An exploratory study of the factors contributing to school dropout among girls in Temeke district of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

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Faculty of Humanities

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to explore the factors contributing to school dropout among girls in Tembeke district of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. A qualitative exploratory study approach was adopted by using a semi-structured interview schedule of face-to-face interviews. The study involved a sample of 20 girls aged between 12 and 23 years using purposive and snowball sampling techniques.

The findings revealed that participants dropped out of school for various reasons, including lack of financial support, loss of parents, parents being sick, poor performance, pregnancy, early marriage, and rape. In addition, the findings revealed that although young girls had dropped out of school, they still aspired to pursuing further education and acquiring different skills in order for them to achieve their goals. The girls indicated that the major obstacle to achieving their dreams was a lack of sufficient money to start their own small business and pay for training and transport costs, as most vocational centres are located far from their communities. Due to these daily challenges, these girls desired more support from their communities. Most of the girls shared the concern that no one had ever shown an interest in the specific factors causing them to stop their schooling.

Based on the findings of the study, the major recommendations are for the government to provide subsidies to parents who cannot afford to support their children’s education. In addition, the government in collaboration with other stakeholders should establish skills training centres within communities so as to impart skills to young girls to enable them either to establish their own businesses or, alternatively, to find employment. Furthermore, those who intend to start their own business should be supported by access to funding and business development support services.

The study recommends that non-governmental organisations (NGOs) working in partnership with the local authorities, schools and communities should intensify their interventions aimed at addressing social issues such as early marriages and pregnancy in Temeke district. NGOs should also publicise their activities and programmes to ensure that young girls know about the different options available to them. The study also recommends that girls should be actively focused on their education and be supported to form local networks as a means of them working together to realise their dreams.
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## Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEST</td>
<td>Basic Education Statistics of Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/Aids</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSB</td>
<td>Household Budget Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOEVFT</td>
<td>Ministry of Educational and Vocational Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBS</td>
<td>National Bureau of Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSGD</td>
<td>National Strategy for Gender Development organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URT</td>
<td>United Republic of Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>VETA</td>
<td>Vocational Education and Training Authority</td>
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, location of the problem, significance of the study, research topic, main questions, key assumptions, and research objectives. Key concepts informing the study are clarified, and a discussion on the ethical considerations and on reflexivity is presented. Finally, the structure of the report is presented.

1.1 Background to the problem

Education is not only a key to liberation and to the realisation of people’s capacities and potential, but also vital to the alleviation of socio-economic problems. However, particularly in developing countries, women and girls face numerous constraints in accessing education and training at all levels. These challenges include, but are not limited to, existing social and socio-cultural attitudes which favour and promote boys’ education, and pay less attention, or attribute less worth, to the education of girls (United Republic of Tanzania, 2013, Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children). To address these challenges, the government of the United Republic of Tanzania has developed and is implementing a number of policies and programmes aimed at ensuring that the maximum number of pupils are enrolled and retained in schools.

In this context, the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF, 2011) has pointed out that the government of the United Republic of Tanzania has made significant progress in the education sector in Tanzania, with major growth in enrolment in primary and secondary schools. This is supported by Mkonongwa (2012:9), who reports that the gross enrolment ratio (GER) at primary education level in Tanzania has gone up from 84% in 2001 to 102.7% in 2011, and the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) from 65.5% in 2001 to 94.0% in 2011, almost reaching universal primary education levels.

Despite these impressive statistics, the United Republic of Tanzania, Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (2013:1) reports that many pupils, especially girls, drop out of school before completing high school. For example, while the enrolment of girls in primary schools is 50%, in secondary schools girls constitute 46% of the total enrolment. In addition,
fewer and fewer girls are enrolled in higher learning institutions (URT, 2013: I, Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children). Given this disturbing scenario, the researcher undertook a study to explore the factors that contribute to school dropout among girls in the Temeke district of Dar es Salaam. The researcher was influenced to undertake this study in Temeke due to the prevailing poor social and economic environment in the area, as there is a strong relationship between poverty and school drop-out.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although the enrollment rate of the girls in Tanzania is the same as that of boys the completion rate of the girls is much lower than those of boys. Likewise, the proportion of girls in the education system gets lower and lower as they go up the academic ladder. This is a result of the challenges which girls face throughout their education transition and inadequate support from their parents, school authorities and the community in confronting them. This is a function of both absence of sound policies and programmes favourable to promotion of girl-education in Tanzania and low awareness on the importance of education for girls to personal, community and national development.

The problems of low completion of studies and failure to pursue further studies is worse among girls from economically disadvantaged families. This suggests a correlation between poverty and the phenomenon of school drop-out especially among girls. The relatively economically deprived district of Temeke in Dar es Salaam region is a graphic representation of the twin problems of the high rate of dropping out of schools and lower uptake of further studies among girls.

Therefore, a study to explore factors contributing to school dropout among girls in Temeke district of Dar es Salaam Tanzania will help in adopting and implementing girls- based policies and programmes that will keep girls in school at least on ratios comparable to their male counterparts.
1.3 Location of the Problem

1.3.1 Background to Tanzania

The 2012 Population and Housing Census shows that Tanzania has a population of 44.9 million people, of whom 43.6 million are located on the mainland of Tanzania, while 1.3 million are in Zanzibar (National Bureau of Statistics, 2013:2). Tanzania’s economy is one of the 10 fastest growing economies in the world and has been growing at seven per cent of the GDP per annum since 2001. However, despite this economic growth income poverty declined only marginally from 35.7% in 2000/2001 to 33.6% in 2007 (United Republic of Tanzania, 2011:3). There are now 12.9 million Tanzanians who are living below the basic needs poverty line, compared with 11.4 million in 2000/01. Poverty remains overwhelmingly rural, with some 83% of individuals below the basic needs poverty line residing in rural areas. However, the general increase in the urban share of the population has also been accompanied by a rise in the share of the poor living in urban areas (United Republic of Tanzania Household Budget Survey, 2007: 12).

There are very limited formal employment opportunities in the country, particularly for youth, and especially for girls or young women. The United Republic of Tanzania (2011) indicates that adolescents are growing up in an economy that is not able to fulfil their expectations and capabilities, and one that is characterised by inadequate health care services. Economic hardship has led to the increase of high-risk situations for adolescents, such as unwanted pregnancies and early child bearing, sexually transmitted infections, drug abuse, HIV and AIDS.

The United Republic of Tanzania, Education Sector Performance Report (2012:16-18) states that the number of students who could not join further education after completing Standard VII increased from 0.22 million to 0.43 million students between 2006 and 2010. This resulted in an average of 0.4 million students who could not join Form One annually over this period. Likewise, the number of students who could not join Form Five also increased from 52,777 to 311,492 students between 2006 and 2010, which is an average of 156,309 students per annum. The report showed that a total of 41,659 Form Six school leavers either obtained Division IV or failed, and thus were not eligible to join higher education programmes. This makes an average of 64,679 students who could not join Form One, Form Five or higher education per annum. The
aforementioned figures and a consideration of the enrolment capacity of the education system are based on the United Republic of Tanzania, Education Sector Performance Report (2012:17-18).

1.3.2 Temeké District: Case study area

Temeke district is one of the three districts located in Dar es Salaam, the largest city in Tanzania. It has a population of 1.37 million, which comprises of 0.7 million females and 0.67 million males (National Bureau Statistics 2013:74). Temeké was established as a district in 1972 following the introduction of the decentralisation policy in Tanzania. Temeké district is administratively divided into three divisions and 24 wards, namely: Azimio, Chamazi, Chang’ombe, Charambé, Keko, Kigamboni, Kibada, Kimbiji, Kisarawe II, Kurasini, Makangarawe, Mbanga, Mbagala, Mbagala kuu, Miburani, Mjimwema, Mtoni, Pemba Mnazi, Sandali, Somangira, Tandika, Temeké, Toangoma, Vijibweni and Yombo vituka. This study was conducted in Temeké district because it has a far larger number of poor people compared to the other two Dar es Salaam region’s districts of Ilala and Kinondoni (Temeke Municipal Council 2011).

Temeke Municipal Council (2013:1) highlights that in collaboration with other education stakeholders, it is committed to providing high quality education services. The Council provides education services which range from pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education, vocational training and adult education. There are 114 primary schools in the Temeke Municipality with a total number of 170,477 pupils. Of these, 84,371 are boys and 86,106 are girls (Temeke Municipal Council 2013:1).

1.4 Significance of the study

In a country like Tanzania where 12.9 million people live on less than $1 a day, access to a good education can provide an opportunity for people to break the intergenerational cycle of poverty (URT, 2007:12) This cycle of poverty has been found to specifically affect a large number of women due to historical, social and cultural factors. In addition it has become increasingly evident that a high percentage of girls do not complete their education due to high drop-out rates. This is despite efforts by government, international organisations, and NGOs to improve and ensure that the rights of the girl child are realised through improved access to
primary and secondary education (Mdimi, 2011). Therefore, in exploring the factors that contribute to girls dropping out of school, this research has significantly contributed to narrowing the existing knowledge gap surrounding school drop-outs amongst girls in the Temeke district of Dar es Salaam.

In addition, by providing further insight on the possible causes of this high percentage of school drop-out rates in the district, this research has also offered a platform through which the development of specific solutions can be explored. The knowledge that has been generated has provided possible answers to policy makers and development practitioners in terms of addressing the problem of school drop-out among girls in Temeke district

1.5 Research Topic

An exploratory study of the factors contributing to school dropout amongst girls in Temeke district of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

1.6 Main Research questions

- What are young girls current circumstances?
- What kinds of support do young girls receive from parents and/or guardians, school authorities and the community with regard to their education and schooling?
- What are the experiences that young girls go through in their daily school life?
- What are the reasons young girls give for dropping out of school?
- What needs to change to reduce the school drop-out rate among girls in districts such as Temeke?

