 72.0 of the respondents were on the opinion that both sexes should be in the same school. The question therefore is that, is this voice that can be listened to and trusted to make the right decision? Is this invoice part of the process in making policy or is it ignored? Should the students' voice be considered in making education policies?

Figure 26: Per cent distribution on Students’ responses on whether girls and boys should not be in the same school



As shown in figure 26 above, out of those that were in favour of mixed sex school, 66.0 were from boys’ schools; 79.0 from girls’ schools and 77.0 from mixed sex schools.

The researcher also sought to find out why the 23.0 (figure 25) were in favour of separation of the sexes. The responses were as shown in figure 27 below. The top 3 reasons were as follows:

- i. Girls distract attention to learning
- ii. Boys fight over girls
- iii. High incidence of rape/sexual assault

The above reasons are indication of gender concerns and power dynamics in school.

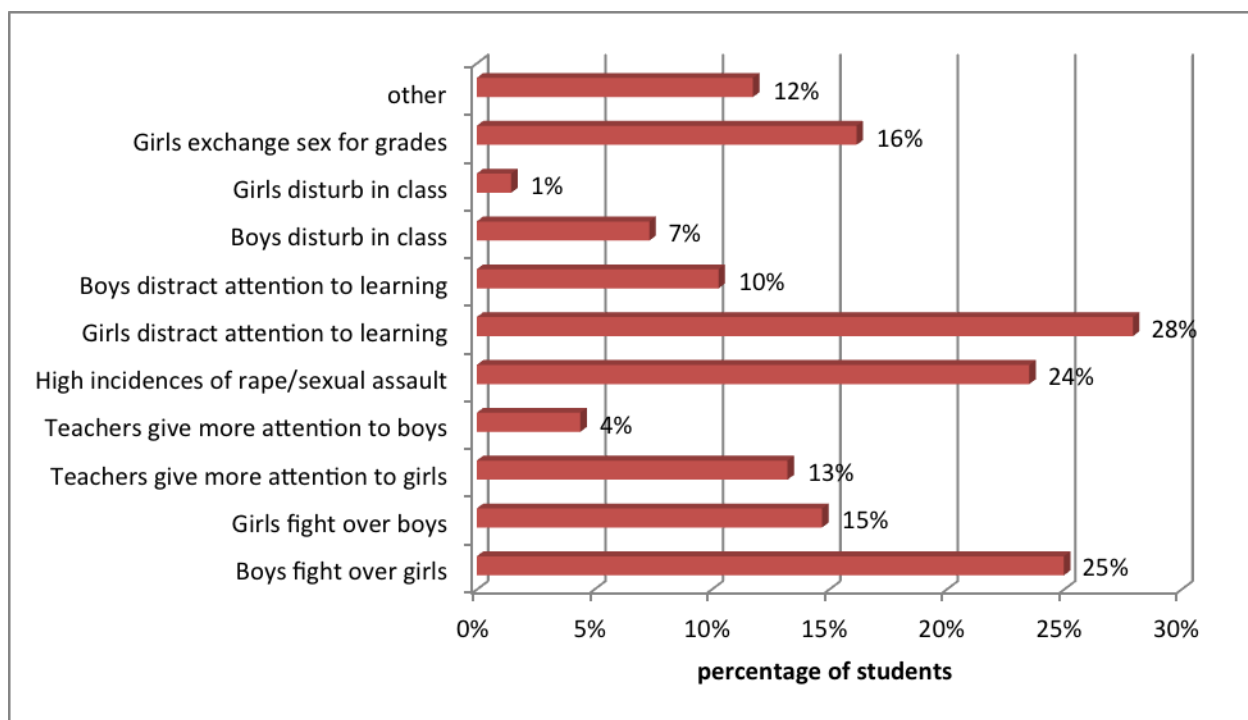
From the teachers, when asked reasons for separating the sexes, these were their responses:

“I think girls are more hit by adolescents than boys” Female teacher-girls school

“...girls were not concentrating, girls were aaah, ok, they were shy, were not able to answer questions in class, they were very self-conscious, so we thought we were doing a disservice to them by putting them in the same class...” Male teacher-boys’ school

While students are in favour of mixed sex schooling system, the teacher had a different observation.

Figure 27: Per cent distribution of the reasons for separating the sexes



4.5 Gender perceptions among students in single and mixed sex schools

4.5.1 Perceptions towards the opposite sex

The researcher further sought to find out the perceptions of the students towards the opposite sex. The table below shows their responses to the various statements asked

Table 12: Percentage distribution of perceptions towards the opposite sex

	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
1.	A boy sometimes needs to beat a girlfriend who misbehaves	19.4	73.5	7.1
2.	A girl sometimes needs to beat a boyfriend who misbehaves	12.9	78.1	9.0
3.	Students calling fellow students names doesn't really hurt them	34.2	56.8	9.0
4.	Teachers calling students names doesn't really hurt them	23.7	74.2	2.0
5.	A boy can continue sending love letters to a girl even if she refuses the boy's proposal for a relationship	37.0	53.8	9.2

6.	It is ok for a boy to tell a girlfriend whom to chat with or not	22.7	68.9	8.4
7.	It is ok for a girl to tell a boyfriend whom to chat with or not	20.1	73.2	6.7
8.	It is sometimes the girls fault if a male student or teacher sexually harasses her	42.1	46.1	11.8
9.	It is sometimes the boys fault if a female student or teacher sexually harasses him	24.1	63.0	12.9
10.	Girls like it when boys touch or grab their breast or buttocks	51.8	35.3	12.9
11.	Boys like it when girls touch or grab their genitals or buttocks	41.9	43.8	14.3
12.	It is ok for a teacher to impregnate a girl as long as he marries her	11.1	82.0	6.9
13.	Teachers who have sexual relationships with students should be dismissed and not allowed to teach again	77.8	18.6	3.5

On the question of physical violence towards the opposite sex (Statement 1 & 2 in table 12), majority of the respondents were against it (73.5 & 78.1 respectively). The respondents further indicated that none of the sexes should dictate to their girlfriend or boyfriend on what to do (statement 6&7 in table 7). From the findings in table 12 above, 42.1 agreed that it is sometimes a girls fault if she is sexually harassed, while only 24.1 agreed that it is the sometimes the boy's fault if he is sexually harassed showing a sharp contrast in perception towards the opposite sex.