1.7 Research objectives

- To explore young girls’ current circumstances in the context of their daily lives.
- To explore the kinds of support young girls receive from parents and/or guardians and school authorities and the community with regard to their education.
- To describe the experiences that young girls go through during their daily school life.
- To find out from young girls what events or circumstances led them to drop out of school.
➢ To find out what needs to change to reduce school drop-out rates among girls in districts such as Temeke.

1.8 Main assumptions

The research assumptions are that young girls drop out of school as a result of:

➢ Lack of parental financial and community support.

➢ Life events and/or circumstances, such as falling pregnant or having to be the main caretakers of their families.

➢ Poor and/or under-resourced school environment.

➢ Insufficient positive attitudes towards education.

1.9 Clarification of terms

1.9.1 Education

*Education* in this research study is understood as a process by which the individual acquires the knowledge and skills necessary for appreciating and adapting to the environment and to the ever-changing social, political and economic conditions of a society, and as a means by which one can realise one’s full potential (United Republic of Tanzania, 1995:1). UNICEF (2003) points out that education is one of the fundamental human rights of individuals. In this context, Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in December 1949, formed the basis of universal rights to education.

1.9.2 Adolescence

*Adolescence* refers to, “the years of transition from childhood to adulthood. It is widely acknowledged that each individual experiences adolescence differently, depending on her or his physical, emotional and cognitive maturation as well as his or her social context.” (UNICEF, 2011:3). The girls in this research often dropped out of school during their adolescence, hence the relevance of this concept in the study.
1.9.3 School dropout

The term *school dropout* is complex and can be described in many different ways. However, in this research study it is understood not as a single event, but generally a process that results due to a combination of inter-related factors that lead up to a child eventually dropping out of school (Fleisch, Shindler and Perry 2010).

1.9.4 Community

According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2011) a *community* can be understood as a unique, living entity and like its people, it undergoes continuous physical and psychological changes. It also interacts with its own individuals and institutions, its environment and other communities.

1.10 Ethical Considerations

Strydom (2011:113) points out that research, “should be based on mutual trust, acceptance, cooperation, promises and well accepted conventions and expectations between all parties involved in the research project”. In undertaking this research, the researcher protected the rights and values of participants to ensure that not only would the findings of the study be accurate and objective, but that participants were willing to be interviewed and that both their anonymity and confidentiality would be respected and protected, as described in the following sections.

1.10.1 Voluntary participation

To ensure voluntary participation, the researcher, when contacting participants for the first time, explained the purpose of the research as being academic in fulfilment of the requirements of the Masters programme at the University of Cape Town. To those participants who agreed to participate in the study, the researcher, before the commencement of each interview, explained once more to each participant that their participation was voluntary and if at any time during the interview process they felt uncomfortable with the interview or process, they had the right to withdraw from the study. Interviews were only conducted after the participant had agreed to participate of their own free will. This is supported by Rubin and Babbie (2005), who point out that participation should at all times be voluntary and no one should be forced against their will to participate in a research project.
1.10.2 Audio recording of interviews

The researcher asked for permission from the participants to record the interview before the start of each interview. A digital recorder was used during the interviews, to provide the researcher an opportunity to take note of non-verbal communication such as gestures, body language and facial expressions (De Vos 2011). The researcher explained to the participants that the purpose of the digital recorder was to ensure accuracy of the research process. After participants indicated that they were comfortable with being recorded, the researcher then proceeded with the interview.

1.10.3 Anonymity

Babbie and Mouton (2001) argue that a respondent may be considered anonymous when the researcher cannot identify a given response with a given respondent. To ensure compliance with this, the researcher asked the respondents to choose pseudonyms at the start of the interviews. This was done so that their real identities remained unknown to readers of the research. The agreement between the researcher and the respondents ensured that participants knew their rights to privacy and anonymity before the commencement of the interviews.

1.10.4 Confidentiality

The researcher emphasised the importance of confidentiality at the beginning and the end of each interview. To ensure confidentiality of the participants the researcher informed the participants that the information they shared would not be disclosed to anyone apart from her supervisor, who would read the information in the form of a dissertation for assessment purposes. This enabled the researcher to gain trust from the participants as most of the questions asked were about their personal lives and their families.

1.10.5 Debriefing

The researcher held a debriefing session with the participants at the end of each interview. The aim was to find out from participants their views and thoughts about the impact of the interview on them. This gave the researcher and participants an opportunity to share their experiences of the interview. Most of the participants found the interviews beneficial as they provided them with an opportunity to reflect on their lives after dropping out of school, and on the challenges
they are currently facing after school life. According to Patton (2002), people benefit from being taken through a directed and reflective process, especially in qualitative research, as it can help them to discover things about themselves that they did not know before.

1.11 Reflexivity

Undertaking the study in the Temeke district posed a number of challenges because of socio-economic problems. The first challenge was the expectation of the community especially girls, that the researcher could help in addressing their various problems. This had to be controlled prior to conducting the interview, to minimise the risk for respondents being guided by wrong perceptions in responding to questions. To overcome this the researcher took proactive measures by probing their initial responses with further questions. In addition, carrying out research in an unknown place posed a challenge in terms of gaining the trust of the participants and their acceptance of the researcher at face value. At first, the participants were not very comfortable or willing to share their personal information with the researcher. Dropping out of school is generally seen in a negative light, as ‘bad behaviour’ in this community, and therefore some young girls did not want to be associated with it since they feared they could be stigmatised. This also led to the researcher experiencing difficulties in gaining access to the 20 participants I eventually interviewed. However, to overcome these various challenges, the researcher ensured that she established contact with the local leadership to inform them of her research endeavour and also assured the participants of their confidentiality during and after the research process.

1.12 Structure of the research report

This research report comprises five chapters. The first chapter introduced the research problem, outlined the significance of the study, presented the main research questions, the research objectives, the main assumptions, the research design and methodology, and clarification of concepts. The second chapter focuses on the theoretical frameworks used in the study and presents a review of the literature relevant to the research, and the research questions and research objectives.

Chapter Three presents the research design and methodology. A detailed discussion is presented on the research design, gaining entry, sampling, data collection, data analysis and verification as
well as a discussion on the limitations and practical problems encountered during the research process.

Chapter Four discusses the findings from the data analysis, derived from the major themes, categories and subcategories which emerged from the data and which are linked to the research questions.

Finally, Chapter Five presents the conclusions drawn from the research and recommendations based on the findings for government, NGOs, schools and communities, as well as recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by presenting the methodology used for the research and review of the literature relevant to the research topic and research objectives. This is followed by a discussion on the theoretical framework. Thereafter a review of the literature linked specifically to the research objectives is presented.

2.2 Methodology of Literature Search and Review

The researcher consulted secondary sources for reviewing and informing this study. A number of books, journals, web-based articles, research publications, magazines, and policy and government documents of Tanzania and other countries relating to the field of study were retrieved and consulted. The researcher utilised the main libraries of the Universities of Dar es Salaam and Cape Town to search for and retrieve sources and data.

2.3 Conceptual framework

2.3.1 Needs development perspective

This theoretical perspective underpinning this study, brings together Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Basic Needs theory and Max-Neef’s (1991) Fundamental Human Needs, both of which postulate that all human beings have needs which ought to be satisfied. This is supported by O’Brien (2009), writing on human and community development, who observes that this type of development focuses on meeting the needs of individuals, groups and communities. Therefore, needs-based development is based on identifying and responding to the needs of poor individuals, groups and communities.

Similarly, girls who live and grow up in poor, peri-urban communities such as Temekte district, have certain needs (i.e. subsistence, protection, affection, understanding (knowledge/education), participation, leisure, creation, identity and freedom), which ought to be satisfied in order for them to function positively and effectively as members of the larger community. These human needs must be understood as part of an integrated system which sees all human needs as being
interrelated and interactive (Max-Neef 1991). According to this theoretical model, girls have an essential need for education, which ought to be satisfied as failure to fulfil this need can lead to other needs not being satisfied. Access to education and skills enhances the capabilities and potential of girls as well as the opportunities for girls when they grow up to find employment or set up their own business, which in turn means that they will be able to participate in the social, economic and political activities of their country. This is complimented by the United Republic of Tanzania (2011: 15) survey on education, which states that access to quality education is a pre-requisite for socio-economic and political development in any society. Therefore, when girls drop out of school, not only are their opportunities for developing their capabilities and potential lost, but their chances of finding meaningful and productive employment are also reduced, and thus their contribution to the economic development of the country is minimised.

As is mentioned in the South African National Development Plan (2012), female unemployment breeds untold poverty, misery and suffering, not only for the women themselves, but also for their children (Republic of South Africa, 2012). Due to this inability to secure employment, women are trapped in a cycle of intra- and inter-generational poverty. This becomes increasingly difficult to break as many women struggle to enter employment due to a lack of skills. As a result, many of these women are forced into low-paid menial jobs, such as domestic work, while others are forced to rely on relationships with men, or on the provision of sexual favours as a means of survival. This vulnerability leads to women experiencing emotional, social and economic problems such as exposure to sexual abuse, substance abuse, HIV/AIDS, and lack of access to basic goods and services such as food, which in turn can lead to them being involved in crime and violence.

2.3.2 Perspective on women’s empowerment

Women’s empowerment is defined as, “women’s ability to make strategic life choices where that ability had been previously denied.” (Kabeer, 1999: 22). This approach to the empowerment of women aims at giving women the capacity and power to be self-dependent by providing them access to all the freedoms and opportunities which they were denied in the past only because of their being women (Taylor, 1999).
In this context Leach (2003), in his book on gender in education, also shows how lack of access, or limited access, to education has a negative impact on young people of both genders in terms of their opportunities, their ability to earn a living, to fulfil career aspirations, to enjoy a productive life, and to exercise autonomy and choice as adults.