Table 13: Per cent distribution of students' perception on girls' sexual harassment against school type

School sex * Girls fault if sexually harassed Cross tabulation					
		Girls fault if sexually harassed			Total
		Agree	Disagree	Don't know	
school sex	Single sex	42.5	43.0	14.5	100.0
	Mixed sex	41.0	54.2	4.8	100.0
% of Total		42.1	46.1	11.8	100.0

Notably, there was a clear difference in mixed schools between those who agreed (41.0) and disagreed (54.2) it is the girls fault while in the single sex schools there wasn't a huge margin

difference between those who agree (42.5) and those who disagree (43.0). Mixed school seemed to appreciate the opposite sex more and understands gender issues more as compared to the single sex schools

Table 14: Per cent distribution of students’ perception on boys’ sexual harassment against school type

School sex * Boys fault if sexually harassed Cross tabulation					
		Boys fault if sexually harassed			Total
		Agree	Disagree	Don't know	
School sex	Single sex	24.9	60.2	14.9	100.0
	Mixed sex	22.9	69.9	7.2	100.0
% of Total		24.3	62.8	12.8	100.0

However when it comes to the respondents view on whether it’s the boys fault the margin between those who agree and disagree for both mixed and single sex schools is big (see table 14 above). The findings indicate a more consistent trend in mixed sex schools, as opposed to the single sex schools; could this imply there is a better understanding of gender concerns in mixed sex schools as opposed to the single sex schools?

Therefore, this further demonstrates that, how students perceive the girls could be dependent on whether they are in a single sex school or a mixed sex school while for the boys it may not i.e. their perception towards the boys could be independent of the school type. This implies that there are certain perceptions towards the girls from both sexes that are formed or acquired by the students as a result of being in either a single sex school or a mixed sex school. It may also imply that a lot of attention is given to the girl child as compared to the boy child and this therefore creates an avenue for shaping attitudes, perceptions and behaviours towards the girl child. This can be seen through the many programs instituted by both government and civil societies to address the plight of the girl child. This is also implied where the findings, as indicated in table 14 above, show that the female teachers and students alike were blamed more for sexual harassment. 42% of respondents agreed that it is sometimes the girls fault if a male student or teacher harasses her while 63% disagreed that it is sometimes the boys fault if a female teacher or students sexually harasses him meaning the blame is till upon the female teacher or student. A further 52% agreed that girls like to be sexually touched while 42% agreed that boys like to be sexually touched.

4.5.2 Perception towards gender norms at home and school participation

The researcher further sought to establish whether there are any differences on gender norms and perceptions. From table 15 below, the physical tasks are perceived to be a preserve of the males while the household chores are perceived to be a preserve of the females by a significant proportion of the respondents. The table 15 below shows a summary of the findings:

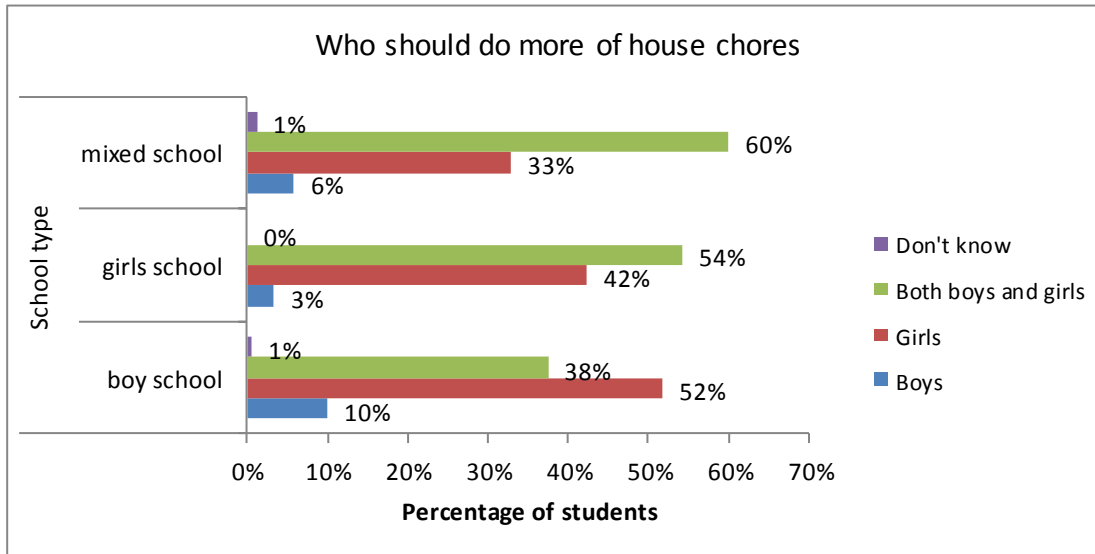
Table 15: Per cent distribution of students' perception on school participation based on sex

	Statement	Boys	Girls	Both boys and girls	Don't know
1.	Who do you think is the most intelligent	22.8	9.9	62.2	5.1
2.	Who should help the family the most with house work?	7.7	44.9	46.8	0.6
3.	Who should help the family the most with household chores?	4.5	49.7	44.8	1.0
4.	For whom is it more important to go to school?	9.4	1.9	87.4	1.3
5.	Who should help more in carrying out school chores such as cleaning classrooms, and toilets	7.8	14.7	68.0	9.5
6.	Who should help more in carrying out school chores such as slashing?	43.5	4.5	36.4	15.6
7.	Who should be given preference to desks and other school materials?	9.4	2.0	77.9	10.7

4.5.2.1 House chores

From the figure 28 below, majority of respondents from boy schools (52%) are of the opinion that more of the house chores should be done by the girls while 42% from the girl school are of the opinion that more of the house chores should be done by the girls. Majority (60%) of those who said house chores should be done by both girls and boys were from mixed sex schools.

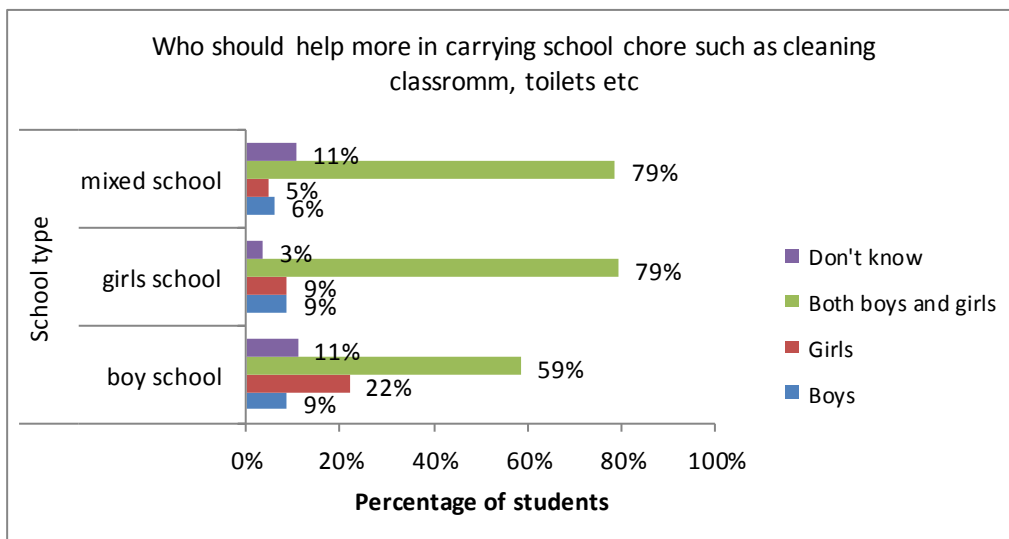
Figure 28: Per cent distribution of student's perception on who should do house chores against school type



4.5.2.2 School chores; cleaning roles

When it comes to cleaning roles in school, majority of the respondents were of the opinion that both boys and girls should participate in cleaning classrooms and toilets as shown in the figure 29 below

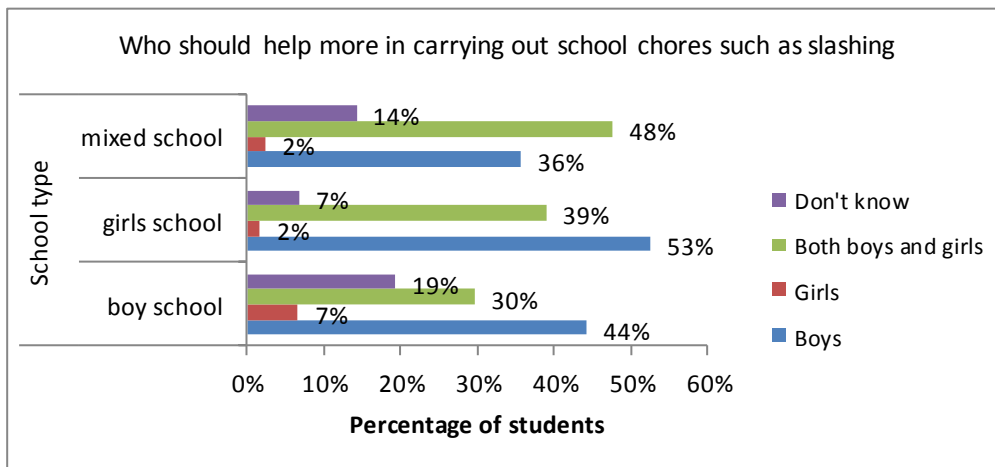
Figure 29: Per cent distribution of student's perception on who should do school chores against school type; cleaning roles



4.5.2.3 School chores; slashing

While there was consensus among the respondents that cleaning roles should be done by both boys and girls, when it came to the physically hard tasks like slashing, majority of the respondents from mixed schools said it should be done by both sexes, while 53% of the respondents from the girls' schools and 44% from the boys schools said it should be done by boys.

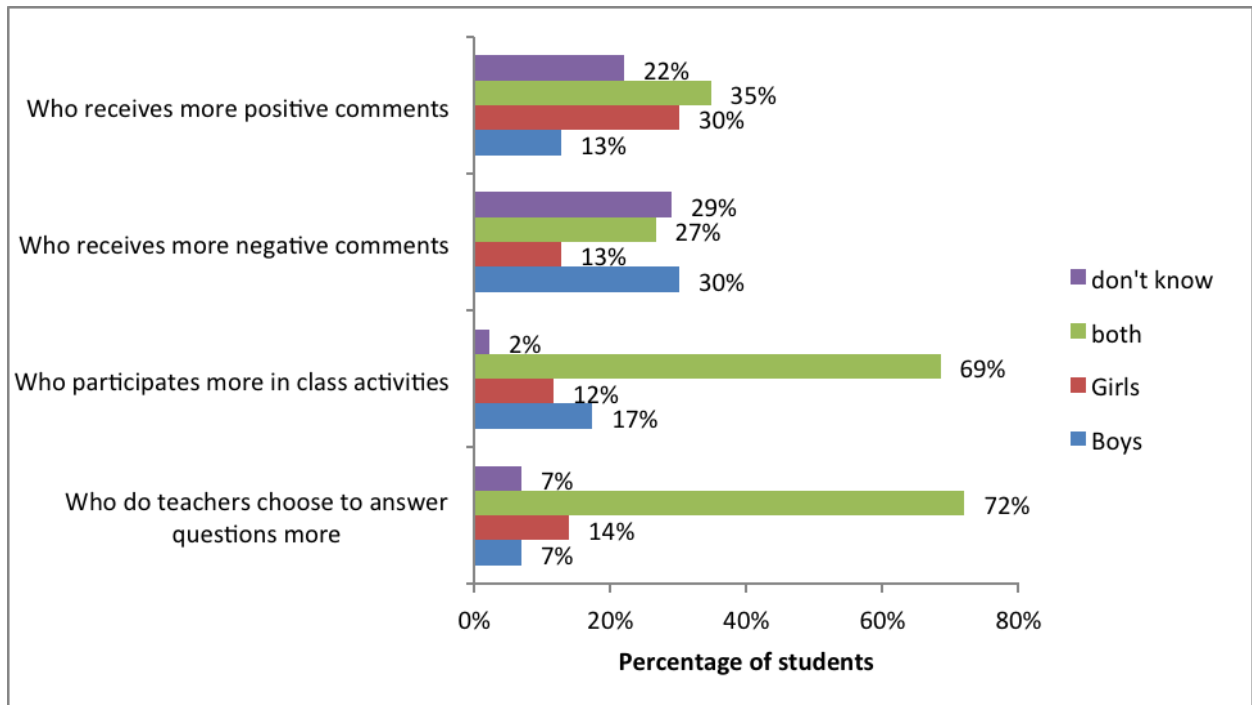
Figure 30: Per cent distribution of student's perception on who should do school chores against school type; slashing roles