According to Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2009), one of the main characteristics of an empowerment process is that it involves moving from insight (inner awareness of one’s human abilities and potential) to action (doing). It is closely linked to the concept of conscientization. In this process or strategy, women have to decide for themselves what action is best for them and have to actively participate in their lives. For instance, the first step for development practitioners or educators working with vulnerable groups such as women is to support the women in the process of problem perception and definition which is referred to as conscientization, and which leads to action, or agency. Swanepoel and De Beer (2011:55), using Freire’s (1970) adult education concept and approach, define conscientization as “a process in which people try to understand their present situation in terms of the prevailing social, economic and political relationships in which they find themselves, before moving toward reflection and positive action upon their world.” This analysis of reality must be undertaken by the people who decide or reflect on what their important needs and experiences are, rather than by the experts. Based on this model, participatory action research is widely used by development practitioners as one of the methods of awareness creation which leads to the concerned group of people coming up with an action to address an identified problem at the community level.

The United Nations Development Programme (2011) argues that development can only take place and thrive when there is investment in education and institutions, and where governments are responsive and accountable to their citizens. Therefore, the United Nations Development programme recommends that development practitioners and organisations should facilitate empowerment through making state institutions more accountable and responsive to poor people. This can be done by strengthening the participation of poor people in political processes and local decision making, and by removing the social barriers that result from distinctions of gender, ethnicity, race, religion, caste and social status, in order to reduce poverty.
The government of Tanzania has ratified certain international human rights treaties such as the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa 2005. According to the principles contained in these treaties and conventions, states and countries are obliged to protect, respect and fulfil human rights for everyone. This provides a firm foundation for advocacy and policy formulation by development actors for improved service provision, such as access to education for girls in Tanzania. Through civic education programmes, poor people (girls) can be enlightened about their rights and demand services from government departments and other service providers.

Therefore, women’s empowerment calls upon governments, communities, the private sector and NGOs to implement programmes that empower women and girls with education, with skills and professional qualifications, so as to avoid their marginalisation.

Despite the Tanzanian government promoting the education of the girl child, experiences on the ground reveal that girls often continue to drop out of school in high numbers, thus failing to fulfil their potential (Swainson, 2000). In addition, there is lack of political will by those in leadership to implement tangible and effective programmes that seek to address the high school dropout rates, especially those of the girl child, by addressing needs of girls. For instance, there is a pressing need to address gender and patriarchal power relationships, and the lack of a gender-sensitive culture as manifested by negative attitudes towards women and their education, and belief systems which do not promote women’s empowerment.

2.3.3 Social exclusion perspective

Davids, Theron and Maphunye (2009) see the social exclusion perspective as offering an explanation for the isolation or exclusion of individuals or certain groups, such as girls, from accessing certain resources and services in society, which leads them into poverty. The leading cause of the social exclusion of girls in accessing education in certain communities of Tanzania is their gender (URT, Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, 2013).

The gender disparity in the access to education between girls and boys is due to historical and cultural factors which tend to favour boys over girls (Taylor, 1999). Some households in poor
communities prefer to send boys rather than girls to school. This, coupled with other factors, such as lack of tangible government support and political will, results in girls not completing their school education, leading to their marginalisation and exclusion in terms of limiting both their employment opportunities and their participation in the development of their country.

In this context, research has shown that gender disparities in secondary education emerge from gender-based discrimination in the family and in the society in general (United Nations, 2012). Secondary schooling is more costly than primary education, and poor households in areas such as the Temeke district are often forced to apportion limited resources among children. When girls’ education is less valued, or is perceived as generating lower returns, parents may favour sons over daughters (URT, Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, 2013). This leads to the exclusion of girls from education and, in turn, limits their access to economic, social, and political services and sectors such as health, education, administration and business, and this, as has been noted, in turn limits their contribution to the economic and social development of the country.

Education is seen as serving the multiple functions of providing independence, an income, conferring social legitimacy, as well as granting full citizenship rights (Davids et al., 2009). This is illustrated by the United Nations (2012) Millennium Development Goals Report, which points out that living in poverty create additional difficulties for those who are not educated and, at the same time, the combination of poverty and being uneducated limits participation in social activities. The following section discusses the policies and programmes that the Tanzanian government has put in place to promote women’s (girls’) empowerment through education.

2.4 Tanzanian policies and programmes on education

2.4.1 The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania

According to the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania (2008) education is one of the fundamental rights of the individual. Article 11 of the Constitution of Tanzania stipulates that everyone has the right to education. However, this proclamation remains very much a “paper right”. The reality on the ground is that the right to education for Tanzanian children, especially girls, is not enforced and implemented by the government, Hakielimu (2012). This lack of
enforcement means that girls have little or no legitimate claim nor right to education provision through state resources. Therefore, education provision is the preserve of the family, meaning that if the family is unable to pay for their children’s education, the chances of them dropping out of school, and thus not completing their education, are higher.

2.4.2 The Education and Training Policy of 1995

The National Education and Training Policy (URT, 1995) calls upon the creation of true partnerships between the state and the other education providers, including private persons, encouraging them to establish and manage schools and other institutions, with the ultimate goal of broadening access to schooling and ensuring equity by gender, disability, geographical location and class. In addition, the URT (2011) points out that government policy aims at increasing access to education by focusing on the equity issue with respect to women and groups with special needs, and on certain areas in the country in terms of streamlining the management structure of education, by placing more authority and responsibility on schools, colleges, universities, local communities, districts and regions. This implies that the government should provide financial support for young girls which will ensure their access to education.

2.4.3 National Women and Gender Development Policy 2000, and the associated National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) 2005

According to the United Republic of Tanzania (2008), the goal of the National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) is to achieve gender equality and equity in Tanzania as stipulated in the National Constitution as well as the Women and Gender Development Policy. One of the specific objectives of the NSGD is to guide and involve all stakeholders in a process to put in place a mechanism that guarantees equal opportunities for girls and boys in education. The existing stereotypical attitudes continue to favour education for boys over girls in most communities in the country. As a result the majority of girls tend to concentrate on gender stereotypical fields of study such as home economics, secretarial courses and nursing. The United Republic of Tanzania (2008) further points out that other shortcomings in the education system include limited budgetary allocations, gender-insensitive school management practices, and unfriendly learning environments for girls as well as for people with disabilities. In addition, there are inadequately trained teachers on gender issues, gender-biased curricula, and social and
cultural values which embody resistance to change in the area of girls’ education. Poverty and work overload for girls and women at household level continues to be a major obstacle to the education of girls, causing dropout of both girls and boys from schools and training institutions. Therefore the programme aims to achieve the objective of gender equality in education by:

- Expanding education infrastructure and facilities in primary, secondary and higher learning institutions
- Sensitising and motivating community members to participate in constructing and renovating and expanding schools to accommodate more girls and women
- Making information available on training opportunities
- Putting in place at work-places training programmes informed by gender-sensitive perspectives
- Having in place an effective mechanism for equal access to training for both men and women
- Promoting community education that responds to local needs
- Enhancing entrepreneurship and managerial skills for women and men
- Providing and improving entrepreneurship skills and credit facilities
- Improving occupational health and safety control measures to safeguard both men’s and women’s health

2.4.4 Vocational Training

According to the Vocational Educational and Training Authority (VETA, 2013), a vocational education training programmes authority was established by an Act of Parliament No. 1 of 1994 and charged with the broad task of coordinating, regulating, financing, promoting and providing vocational education and training in Tanzania to replace the National Vocational Training Department (NVTD) as part of an attempt to improve the coordination of vocational training activities in Tanzania. It has been estimated that the return of former dropouts to vocational training is greater than the return to formal education in Tanzania. While private rates of return for university education were 10% and 11% for males and females respectively, they were 18% and 20% respectively for vocational training.
Cooksey and Riedmiller (1997:20), writing on education in Tanzania in the 1990s, described the Vocational Training Programme as offering training in five areas of provision: basic training, in-plant and apprenticeship training, evening courses for skills upgrading, the training of instructors and in-plant supervisors, and trade testing. However, VETA provides only 17% of training provision in Tanzania; the rest is provided by private sector training institutions. In addition, a gender unit was formed in order to spearhead affirmative measures to increase the enrolment of girls at vocational training centres (Cooksey and Riedmiller, 1997:14). These measures included:

- The training of more women teachers
- Gender sensitisation of all VETA staff
- Counselling provided for women at all VETA centres. A counselling service is also offered to secondary school girls to encourage them to take up non-traditional trades
- Revising the curriculum to encourage girls to enrol in areas previously dominated by males
- Improvement of workshops and use of ‘gadgets’ to make learning easier for girls.

2.5 The current situation of young girls in Tanzania

According to UNICEF (2011:2) Tanzania is home to about 9.9 million adolescents between the ages of 10 and 19, representing almost 23% of the total population of 43 million people. The United Nations Education and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO 2012:1) argues that, although enrolment in the country is close to universal at primary level, and with gender parity almost achieved, at secondary level only 31% of boys and 24% of girls are enrolled in school, with significant gender disparities. This means that 76% of girls are missing out on secondary education, compared to just 3% at primary education level.

The community dialogue led by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) in seven districts of Tanzania, representing a mix of urban and rural realities, highlighted how children’s perspectives on education differ quite substantially from those of their parents and teachers (UNICEF 2012:68). Children said that they felt uncomfortable in their school environment, expressing fear of being beaten and deprived of food. In addition, UNICEF (2012) points out that corporal punishment is still practised by both teachers and parents, and violence
against children is a common experience. Furthermore, most schools do not encourage children to contribute as active agents in the education context. Therefore, UNICEF (2012) concludes that, for children to have a voice, it is essential that a positive attitude toward young people’s participation exists among parents, school teachers and community members.

UNESCO (2012) observes that the low value placed on education by parents is often related to the high levels of adult illiteracy, particularly among women. This, according to the organisation, has resulted in the strengthening of the perception among girls that education has low importance, thereby reinforcing the vicious circle of women’s illiteracy and girls’ low or limited educational achievement. Similarly, a study done by Fan and Chen (2001) found that parental aspirations/expectations had a much stronger correlation with student academic achievement. Therefore, it can be argued that positive parental expectations for a child to complete and do well at school leads to most children performing well at school.

A study on the impact of urbanisation on children by UNICEF (2012: 64-65) found that those children living in urban settlements like Temeke district face conditions more favourable to those in rural areas in terms of the quality of school buildings, availability of water, sanitation and hygiene facilities, and recreation and play opportunities. For instance, UNICEF (2012: 69) points out that, in a survey of 40 schools in Dar es Salaam, the average school had just one latrine for every 90 pupils, far from the government target of one latrine for every 20 girls, and 25 boys.

The transition from school to work is critical in the life of a young person, particularly in terms of acquiring meaningful employment. The United Nations World Youth Report (2011:1) holds that, “the manner in which a young person enters the work force influences his or her life-long employment experiences…” Among the many topical issues dominating the debate at this stage is the prolonged period of unemployment for young people, beginning from the time of their leaving education. O’Higgins (2001) notes an increase in the number of young people struggling to find their first job. Many take many years to find a job. O’Higgins (2001) adds that there is a close link between unemployment among the young and drug abuse and vandalism, patterns of behaviour that, by their very nature, once ingrained, are likely to remain and influence the development and lives of young people.
Education is widely viewed as an effective path to social mobility. Giving the best possible education to disadvantaged children helps them to escape poverty. Unfortunately, most disadvantaged children who live in communities such as Temeke district receive low quality education in poor school facilities compared to those in wealthier urban communities, who are more fortunate. Children in high poverty level, inner-city neighbourhoods often attend schools that are markedly inferior to those attended by children in well-to-do suburban communities (Lang, 2007:23).

2.6 Parents, school and community support to girls

According to Jackson and Cartmel (2010), there is overwhelming evidence to support the notion that when schools, families, and community groups work together to support learning, children tend to do better in school, stay in school longer, and like school more. The authors point out that school principals play an important role in making these connections work.

Action Aid (2011), in their study on the role of girls’ clubs in schools, found that established girls’ clubs in schools in Tanzania and Nigeria empower girls (and boys) with understanding about gender and education rights, and provide girls with information, confidence and skills to challenge in-school and out-of-school obstacles to their schooling. Therefore, based on this kind of research, it can be argued that girls in schools should be supported to form such clubs as a way of promoting information and exchanging experiences to make learning more conducive.

Brennan, Barnett and McGrath (2009), in a study on the role of youth civic engagement in building communities, argue that youth development is not just the responsibility of parents and professionals; it is the responsibility of entire communities. Therefore, young people should be provided with ample opportunities through sustained interaction, communication, and positive relationships with adults, other youth, and with community organisations to ensure they value and appreciate their lives, including their school experiences.

According to Hofmeyr (2012), the likelihood of young people coming from poor households, accessing further or higher education, and securing employment opportunities that can give them access to high income to escape from poverty, is poor. The implication of this situation is that these young people, together with their children, are condemned to the dustbin of history.
Therefore, to address this vulnerability, there is a need for government and stakeholders to explore options that aim at building the assets of young people. These assets, and their development, could take various forms; one way is to support young people to build financial assets such as youth savings accounts (YSAs) or individual development accounts (IDAs) (Hofmeyr 2012).

The idea of IDAs and YSAs originates from the premise that young people need assets to make the transition to adulthood easier (Hofmeyr 2012). Saved funds are intended to be withdrawn only for spending on asset accrual, that is, for investment in further assets, either in the form of education, employment, or entrepreneurship activities, or in gaining additional assets such as land, livestock or housing for those living in urban and rural areas.

According to Davis (2000), the family makes critical, intangible contributions to a child’s achievement and cultural capital from early childhood through high school. The author highlights that talking and playing with infants, reading bedtime stories with toddlers, playing maths and reading games with elementary school students, helping middle school students with their homework, and establishing appropriate boundaries for teenagers, are foundations for success in school. Many families, however, require assistance in providing the basics of a supportive home-learning environment, which is non-existent in most poor communities in Tanzania. Furthermore, Davis (2000) points out that when parents, families, and members of the community are involved with schools, all children benefit, as adult participation sends the message that school is important and the work children do is worthy of adult attention. Njunwa (2010), in his study on the role of community participation in schools, highlights that in Tanzania the government has realised that primary education encounters many problems such as low pupil enrolment, poor quality education, and lack of involvement of parents and community in education development.

HakiElimu (2005), a local NGO working in the area of primary education development, points out that the reasons parents fail to send their children to school include lack of awareness of the importance of education, and the inability to pay school fees and to make other contributions to their children’s schooling. The organisation highlights that the role of school development is not merely a government responsibility, but must also involve parents and local people, as research
has indicated that there are positive academic outcomes stemming from parent involvement, ranging from benefits in early childhood to adolescence and beyond.

2.7 Girls experiences with school

A study done by UNICEF (2011:27) on attitudes of younger people towards school in Tanzania found that, “Students want teachers who are really interested in teaching, who like to teach and who make an effort to ensure that children understand the lessons.” It is not uncommon to hear a young person say that, “sometimes teachers do not come to class regularly, give out notes without explaining what they mean, or just tell them to ask another pupil if they don’t understand.” In addition, most children fear corporal punishment. When teachers carried a stick into class it interfered with the pupils’ concentration and ability to learn. Furthermore, UNICEF (2011) reports that most schools have only limited contact with parents, and that some students are excluded from lessons for non-payment of certain fees in defiance of government policy on payment of school fees.

Jackson and Cartmel (2010), in their study demonstrate that friendships are important to children as they start school, particularly for children living in an area of socio-economic disadvantage like Temeke district. Socio-economic disadvantage is commonly linked to poor developmental outcomes and may affect children’s readiness to start school. As a result, children in low socio-economic areas are less likely to have a positive school transition. This poor start to school can have a negative impact on children’s long term schooling experience and future outcomes. The authors, using data collected in multiple ways from children in the first year of school in an area of socio-economic disadvantage, drew attention to children’s emphasis on friendships and the valuable support this provided during the transition to school. This study highlights how the provision of adequate support helps children to build the high-order social skills and competencies necessary to establish and maintain friendships prior to and during the transition to school. This experience enhances the enjoyment of and engagement in the school environment, improving children’s long-term educational outcomes.

In this context, studies of families show that what the family does with the children is more important to student success than family income or the education level of the parents (Epstein, 1995). According to the author, parental participation improves student learning whether the
child is in pre-school or in the upper grades, whether or not the family is struggling economically or is affluent, or whether the parents themselves finished high school or graduated from college.

The findings of a study by Sima (1995) reveal that most counsellors in secondary schools are diploma holders with long normal teaching experience, but who are not specifically trained in guidance and counselling. Based on these findings, the researcher concluded that orientation to guidance and counselling services is not sufficient to help the girls use the services effectively or beneficially. In addition, the study revealed that there was inadequate and inappropriate provision of vocational and psychological guidance and counselling services.

Girls have high aspirations for their education despite concerns with poverty, gender-based violence, the consequences of early pregnancy and marriage, and lack of facilities. Girls views about overcoming obstacles tend to focus on short-term and less sustainable interventions, such as sponsorship to pay school fees (Sima, 1995). This is supported by a study done by UNESCO (2012) which revealed that school fees represent a major obstacle for parents wanting to keep their children in school, thus increasing the risk of girls dropping out of school.

UNICEF (2012) highlights that school sanitation is problematic in crowded urban areas of Tanzania, especially in Dar es Salaam. Lack of water also makes hand-washing a problem in schools. In congested urban areas, schools may not have sufficient land to build the required number of latrines and other hygiene facilities. Therefore, UNICEF (2012) points out that adequate water and sanitation programmes in schools not only increases children’s water, sanitation and hygiene access, but also improves school attendance and achievement for girls, as a recent country-wide assessment revealed.

2.8 School dropout factors

According to Hunt (2008) there is no one single cause of school dropout; it is more often a process rather than the result of one single event. Therefore, there are a number of factors, some interrelated, that contribute to school drop-out.

Dachi and Garrett (2003:36) have various views about these factors, seeing the main factor influencing school drop-out, particularly for girls, as being financial. After posing a series of questions to parents/guardians, in various areas of the country, about the financial circumstances
surrounding their children’s school enrolment in Tanzania, they came to the conclusion that virtually all household respondents considered financial problems and their inability to pay school fees to be the main barrier to parents sending children to school. Hardly any of the respondents cited a negative attitude towards school on the part of the children themselves, or the school itself as being unattractive. This set of views is reinforced by UNICEF (2011), which points out that poverty still remains the main challenge to the improvement of girls’ secondary education in Tanzania. Since secondary education is neither free nor compulsory, school fees represent a major obstacle for parents wanting to keep their children in school, thus increasing the risk of girls dropping out of school.

Plan International (2009) approached the problem of the lack of access of girls to education from the perspective of household chores. The study highlights that young girls, particularly those in poor rural areas, face the burden of domestic duties, such as child care, food preparation and other time-consuming activities, including the fetching of water and fuel, cleaning, and agricultural work. The pressure of domestic work constrains girls’ access to schooling and consequently their transition to productive employment. The organisation, however, argues that things are improving, especially in terms of girls’ education, but many millions of young women and girls are still discriminated against because they are female and because they are young. Therefore, Plan International observes that the pressure for girls to drop out of school when families cannot afford school fees or uniforms or indeed food, or when they are needed for labour in a household, can be enormous.

According to Al Samarrai and Peasgood (1998), in some areas in Tanzania, household schooling decisions are determined by an interaction of social, cultural and economic factors working through power relations within the household. The authors point out that one can view education conceptually as both consumption and an investment. Those parents who do educate their children often do so in order that their children, and their children’s children, will have better life chances, and because they enjoy having literate and educated children. However, parents also invest in their children’s education so that their children will support them in later life.
A household production function approach has been widely used in the literature to model household schooling decisions (Tansel, 1993; Chemichovsky, 1985; Duraisamy, 1992). These models imply that there is an optimal investment in education for each child that equates the net present value of expected benefits and costs to the household of educating their children. Costs incurred through the duration of a child’s schooling include direct costs (e.g. fees and uniforms), opportunity costs of the child’s time (those domestic activities forgone whilst children are at school and traveling to school), and other non-monetary costs, such as the possible increased risk of pregnancy for girls attending school; these are weighed against the perceived benefits of providing their children with an education.