4.5.3 Perception on class participation

The researcher sought to find out from respondents in mixed sex schools whether there are differences in class participation between the sexes. As shown in the figure 31 below, both boys and girls seemed to receive the same treatment; however, boys seemed to be the recipients of more negative comments.

Figure 31: Per cent distribution of students' perception on class participation in mixed sex schools



4.5.4 Perception on gender norms

From Table 16 below, almost all respondents agree generally on equal treatment among the sexes in all spheres i.e. job, opportunities, government representation, assets acquisition etc. this shows great progress in according equal opportunities to both sexes in all spheres of human life

Table 16: Per cent distribution of students' perception on gender norms

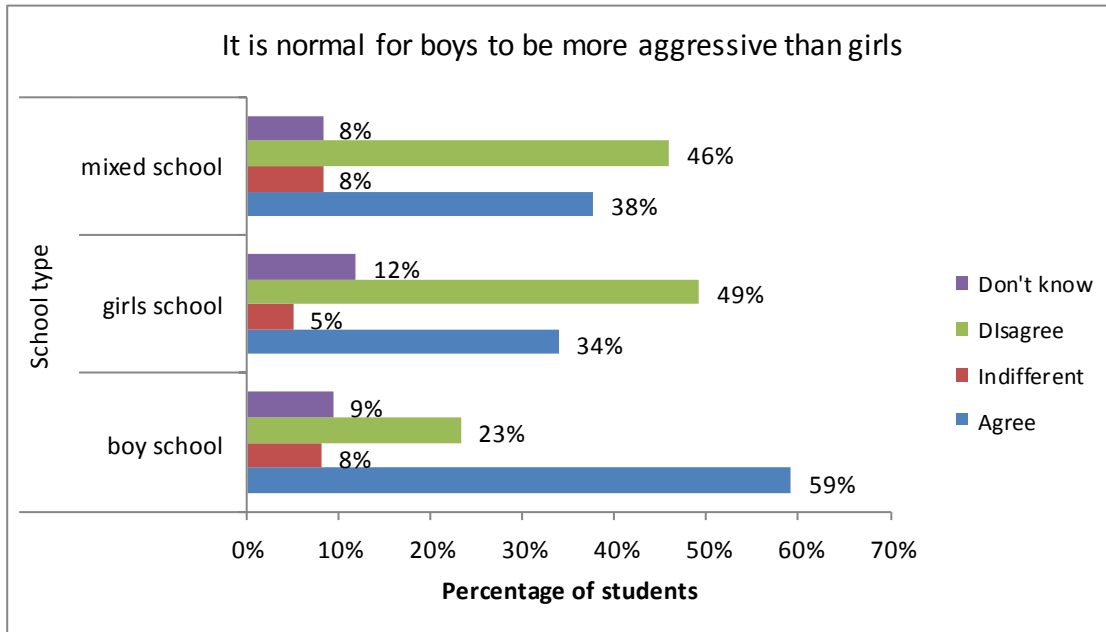
	Statements	Agree	Indifferent	Disagree	Don't know
1	Girls and boys should be treated equally in school	94.8	1.0	3.3	1.0
2	Girls and boys should be treated equally within the family	95.0	0.3	4.0	0.7
3	Girls and boys should be treated equally in the community	92.5	1.6	4.9	1.0
4	Girls and boys should have the same job opportunities	70.4	9.5	17.4	2.6

5	Men and women should be equally represented in the local government and national parliament	84.9	3.3	9.2	2.6
6	Men and women should have equal access to land, houses, and credit facilities	78.8	4.6	12.4	4.2
7	It is normal for boys to be more aggressive than girls	48.0	7.6	34.8	9.6
8	It is normal when young people tease each other in a sexual way	42.2	3.3	45.9	8.6
9	Girls should be allowed in school if they are pregnant	36.2	7.6	40.9	15.3
10	If a male student impregnates a female student, the male student should leave school	33.8	4.3	49.0	12.9
11	It is the boy's fault if he receives a love proposal from a female student?	15.2	6.1	69.3	9.5
12	It is the girl's fault if she receives a love proposal from a male student?	24.7	4.7	62.5	8.0

From the table above, 48.0 of the respondents were in agreement that aggression is normal for boys while another 34.8 disagreed. This also shows why the boys faced more aggressive measures and physical violence as compared to the girls.