According to a study done by Malekela (1986) in the 1980s, girls from single-parent households were at the time 19.1% less likely to attend secondary school, possibly due to the need for their labour in daily activities of the household. This kind of effect is likely to reduce the positive impact of being a girl in a female-headed household. Linking this study to the current situation, it can be said that the same problem that was prevalent nearly 30 years ago is still the case in Tanzania.

In a study conducted by Sima (1995), which sought to establish whether or not family background contributes to primary school dropout, and the activities that the dropouts undertake thereafter, it was found that socioeconomic problems in the family of the pupil contributed to their dropping out. In addition, pregnancy among female pupils was a serious problem and the greatest contributory factor to the high rate of female dropout.

A study by the Tanzania Violence against Children organisation (TVAC, 2009) points out that early marriage can act as another barrier to the progression of girls to secondary school. In addition, TVAC (2009) highlights that parents may also worry more about the security of adolescent girls at secondary school, because these schools are more often further from home than primary schools. Other issues, such as the physical safety of girls while travelling to and from school, and the lack of toilet facilities can also prove to be a deterrent.
A national opinion poll done by UNESCO (2012) revealed that about 25% of Tanzanians thought it was more important to educate a boy than a girl. Parental commitment and capacity to help children learn depends in part on their own educational experience. The parents of most adolescents today are around 35- to 45-years-old; in that age group around one in three women and one in six men are unable to read, which impacts on their ability to help their children with school work (UNESCO, 2012).

The URT, Education Sector Performance Report 2011/2012 (2012:17-18) points out that sometimes dropout is a result of illness including HIV and Aids, taking care of their sick parents, guardians or relatives. The same situation is experienced in secondary schools where students in 2011 dropped out, mainly due to truancy and failure of parents to meet basic needs. The document further points out that being orphaned has also forced children to drop out of school. This is attributed to the fact that some orphans are also forced to take care of their siblings or even to assume responsibility as the head of their household, and hence their regular attendance at school is affected.

2.9 What needs to change to address school dropout in Tanzania

The Development Bank of Southern Africa (2012) argues that access to career guidance is particularly important for children whose parents are unemployed or have limited formal education. In these households, children are less likely to be exposed to adequate guidance and opportunities to consider their own employment and vocational decision-making. These students also tend to have limited exposure to career information, as this kind of information is not part of their school or family experience. The challenge is to break this inter-generational trend by exposure to information on career choices, and this needs to be created in an innovative and meaningful way.

Mbelle and Katabaro (2003) examined education service delivery in Tanzania, with particular attention to enrolment, access and performance of girls. In general, they found that government funding of primary and secondary education was low compared to those in many sub-Saharan countries. Therefore they concluded that there was a need for increasing investment in education, especially for females. This is supported by Duflo (2012) who points out that it has been shown in several contexts that parents and children who believe that education is more worthwhile
invest more in school (avoiding dropping out, being absent less often or working harder towards exams). She further points out that three recent studies, one in China and two in India, show that increased opportunities for women in the labour market do indeed translate into better outcomes for women.

Braun, Swaminathan, and Rosegrant (2004:11) observed that, “feeding children in school has paid significant educational dividends. A school feeding programme in Bangladesh, for instance, has resulted in a 35% overall increase in enrolment and a remarkable 44% increase for girls.” It is recommended that governments should emulate Bangladesh so as to achieve the Millennium Development Goal number two, which is attaining Universal Basic Education.

Hunt (2008) on the other hand observes that non-state providers and in particular NGOs and faith-providers can offer educational opportunities for children who have withdrawn or are excluded from the state sector. Moreover, non-state providers offer opportunities in areas that state educational provision does not reach. Given that non-state providers (referring here mostly to NGO provision) target vulnerable children, often the types of provision available can cater towards their specific needs.

The African Youth Charter (2006) proposes that nation-states should facilitate the creation or strengthening of platforms for youth participation in decision-making at local and national level. Therefore, young people who drop out from school should be encouraged to participate in programmes that will help them to discuss and find solutions to their problems.

Furthermore, Enfield and Owens, (2009), and Booyens and Crause (2012), recommend that young people should be supported to develop social networks and recreational facilities. Recreational facilities offer young people attractive alternatives to boredom, alcohol and drug use, gang membership, crime, and other destructive activities. In addition, the Education Sector Performance Report 2011/2012 (2012:17-18) emphasises the need to address workplace interventions by providing food supplements to students and teachers who are infected by HIV and Aids as per government circular No. 2 of 2006.

Duflo (2012:1058-1059), in the context of the link between women’s empowerment and economic development, suggests that there is a need for freeing up women’s time. A key source
of inequality between women and men stems from the way they are expected to spend their time. She points to a global study that Berniell and Sánchez-Páramo conducted in 2011 of time use for the 2012 World Development Report using data from 23 countries from the Multinational Use Study, and 12 countries that they added to make the data set more representative of poor countries. A clear, but unsurprising pattern emerged: at all income levels it was found that women do most of the housework and care work and, correspondingly, spend less time on market work.

The difference ranges from 30% more time spent on housework by women than men in Cambodia to six times more in Guinea, and from 70% more time for child care in Sweden, to 10 times more in Iraq. She therefore concludes that these gendered differences have an impact on women’s ability to fully engage in their careers, given the time spent participating in menial labour work. This is one reason why women in developing countries are more likely to be involved in informal work (such as running a small business) that may not be the most productive use of their time. For example, they may run a shop from their house, in order to be able to mind the children at the same time, instead of taking on productive employment. This reduces the chance that they might have an autonomous or independent income. Therefore, Duflo suggests that in this context, economic development can lead to the empowerment of women by freeing up their time spent on menial work which can then be used for market activities or for other more educational activities.

### 2.10 Summary

The chapter began by providing an overview of the theoretical frameworks for this study, which included needs-based development, women’s empowerment and social exclusion approaches. A review of the literature highlighting the situation of access of girls to education globally and in Tanzania was presented. The discussion of the literature was informed by and related to the main objectives of the study. Chapter three discusses the research design and methodology used in this study.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research design and methodological framework used in the study. This includes the nature of and rationale for the research design chosen for the study, the sampling process, data collection, data analysis, verification and research limitations.

3.2 Research design

The quality of any research project is enhanced by a thorough understanding of the research design. Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2008, as cited in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011) define research design as a plan for the research process, which outlines the phases of the conducting of the research. The research design for this study was informed by the kind of study being conducted and took into consideration the nature and focus of the research, which was to explore the factors contributing to school drop-out among girls in the Temeke district of Dar es Salaam. In the process of this exploration the researcher hoped to capture the daily experiences, perceptions and feelings of the respondents. A qualitative approach to data collection was therefore adopted.

This approach was adopted as the researcher wanted to capture the views, perceptions and experiences of young girls in their natural setting of Temeke. De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2005:240) define qualitative research as a, “multi-perspective approach to social interaction, aimed at making sense of, or interpreting or reconstructing this interaction in terms of the meanings that the research subjects attach to it”. Therefore, in terms of this approach, the goal of the researcher in using this type of research paradigm was to describe and understand the subjects rather than explain and predict their behaviour. In terms of data analysis, the researcher adopted an inductive approach, going into the field with an open mind in the process of identifying important themes as they emerged during the interview process.

3.3 Gaining entry

To gain access to the participants, I was first given a letter from my supervisor which would introduce me to the Temeke municipality authority (See Appendix A). After contacting the
person in charge at the municipality, I was given permission to talk to the secondary education officer representing various schools in Temek. I had a meeting with two officers who explained to me how I could locate and recruit participants and pointed me to areas within Temek district where the school drop-out rates were highest. I was then given a letter of introduction to the schools and to the ward officer who could then link me up with potential participants at a particular school (See Appendix B). Most of the schools visited did not have a proper record of students who had dropped out, nor did the ward officer. However, the ward officer knew of some girls who had dropped out since she had been living in Mbagala. I was able to locate four participants who confirmed their availability. In order to locate and recruit the remaining 16 participants I used the snowball sampling method which will be discussed in detail in the next section.

3.4 Sampling

3.4.1 Purposive sampling

According to Gravetter and Forzano (2003), the term sample implies a set of individuals selected from a certain population. The sample was chosen using non-probability sampling methods of purposive and snowball sampling. In non-probability sampling, Unrau, Gabor and Grinnell (2007) argue each unit in a sampling frame does not have an equal chance of being selected for a particular study. The sample was purposively chosen from Mbagala ward within Temek community for two reasons. Firstly, the ward is located in Temek which is an area with high poverty and school drop-out levels: most young people, including girls in this area, do not complete their studies due to social, cultural and economic factors (UNICEF, 2012). Secondly, purposive sampling of young girls from Mbagala ward offered the researcher an opportunity to ensure that the specific characteristics of young girls in poor communities were included in the study so as to obtain maximum accuracy of information on the factors that lead girls in such areas to drop out from school. Strydom (2011:232) argues that purposive sampling is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher, who decides whether the sample she chooses deliberately from the population is composed of those elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes that best serve the purpose of the study. Based on these criteria, a sample of 20 participants was chosen.
3.4.2 Snowball sampling

Strydom (2011:233) describes snowballing sampling as, “approaching a single case that is involved in the phenomenon to be investigated in order to gain information on other similar persons”. I intended the sample to be as representative as possible in order that the findings would be relevant, if not strictly able to be generalised to other similar cases. It was difficult to find the total number of 20 participants as I could not find a proper register or record, either at a school or within a community, which documented all those girls who had dropped out of school in Mbagala ward. Therefore, as alluded to in 3.3 above, I used snowball sampling to arrive at the 20 participants. The first step was to identify four girls who then gave me details of the other 16 participants who made up the required sample.

3.5 Data Collection strategy

3.5.1 Data collection approach

According to Creswell (1998), data collection in qualitative research is a series of interrelated activities aimed at gathering rich information to answer emerging research questions. In the data collection process of this study, I used in-depth interviews to collect data from the 20 girls who constituted the final sample. The in-depth interview method was used in order for me to gain access to the perceptions, feelings and personal encounters of young girls who had dropped out from school. According to De Vos et al. (2005), this type of interview is usually focussed on, and organised around, areas of particular interest to the researcher, while at the same time allowing considerable flexibility in terms of the scope and depth of the interview. It also provided an opportunity for me to gain an in-depth understanding of the experiences and perceptions of the participants and what they thought and felt about school and dropping out of school.

3.5.2 Data Collection Instrument

In collecting data from the respondents, I used a semi-structured interview schedule (See appendix C& D). This schedule guided the researcher and participants during the in-depth interviews, although in certain instances the researcher was required to deviate from the
sequence of questions in order to allow for the free flow of information as it was presented by the respondents.

According to Mason (2011), a semi-structured interview schedule includes certain topics, themes or areas to be covered during the course of each interview, rather than following a rigidly structured and pre-prepared sequenced script of standardised questions. While this data collection tool helped me to be focused during the interviewing process, it also allowed for flexibility. The interview schedule was developed with input from the researcher’s supervisor.

3.5.3 Data collection Apparatus

With the permission of the respondents, all interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder. The digital voice recorder provided an opportunity for the researcher to focus fully on the interview and to take careful note of all the observable behaviours of the participant. In addition, this enabled the researcher to establish a rapport with the interviewees throughout the interview process. Greeff (2005:298) argues that, “the use of a digital voice recorder allows a much fuller record than notes taken during the interview.”

3.6 Data Analysis

De Vos et al. (2011:399) define data analysis as the, “process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data”. The data collected for this study was analysed using Tesch’s eight-step approach (Tesch, 1990, cited in De Vos, 1998:343-344). The steps the researcher followed in the analysis of her data were as follows:

• The researcher read through all her transcripts in order to gain a comprehensive and holistic understanding of the collected data.
• After reading all the transcripts, the researcher then selected and read one transcript with the view to understanding the respondent’s answers in relation to the objectives of the study.
• The transcripts were all examined closely and notes made against the text that explained, described and raised questions.
• The researcher then labelled and coded those notes that seemed to be linked to each other using similar colours as a form of coding.
• The researcher then took all of the transcripts and repeated step three taking care to check and clarify the categories and sub-categories by looking for the interrelationships between them.

• The researcher then finalised the themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged.

• The researcher then assembled the data under explicit themes, categories and sub-categories.

• At the end of the process, the researcher compared the themes, categories and sub-categories she had identified with the transcripts, and in addition looked for possible missing or incomplete data.

3.7 Data verification

This process involved checking, confirming, making sure and being certain of the trustworthiness of the research process. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985:290, cited in De Vos et al., 2011), there are four constructs appropriate for the qualitative paradigm: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability.

3.7.1 Credibility

To ensure the credibility of the study, the researcher adhered to the process of defining the sample as highlighted under the sampling section above. The researcher picked a sample of respondents using criteria that, as far as possible, accurately identified and described the characteristics of the population. The findings and conclusions of the study were linked to the literature review, and a digital voice recorder was used to ensure referential sufficiency (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

3.7.2 Transferability

Babbie and Mouton (2001) refer to transferability as the extent to which the findings of a study can be used or applied in other similar contexts. Establishing this helps the researcher to ask whether the findings can be generalised. The sample size of 20 participants in the study was too small to render the findings applicable to findings or studies in other geographical, socio-cultural and socio-economic settings. It can be argued that girls who drop out of school in other
communities of Tanzania are affected by different environmental situations and experiences to those living in Mbagala ward. Therefore, the researcher considered generalising the findings based on this sample to be inappropriate.

3.7.3 Dependability

Babbie and Mouton (2001) argue that an inquiry must also provide its audience with evidence that, were it to be repeated with the same or similar respondents (subjects) in the same, or a similar context, the findings would be similar. To ensure dependability in the study, the researcher used the semi-structured interview schedule for data collection. In addition, a detailed research methodology with themes was provided. Furthermore, the researcher clearly and systematically highlighted how she analysed the data to arrive at the findings and the conclusions.

3.7.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings are the product of the focus of the inquiry and not of the biases of the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In addressing this, the researcher throughout the research process made certain as far as possible to be aware of her own biases in both the data collection process and in the presentation of the findings; she linked the findings closely to the literature to ensure objectivity.

3.8 Limitations of the study

In this study the researcher faced certain limitations pertaining to the methodology of the study, namely sampling and data collection instruments and processes, and the logistics and accuracy of translation of the local language (Swahili) used by the respondents to English. These are discussed below.

3.8.1 Sampling

As has been mentioned, the sample size of 20 participants in this study was too small from which to generalise the findings. The findings were not generalised as the sample was not necessarily representative of girls who drop out of school in other communities in Tanzania, it was a small purposive sample but for an exploratory study was considered sufficient.
3.8.2 Data collection apparatus

The use of the digital voice recorder during the interview posed a challenge. Most of the participants were not used to being recorded, and this aroused some anxiety. However, before each interview session I asked the respondent for permission to use the digital voice recorder. I only used the recorder after the participant had consented to, and was comfortable with being recorded. Strydom (2011) highlights the potential danger of using a digital voice recorder during interviews: it can make participants uncomfortable and anxious being recorded.

3.8.3 Translation

The researcher conducted the research in Swahili as the respondents were not conversant in English. This posed a challenge to the researcher in terms of translating and transcribing the interviews in English. However, I took time and care to transcribe the interviews as accurately as possible, and cross-checked them carefully to ensure that the information that was captured was translated correctly and that the translation process did not give rise to distortions and inaccuracies.

3.9 Summary

This chapter presented a description of the qualitative research design and methodology chosen for this study, including the sampling type and process, entry into the study community, data collection method and research instrument. A description of the data analysis and data verification processes was presented, and the chapter concluded with describing the limitations of the study. The next chapter will focus on presenting the research findings from the data analysis, informed by the objectives of the study.
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main findings of the research study. The discussion includes the main findings from the in-depth interviews, and an analysis of these findings in relation to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The chapter will conclude by summarising what has been discussed and then indicate what Chapter Five entails.

4.2 Profile of Participants

Table I below shows that 20 young girls, aged between 14 and 23, were interviewed; 19 of the participants interviewed were single (unmarried). One participant was married, while two participants had children. Table I indicates that most of the participants had dropped out of school while in Form One and some in Form Two. It is also clear from the table that most of the participants lived with their parents or guardians at the time the interviews were conducted.

**Table I. Respondents details**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital status and children</th>
<th>No of children</th>
<th>Living with who when dropped out</th>
<th>Schools name</th>
<th>Form at which dropped out</th>
<th>Travelling time to school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Changanyikeni</td>
<td>Three</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Changanyikeni</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Mwinyi</td>
<td>Three</td>
<td>25 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Mwinyi</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Kibasira</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Malela</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Taongoma</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Chamazi</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td>Malela</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>45 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Taongoma</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Aunt</td>
<td>Charambe</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Taongoma</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Mikwambe</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Kidete</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Mikwambe</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Saku</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Single parent</td>
<td>Kidete</td>
<td>Four</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Taongoma</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>Penda moyo</td>
<td>Two</td>
<td>45 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>Mbagala</td>
<td>Three</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3. Analysis and discussion of research findings

Table 4.2 below presents the framework for discussion which the researcher developed. The framework comprises of the main research themes and categories which emerged during the course of the interviews and which, in turn, inform the presentation of the findings and discussions of the study.

**Table II. Tabular representation of themes and categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Young girls’ current circumstances</strong></td>
<td>The meaning attached to being a girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Talents and Interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family and community environment of young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parents and community expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girl’s dreams and means to achieve dreams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School and community support for girls</strong></td>
<td>Assistance received</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Financial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Emotional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Services and facilities for girls at schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programmes awareness and accessibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Faith based organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Non-governmental organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Private companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls’ experiences with school</strong></td>
<td>Journey to school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiences while at school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After school activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School drop-out factors</strong></td>
<td>Process of dropping out of school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role played by parent/guardians and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reaction of parents/guardians and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advice not to drop out of school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Suggested improvements to addressing school dropout</strong></td>
<td>Young girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from parents/guardian/community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NGO’s, Private sector and FBO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Activities to reduce drop-out rate of girls</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.1 Young girl’s current circumstances

4.3.1.1 The meaning attached to being a girl

Most of the young girls in this study described themselves as hard-working people who like helping out in terms of household chores such as cleaning the house, fetching water, helping with farm work as well as selling vegetables at the market. Their attitude towards cleaning in general was because they were girls they were expected to clean their bodies and to be cleaner than men:

“Because I am a girl I have to help my mother with domestic work. I do this every day before going to the farm and also after coming from the farm ... also girls getting married and having children.” (R4)

“Okay as a girl....I do a lot of cleaning, first my body, then cleaning the house, after that I start preparing for breakfast .... Then cooking lunch then in the evening I prepare dinner. I also have to take care of my child because if I don’t do that no one will do that for me.”(R13)

“Being a girl means that you have to be clean, help work at home.” (R17)

One respondent did not like the idea of being a girl because, unlike boys, girls do most of the household chores:

“It means that I have a lot more responsibilities than my brother, I see here everything they just call Fatuma to work but my brother will be just seated doing nothing.” (R11)

Some of them described how they as girls needed to be careful in their sexual relationships with boys and men in order to avoid becoming pregnant:

“Mheeee .....I have to be careful with men because if I am not careful I may end up becoming pregnant.” (R6)

“As a girl I face a number of challenges in the street but I know how to manage those challenges, but some boys take an advantage of my kindness, because I am a soft person and because I like talking to everybody.” (R1)
R14 expressed her understanding of being a girl by relating it to having breasts, monthly menstruation periods and conception:

“I think being a girl it means that you have breast and start menstruation period and you can have children.” (R14)

“It means that you can become pregnant and have babies.” (R15)

In this context, as was mentioned in Chapter Two, the National Middle School Association (2003) points out that early adolescence is characterised by accelerated movement to reproductive maturity and that hormonal shifts trigger several physical transformations and that, in general, physical maturation begins much earlier for girls than for boys.