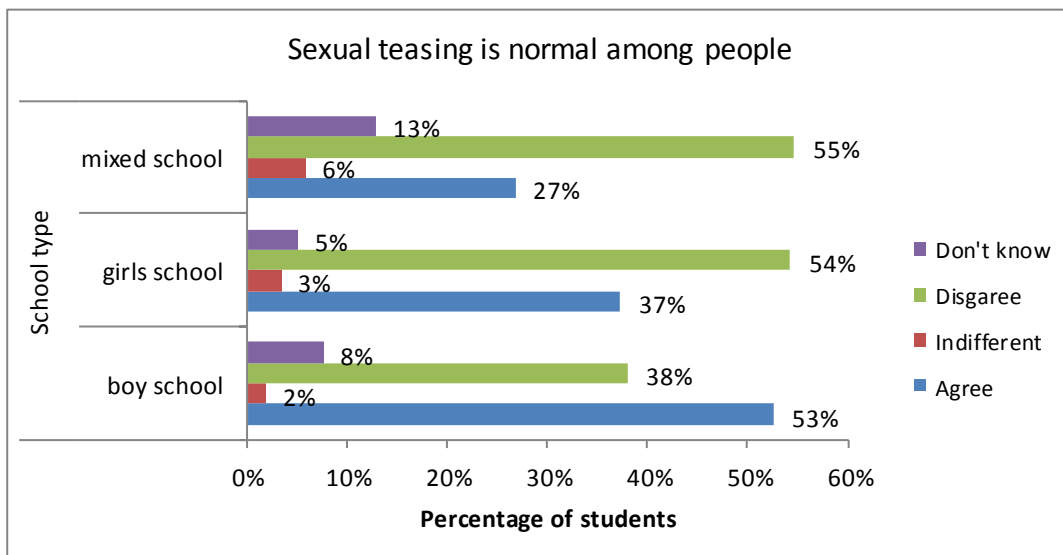
There was also a small difference between those who agreed (42.2) that it is normal for young people to tease each other in a sexual way and those who disagreed (45.9). This could be the genesis of gender discrimination and biases when people do not associate behaviours that do not seem harmful with future repercussions. This also plays out when respondents were asked whether girls should be allowed in school if they are pregnant; 36.2 agreed while 40.9 disagreed. On whether a male student who impregnates a girl should leave school, 33.8 responded yes while 49.0 disagreed.

Figure 32: Per cent distribution of students' perception on boys' aggression against school type



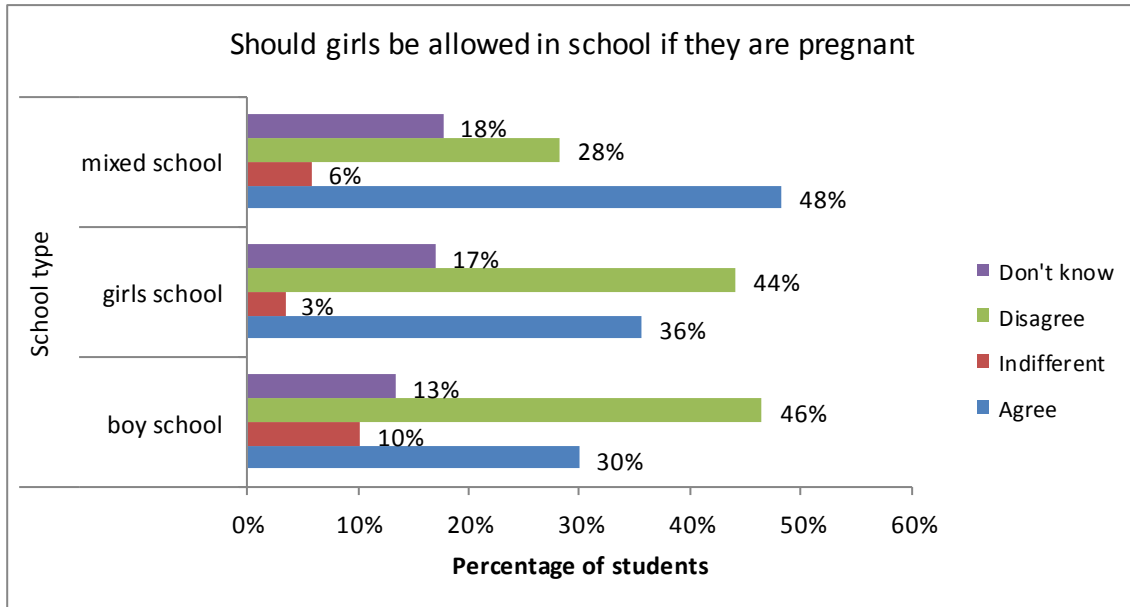
Out of the respondents who said it is normal for boys to be more aggressive than girls, 59% were from single sex boy schools, 34% from girls' schools and 38% from mixed schools. Again respondents from boy school demonstrate very strong opinions.

Figure 33: Per cent distribution of students' perception on sexual teasing among young people by school type



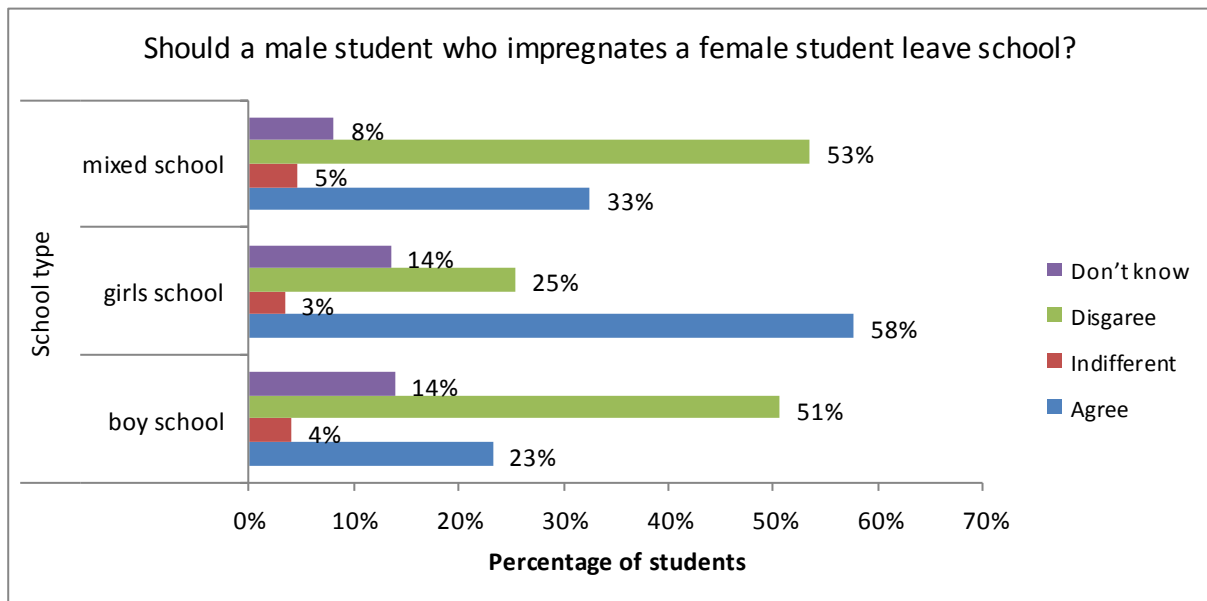
On sexual teasing, again majority of those who said it is normal for young people to tease each other sexually, 53% were from boy schools, majority of those who disagreed were from mixed sex schools. The figure 33 above shows the comparison

Figure 34: Per cent distribution of students' perception on pregnancy among school going girls



From figure 34 above, it is only in the mixed schools that majority of the respondents (48%) agreed that pregnant school girls should be allowed in school. Respondents from the single sex schools were against pregnant school girls being allowed in school.

Figure 35: Per cent distribution of students perception on male students who impregnates a female student

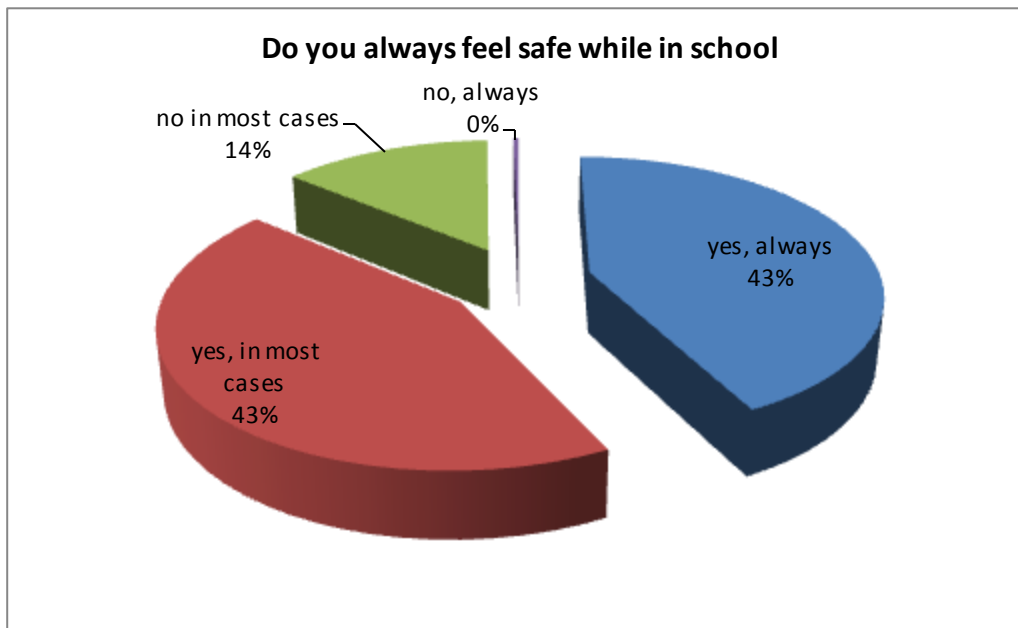


When the respondents were asked whether the male students who impregnates a school girl should leave schools, 58% of the respondents from the girl schools agreed that the male students should leave school, while 53% from mixed schools and 51% from boy schools said the male student should not leave school as shown in the figure above

4.6 Students' opinion on a safe school environment

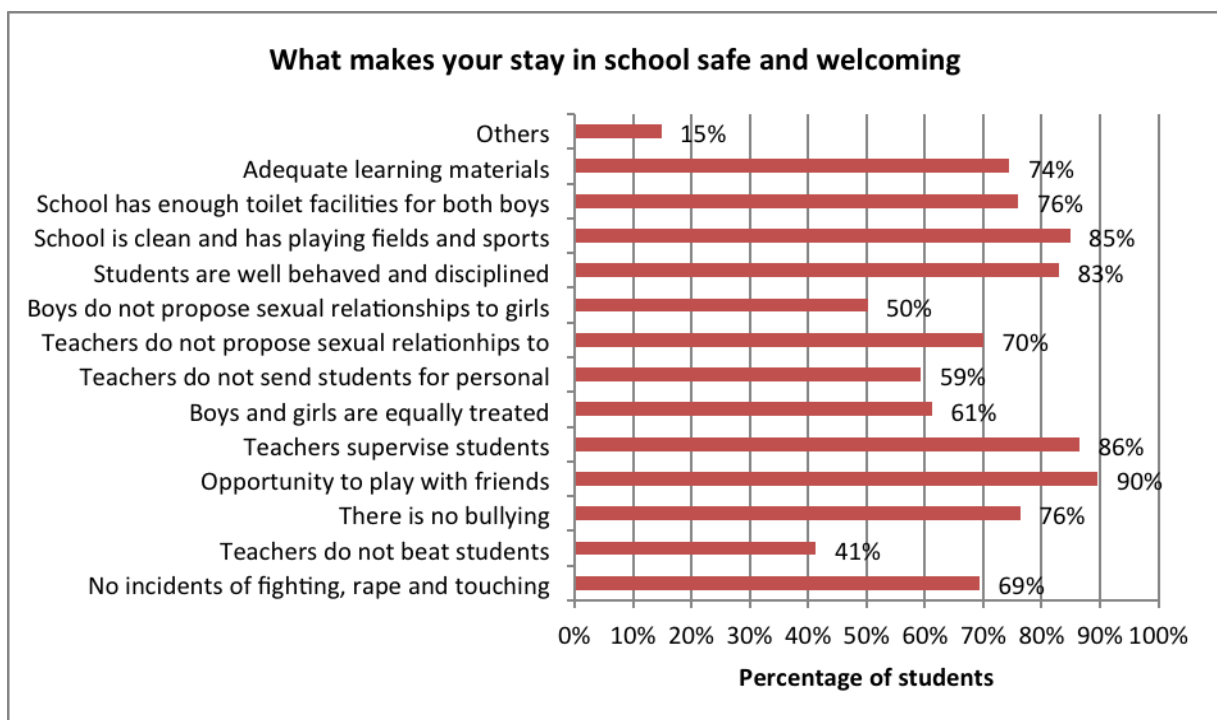
The researcher sought to find out whether the respondents feel safe while in school; 86% said they feel safe with 43% saying they always feel safe as shown in figure 34 below