4.3.1.2 Talents and Interests

In this study, the girl participants described their talents and aspirations in a number of different ways. Their talents and interests included being cooks, singers and listening to music, reading, soccer players, netballers, and dancers:

Interestingly, one of the participants admitted that she was a professional soccer player who had been playing soccer since she was young and had played in different local leagues:

“I like soccer a lot and that’s my talent; ever since I was young I told myself that this will be my career, I do a lot of physical exercises, I know I am very good at soccer, everybody knows that here. I have participated in Airtel league, if you have heard about it, and our team won.” (R13)

“I like watching movies, singing and also I like football.” (R20)

R7, R8, R12 and R19 said they liked singing, dancing and listening to music:

“I like singing Taharabu (a type of Swahili local music) in the choir; some time we sing in different ceremonies, also during election campaign we used to sing for
CCM, going from different places to another. So we usually sing with my friends then they pay us little money.” (R6)

These kinds of adolescent aspirations are described by Woolley & Johns (2001), as mentioned in Chapter Two. They point out that the teenage years are a very important, and often difficult period in an individual’s emotional and physical development, when young people grow more independent from their parents. At this age young people further establish their self-identity through opinions, values, looks and preferences, choosing musical styles, dress codes and leisure activities as the building blocks of a self-identity.

4.3.1.3 Friends

When asked about the kinds of friends they had, most of the participants said that they had met many of their friends while at school and they enjoyed being with them because they had the same interests and that their friends played an important role in their lives:

“Most of my friends are boys but I have friends who are girls, some of them at school some of them here where I am staying For me friends are everything, they are my family, if it was not friends I was not going to be here but because of them I am here, they have helped me through difficulties; when my parents died my friend used to come and stay with me at home, some of them used to bring food for us some of them gave me some money to use. I also don’t become to anybody I choose my friends. I don’t like friends who drink alcohol, or those who like partying. I like friends who are hard-working like me.” (R19)

“I have so many friends especially those I used to go to school with. But currently my best friend is the one I am living with and this is their house because her parents love me.” (R8)

Other participants met their friends during soccer and choir practice, but they were not attached to those in the same way as to those they had met while still studying:

“I have few girlfriends but when I was at school I had both who liked sports and those did not like sports. I have also met new friends who do sports but we’re not
very close we just meet at the playground during soccer and chart but they are not that good friend of mine." (R13)

“I have two best friends of whom I like so…..She has been my friend for many years though I left school but she is still my best friend, another one we met at the market she is the one who introduced to the choir so when I go there we talk so many things and we chat on how we can be famous but we are not that close.” (R6)

Jackson and Cartmel (2010) see friendships as being important to children when they start school, particularly for children living in areas of socio-economic disadvantage such as Temeke. Socio-economic disadvantage is commonly linked to poor cognitive and education developmental outcomes and may affect children’s readiness to start school. As a result, children in low socio-economic areas are less likely to have a positive school transition. This poor start to school can have a negative impact on children’s long term schooling experience and future education outcomes. Thus the drop-out rate of girls in an area such as Temeke could be affected by this kind of school transition and lack of school readiness.

4.3.1.4. Family and community environment of young people

The majority of the participants experienced both their family and community environments as difficult. It appeared that for most of the participants everyday life was a struggle to survive for various reasons, including poverty and lack of support or affirmation from family and the community:

“My home is fine but we are many; we are living a difficult life, my parents are struggling to get food on the table, but sometime it is hard I can see that.” (R20)

“I like my community, people are very friendly and I know a lot of people here. Though life is very tough here, I cannot depend on anyone I have to work.” (R16)

“It is tough living here but then you have to choose the right or bad things. No one will tell you what to do here …some people are good other people are not
good, especially women; they have talked a lot about me that I am a bad girl .....there is nothing I can do to stop them from talking on what they want to talk about.” (R11)

“It’s not too good but there is nothing I can do to change the situation; all my siblings depends on me. Some time we get food, sometime we don’t but I am now used with that kind of life.” (R19)

“Here my family is ok and my sister’s husband is ok but sometime I feel like I have become a burden to them as they have to take care of their children and my child as well, though my father helps me sometime, but I don’t like depending on everything on them.” (R13)

The African Development Bank (2011) points out that income inequality in Tanzania appears to have remained unchanged as reflected in the Gini Coefficient. There are also substantial numbers of poor people in urban/peri-urban areas. In this context, some participants saw poverty as severely limiting their options in terms of improving themselves:

“My home and community ...not too good, they talk discouraging words some time they tell me that I can’t succeed. You see I am like a mother now to my siblings and my grandmother; it can be challenging and difficulty some time but I have nowhere to go I have to help my family.” (R3)

Malekela (1986), in a study done on secondary school students in Tanzania in the 1980s, found that girls from single-parent households were less likely to attend secondary school, possibly due to the need for their labour in daily household chores. This effect is likely to reduce the positive impact for a girl of being in a female-headed household and negatively affect her education.

4.3.1.5 Parents and community expectations

Parent’s expectations were not high with regards to the education achievements of their children. Most of the participants reported that their parents/guardians wanted them to study just for the sake of getting jobs so that they could help their families financially:
“My parents want me to become a teacher and I want to be a teacher. My parents told me to study hard and if I am able to go to school, I can help them and other people at the mosque.” (R2)

“I need to work hard, that’s what my sisters says, because life is not too easy.” (R12)

Some respondents stated that their parents wanted their children to work hard simply in order to help put food on the table:

“I help them to cook and buying food because now I do different work like washing clothes to people, fetching water and I get money.” (R8)

“My parents want me to be a good person and also find a good job so that I can help myself and also help my relatives.” (R 20)

“We don’t talk a lot about school with my parents. But because my mother lost her job I have to contribute and work hard so that we can put food on the table. They depend on my salary though it’s too little to feed everybody, but it helps.” (R 17)

Similarly, UNESCO (2012) finds that the low value placed on education by parents is often linked to high levels of adult illiteracy, particularly among women. This, according to UNESCO, has resulted in the strengthening of the perception among girls that education has a low value and importance, thereby reinforcing the vicious circle of women’s illiteracy and girls’ low educational achievement.

Interestingly three respondents stated that their parents wanted them to attend Madrassa training which trains them in the Quran:

“My parents have never asked me anything about what I used to do at school or finding a mate for marriage….but I go to the mosque every day for Madrassa.” (R1)

“I depend on my mother to give me offerings to me (for) the mosque.” (R2)
These two participants were attending Madrassa classes, and, despite the fact that they had dropped out of school, their parents were able to pay 2000 Tanzania shillings (equivalent to 13 Rand) per month, although, according to the girls, their parents could not afford to pay for their transportation.

In this context a study done by Fan & Chen (2001) found that parental aspirations/expectations had a much stronger correlation with student academic achievement. Therefore, positive parental expectations for a child to complete and do well at school leads to most children performing well at school. This clearly shows that sometime the decisions and priorities of parents significantly affect their children’s wellbeing.

However, a few respondents mentioned that their parents wanted their children to concentrate on their studies, but that their parents simply did not have enough money to support their children in the completion of their studies:

“*My mother wanted me to study and she always encourages me to study very hard but she did not have a job so she told me to stop going to school.*” (R7)

“*My parents wish me to become a nurse but they don’t have money.*” (R6)

“*My mother wants me to have at least a certificate in computer science but she told me she doesn’t have enough money.*” (R11)

“*Oh they wanted me to be a doctor*”....*but they didn’t have money to pay for my transport every day the school was very far.*” (R19)

In terms of community expectations, most of the participants reported that some people in their community were expecting them to get married since they were ‘*just seated at home*’.

“*My neighbours ask me if I am planning to get married soon, because here most of young people like me are married.*” (R8)
“In this community there is nothing I can say; I am always indoors….They expect girls to get married so that they can have kitchen parties and all that. There is also a lot of competition here; girls like to compete; if one gets married then people start asking when your wedding is because your young ones are leaving you behind ... and they will say do you want to get old in your mother’s house.” (R5)

Brennan, Barnett and McGrath (2009) argue that youth development is not just the responsibility of parents and professionals; it is the responsibility of entire communities. Therefore, young people should be provided ample opportunities, through sustained interaction, communication, and positive relationships with adults, other youth, and community organisations, to ensure they value and appreciate their life including their school experiences.

4.3.1.6 Girls dreams and means to achieve dreams

All participants interviewed had dreams, ranging from becoming tailors, nurses, soldiers, farmers, teachers, to actresses, football players and running small businesses:

“I would like to become a tailor, I like sowing but I don’t have enough money to pay for the college or someone because my parents are poor.” (R4)

“My dream ......is to become a tailor... at least I will be able to get money and then take care of my family.” (R1)

Two respondents wanted to become nurses:

“I want to study nursing and help people, I always wanted to be a nurse; I liked science subjects at school.” (R6)

“My dream is to become a nurse one day. I like helping children that’s why I want to become a nurse. When I was young I was too sick and one of our neighbours was taking care of me every day so I also want to take care of others.” (R7)

Four participants wanted to run their own businesses:
“My dream is to learn how to make soups, I would like to be an entrepreneur. I want to be my own boss. I don’t like working for people.” (R20)

“I would like to run my stationary shop in the future.” (R11)

“My dream is to have my own café where I can sell tea and food.” (R14)

“My dream is to have my own small shop where I can sell different things.” (R17)

One wanted to be a farmer:

“I would like to be a farmer...maybe growing vegetables because here people buy a lot of vegetables and they sell them in town, kariakoo market.” (R8)

One dreamed of becoming an actress:

“I need connection with those who are actress already, because I want to act.... but I only watch them on the television.” (R18)

Two out of the 20 participants wanted to be teachers:

“I asked my teacher on what I should do if I want to be a teacher...... I should study hard.” (R2)

“I like teaching children. I also help to teach at the mosque.” (R9)

Respondent 3 wanted to be a soccer player:

“I love soccer, ever since I was young that is my dream to play in the women league... I practice every day” (R3).