Figure 36: Per cent of students who feel safe in school



The researcher also sought to find out from the respondents what makes their stay in school safe and welcoming as shown below

Figure 37: Per cent distribution of reasons on what makes the students' stay in school safe and welcoming



As indicated in the figure 37 above, the top 3 reasons that students gave as what makes their stay in school safe and welcoming was as follows:

- i. The school provides an opportunity for students to play with their friends
- ii. Teachers supervise students
- iii. School is clean and has playing field and sports material

50% of the respondents said that boys not proposing sexual relationships to girls made the school safe. 70% also said that teachers not proposing sexual relationships to students would make the school safe. This is an indication that gender concerns plays a huge role in making students feel safe in school. Another indication is that 61% said equal treatment for both boys and girls makes the school safe and welcoming.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section provides a summary of the findings, discussions conclusions and recommendations of the study. The section highlights some of the emerging issues from the study and areas of further research to add into the body of knowledge on the relationship, influences and effects of the schools type and gender based discrimination and violence.

5.1 Forms and patterns of gender based discrimination

5.1.1 Single sex schools

From the study the following findings emerged with regards to single sex schools

- a. All forms of physical abuse (slapped or shoved, hit with an object, beaten/kicked, threatened using an object, bullied) were experienced the most in single sex boys' schools.
- b. Physical abuse and aggression was least in single sex girls' schools.
- c. There was no relationship found between students' perception on boys' aggression and the school type (mixed sex or single sex)
- d. Psychological abuses occurred more in single sex girl schools as compared to boy schools. It however had the most occurrences in mixed sex schools.

The Frustration-Aggression hypothesis (Miller Bollard et al, 1939) is crucial in explaining the causes of aggression and explaining this phenomenon. This theory briefly holds that frustration produces aggression, which acts as a drive or motive to react, combat or make attacks. If a powerful person like an older student or the teacher produces the frustration, the aggressive reaction is inhibited. For example, if a student who wants to engage or has engaged in a particular activity is strongly objected to by a teacher or older student, he inhibits his aggression towards the teacher/older student and withdraws from the activity. But when a younger student questions him about the activity, he immediately shouts at him and sometimes may be violent (slap, shove, kick, threaten etc.). Thus those who are considered weak and /or less powerful become suitable targets of aggression and hence become the scapegoats for the frustrated students who are seemingly more powerful.

Bandura (1965) has demonstrated that aggressive responses can be learned by reinforcement or by imitation or by modeling. In a study on nursery school children it was observed that when an adult showed various forms of aggressive responses towards a large doll, the children showed similar aggressive responses through imitation. It is believed most boys grow knowing that boys/men should be aggressive even before joining school and could probably be the reason as to why there was no relationship found between students' perception on boys' aggression and the school type. As shown in the study, 48% of respondents agreed that it is normal for boys to be more aggressive than girls. This could be attributed to behavior they observed among the adults as they grew up and that's why more aggression is observed in boy schools and mixed schools. On this basis alone, it would appear that it is preferable for the girls to be separated from the boys to ensure they are not affected by the boys' aggression, but would doing this then confirm to the girls that it is acceptable for boys to be more aggressive? Would this lead to them resigning to fate when faced with violent relationships because the school system made them believe that it is normal for men to be aggressive?

5.1.2 Mixed sex schools

From the study the following was the findings in relation to mixed sex schools:

- a. All forms of sexual abuse occurred more among students in the mixed sex schools with the exception of attempted/threatened with rape, which had the most occurrences in single sex schools
- b. Psychological abuses occurred more in mixed schools followed by single sex girl schools with the exception of sexual comments.

Would a mixed sex school provide an avenue to relearn some of the stereotypes obtained while growing up? Would it create an environment of respect among the different sexes? These are questions that educationists and policy makers should consider while setting policies to govern secondary education.

5.2 Gender Perception towards the opposite sex

From the study, hard physical tasks e.g. slashing both in school and at home are perceived to be a preserve of the boys while the household chores and lighter physical tasks e.g. cleaning

class rooms are perceived to be a preserve of the girls. Below is a discussion on the findings based on the school type

5.2.1 Single sex schools

There was a huge disparity and inconsistency in single sex schools when asked on their perceptions toward the opposite sex e.g. there was only a 0.5 per cent margin between those who agree (42.5) and those who disagree (43.0) on whether it's the girl's fault when she is sexually harassed. The study further found out that:

- a. Student's perception of the girls depends on the school type i.e. whether they are in a single sex school or a mixed sex school
- b. Students' perception of the boys is independent of the school type.
- c. Students prefer to learn together as opposed to separating them

This demonstrates that there are certain perceptions towards the girls from both sexes that are formed or acquired by the students as a result of being in either a single sex school or a mixed sex school. It may also affirm that as a result of much attention accorded to the girl child as compared to the boy child, an avenue for shaping attitudes, perceptions and behaviours towards the girl child was created. This can be seen through the many programs instituted by both government and civil societies to address the plight of the girl child at the expense of the boy child. Growing in such environment would most likely lead to behaviour formation that may either be gender biased or not

5.2.2 Mixed sex schools

Mixed schools seemed to appreciate the opposite sex more and demonstrated understanding of gender issues more as compared to the single sex schools e.g. In mixed sex schools, 60% said both boys and girls should do household chores. This was also observed with regard to school chores in that while there was consensus among the respondents that cleaning roles should be done by both boys and girls, when it came to the physically hard tasks like slashing, majority of the respondents from mixed schools said it should be done by both sexes, while 53% of the respondents from the girls' schools and 44% from the boys schools said it should be done by boys. This could be attributed to gender socialization and/or gender role development occurring knowingly or unknowingly through students and teachers within the school set-up. The findings in this study indicate a more consistent trend in mixed sex

schools with regards to gender perceptions, as opposed to the single sex schools; could this imply there is a better understanding of gender concerns in mixed sex schools as opposed to the single sex schools?

Notably though, mixed sex schools seemed to be more egalitarian as compared to the single sex schools. It therefore seems that girls and boys are socialized in ways that seem to promote gender equity in mixed sex schools as compared to single sex schools. This however is an area of further study to be able to identify exactly what factors contribute to this result, is it an influence of the teachers, or curriculum etc.

5.3 Students' perception on teachers' attitudes towards them

The study found out the following:

- a. According to the students, teachers were more aggressive towards the boys than girls
- b. There is a relationship between who the students prefer to teach them and school type
i.e. male students prefer female teachers while female students prefer male teachers.

Findings from this study indicate that the social environment is very important in creating a favourable environment for students to feel comfortable in class and thereby learn. The study also showed that teachers were more aggressive towards the boys than girls, probably again because girls are perceived to be the weaker sex and therefore teachers are more lenient. This type of response further entrenches gender-based discrimination where one sex is favored more than the other based simply on sex instead on approaching every individual situation differently.

Power relations also came into play and this was evident when students were asked why they do not either ask or answer questions in class, they said they were shy or afraid of what the teacher will say, or how the other students will react towards them. The socialization of gender within our schools assures that students are made aware that they are unequal for example, every time students are seated or lined up by gender, teachers are affirming that girls and boys should be treated differently

The study further established that there is a relationship between who the students prefer to teach them and school type i.e. male students prefer female teachers while female students prefer male teachers. This could be because teachers are generally unaware of their own biased teaching behaviours because they are simply teaching how they were taught to and the

subtle gender inequities found in teaching materials are often overlooked. Girls and boys today could be receiving separate and unequal educations due to the gender socialization that takes place in our schools and due to the sexist hidden curriculum students are faced with every day. Unless teachers are made aware of the gender-role socialization and the biased messages they are unintentionally imparting to students every day, and until teachers are provided with the methods and resources necessary to eliminate gender-bias in their classrooms, girls and boys alike, will continue to receive an inequitable education. For example, when an administrator ignores an act of sexual harassment, he or she is allowing the degradation of girls. When different behaviours are tolerated for boys than for girls because 'boys will be boys', schools are perpetuating the oppression of females.

5.4 Gender role socialization

Gender role socialization refers to a process where individuals learn the socially accepted norms and values of their gender roles. Since a very young age, children are immersed in this process of socialization through their family, schools, and the media. This is where they learn through observation on gender roles i.e. who does house chores, mows the grass, cleans the house etc. Understanding this and mapping the students' perceptions of gender roles is a crucial first step prior to designing policy initiatives targeting gender equity in schools. Such finding, indicating divergent attitudes to gender roles among the boys and girls, are indicative of future conflicts in gender relations. Policies designed to promote egalitarianism among school students should continue to strive to affect changes in gender roles socialisation in the home and investigate ways to promote gender equity particularly among boys and within the school curriculum.

Also to note is that the students prefer to learn together as opposed to separating them. 72% of the respondents were on the opinion that both sexes should be in the same school. The question therefore is that, is this voice that can be listened to and trusted to make the right decision? Is this invoice part of the process in making policy or is it ignored? Should the students' voice be considered in making education policies?

5.5 Conclusion

It is evident girls and boys experience gender based discrimination differently based on their sex. There is also an indication that the type of school may have an influence on how girls and boys view each other and their gender roles. It is therefore clear that schools should be

places that model equality and so provide young people with early experiences and knowledge of gender equality and equity, otherwise they will reproduce the unequal gender patterns that they encounter outside school in their later lives. Throughout the history of gender and education, schools have been viewed as important sites for social change and places to foster the development of more equal societies with less oppressive social conditions for men and women.

As much as single sex schools may give girls the edge in academic success because lessons can be designed to tap into girls' interests and so motivate them specifically in subjects that have masculine connotations such as the sciences, mixed sex schooling could also be seen as a route towards greater gender equality. Separating boys and girls based on sex stereotyping is potentially harmful; teaching to these stereotypes limits opportunities for both boys and girls and keeps both from learning the full range of skills necessary for future success in school, work, and life.

However, given that in most societies, gender inequalities are structural, teachers need to have enough gender awareness to prevent gendered inequalities being imperceptibly reproduced through their pedagogic practice. Hence the continuing need for all teachers to develop gender awareness.

5.6 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made with regards to further research and influencing policy and practice in the education sector

1. For education practitioners and researchers, there is need for further in-depth studies on the effects of and relationship between teaching methodology and curriculum on gender role construction in schools.
2. A similar study can be carried out in primary schools to facilitate comparison with the secondary schools. This could aide in determining where more intervention is needed based on the extent to which gender role socialization takes place. A retrospect study could also be carried out e.g. to see whether there is a relationship between inter-spousal violence and the school type the perpetrators attended

3. More intensive in-service training for teachers on their role in gender construction and skills in addressing gender based violence and discrimination in schools to prevent gendered inequalities that may be imperceptibly reproduced through their pedagogic practice

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Appendix 2: Key Informant Interview guide

Appendix 3: Ethical documents