Respondent 5 said that her dream was to become a soldier:

“My dream is to become a soldier...I want to be a soldier so that I can protect women, you know women here.....we are not treated like men, we are regarded as nothing and weak so if I become a soldier I will show that we can be strong.” (R5).
This response by Respondent 5 shows something more interesting and significant than just expressing a dream or aspiration. This specific aspiration indicates how powerless she feels as a girl and her place in the social/power relations in a society. Sima (1995) pointed out that girls have high aspirations for their education and empowerment despite concerns with poverty, gender-based violence, the consequences of early pregnancy and marriage, and lack of finance and educational facilities.

When asked how they intended to achieve these dreams most of the participants said that the greatest barrier would be lack of money to pay for their courses, and transport to go to college:

“*But I don’t have money.*” (R5)

“*If I get money I will go back to study.*” (R11)

“*I need a loan or someone to help me because I don’t have money.*” (R4)

Lack of financial resources was the most frequently cited obstacle to achieving ambitions, particularly in terms of the difficulties in the way of young girls being able to get to school and being able to afford to start a small business. Family responsibilities also contributed to the set of obstacles in their way to achieving their dreams because the young girls could not obtain sufficient money, bank or use their money for their own purposes, as R6 explained:

“*I sell vegetables at the market but the money I get is not enough.*” (R 6)

“*It’s hard to get money because my young siblings depend on me. I have to provide for them, so if I go to study some time they don’t get enough to eat. I am hoping that I will find a job soon so that I can help myself finish my training and my young ones.*” (R3)

“*I need money and also I need support because I don’t have that money. I will go back [to school], but I don’t have that money for now, but if I get money I will go back to school so that I can fulfil my dreams.*” (R19)

“*Maybe I need to get money and buy a small portion of land where I can be growing my vegetables.*” (R8)
“I need help I can’t afford to take of myself and also to pay for my school fees especially that my mother is sick. The money I get helps us buy food and pay medicines for my mother. So I don’t think I will achieve my dreams I think it will be very difficult the money I get from selling vegetables is not enough to pay for my fees.” (R6)

A study by UNESCO (2012) also found that school fees represent a major obstacle for parents wanting to keep their children in school. The study found that 58% of girls identified poverty as a major obstacle to achieving their educational aspirations.

4.3.1.8 Young girls activities

The majority of participants were not involved in any economically or mentally productive activities, most of them having to stay at home doing house chores:

“...it is hard to find a job so I am not doing anything to earn money, since I left school I depend on my mother.” (R2)

“I am not involved in anything apart from domestic work.” (R5)

“Nothing I stay at home and help my sister to cook and do other staff like washing and cleaning the house.” (R12)

“....I don’t have any job I am always at home.”(R8)

“.....I am a house wife I am always at home because I am not employed.”(R9)

R16 was involved in selling second hand clothes, while R10 was busy teaching bible studies to children, and R7 was a member of a choir, although she had previously had difficulty attending choir practices and performances due to her mother being sick and having to taking over all of her mother’s responsibilities for selling vegetables. Interestingly, R19 worked away from home as a cleaner:

“Currently I am involved in different activates; I don’t like staying at home and do nothing. I like working so I found a job in town. I work as a cleaner, but that is part time. I also work in the supermarket at Mlimani City.” (R19)
“……I run a small business, because life was becoming hard and hard every day. So nowadays I sell second hand clothes at the market, but the business is very competitive, I don’t get enough money to take care of my child.” (R16)

From these responses it can be argued that most of the participants were busy with, or trapped in, housework instead of being active in sports and other economically and educationally productive activities which could also provide them with social networks as well as income.

4.3.2 School and community support for girls

4.3.2.1 Assistance received

When asked about financial support and guidance, most of the participants reported that they got little or no support from their parents. They indicated that their parents could not afford to pay for their transport. In addition, they did not get much support from anyone else:

“No I didn’t receive anything from anybody…. If I had a problem, at school I used to talk to my classmates because our teachers were not that friendly. We only had football clubs but we didn’t have any girls’ club at my school.” (R11)

“I was supported by my father. I didn’t get any support from the school. I was only supported by my parents with everything I needed.” (R12)

“I didn’t receive any career guidance; we didn’t have those things at my school.” (R14)

“While at school I never received any support from any one apart from my mother; it was ok though some students used to come with money at school but because my parents are poor I understood that I can’t be like them.” (R10)

Few participants reported receiving help from the government, NGOs and/or school:

“While studying my mother used to provide every school requirements and I didn’t have any problem. Also the government provided little assistance for students who were orphans.” (R3)
“At my school we had sports and debate clubs I used to participate in the debate...we used to go to different schools, and also we used to invite other students; this increased my confidence.” (R5)

“When I was in primary school I was given all my school requirement by World Vision; they gave us uniform and books also sometimes they could give us food, like maize powder, rice, even soap. But my grandfather and my grandmother were the one who used to pay for my school fees.” (R14)

Most of the participants mentioned that they did not receive social and emotional support when needed:

“At my school it was difficult to talk to our teachers may be friends only, my peers laughed at me when they heard that I was raped; I didn’t know whom to talk to......we had matron but we could see her when you’re sick and sometime she will tell us that we a pretending; we are not sick....you stay like that........ No we didn’t have any support.” (R12)

Similarly, findings from a study done by Sima (1995) revealed that most counsellors in secondary schools are diploma holders with years of general teaching experience, but who are not specifically trained in guidance and counselling, and, linked with that, guidance and counselling services are not sufficient to help school girls use these services appropriately or effectively.

With regard to their homework, most of them mentioned that they didn’t receive any support from parents or from school:

“In my community we don’t have any place where we can go and study........ I used to study with my friend after school.”(R15)

“.....I had to do my homework but it was hard to work from home.” (R6)

“After school I had to cook and wash the dishes no one helped with my school work”. (R18)
4.3.2.2 Services and facilities for girls at schools

When asked about services and facilities provided at their schools, most participants reported that these were scarce or non-existent, that they didn’t have computers or books, and there were not enough toilets at school:

“There was nothing.....” (R20)

“At that school, Mhh we didn’t have a lot of channels apart from having classes.”
(R16)

“....maybe now, but during that time I didn’t see anything.” (R14)

“We needed computers but it was hard for us to access them, especially for us who liked sciences but they were not there.” (R14)

Enfield and Owens (2009), and Booyens and Crause (2012), recommend that young people be supported in developing social networks and recreational facilities. Recreational facilities offer young people attractive alternatives to boredom, alcohol and drug use, gang membership, crime, and other destructive activities. Unfortunately, the young people participating in this research experienced an almost complete lack of those services and facilities at their schools. Some participants mentioned a few extramural and extra-curricular activities provided by their schools. Three participants mentioned that the school sometimes invited guest speakers and one mentioned that they were given several empty promises by potential donors:

“Only few people used to come during graduations and talked to us; also some of them promised to bring sports materials but I never saw those materials.” (R8)

R18 also mentioned a few educational trips she went on while at school:

“Our teachers used to take us outside for field trips, and I used to enjoy that a lot.” (R18)

However R5 did not remember such opportunities being provided by her school:
“I think very few…. I used to hear from my friend who was in a private school, but for us there was no any program established by the government to help girls.” (R5)

Some participants remembered having minimal sports facilities at their schools:

“We used to have sports but football for boys; girls used to watch boys playing. Apart from that there was nothing.” (R14)

It can be argued that some students found these facilities, as well as support services, however limited, useful:

“At my school teachers used to give advice in my class and other classes about the school. Parents were also encouraged to advise us about relationships with others, and how we can protect our self-others from bad people….Fataki (sugar dad) they said to us to be careful about that, and that if we get involved we may end up missing school. It’s now that I came to have realize what they meant. Apart from that I heard that there was one organisation but I can’t recall the name. This organisation used to provide support to students such as books uniforms and school fees. I only received once; I was given some uniforms and books. Another organisation which came to school was called hakielimu (equal education) who told us the importance of education and encouraged us to study….they were very useful, at least I was able to get some help from those organisations like school requirement (school uniform, pen, and pencil) while I was still at school.” (R4)

4.3.2.3 Programmes awareness and accessibility

Most participants were not aware of various educational and support programmes being run by different organisations in their communities. R6, R12 and R20 responded to this question:

“I don’t know, I have never seen any here in my community.” (R6)
“There are no any programmes in my community, maybe other communities, but I have never seen any programme here. We only have churches; that’s all that we have here.” (R12)

“....I don’t know, maybe somewhere else, but not here......” (R20)

A few respondents appeared to be aware of the existence of some programmes, although they were not sure whether these were operating in their communities:

“I have seen some refugees and orphanage centres around, also I have seen women programme like, PRIDE, and FINKA ,but I don’t know if they are for the government or churches or private companies.” (R16)

“I have never seen anyone here, ever since I came to live with my aunt; I used to know about world vision because they were supporting me, but I don’t know if they operate here as well. But I think here people help themselves; they don’t depend on the government or church. Maybe that’s why world vision is not operating in this community.” (R14)

Some participants mentioned being familiar with the church and/or mosque but they were not sure if these were running any educational programmes:

“Here there is nothing but there are many churches around here.” (R19)

“There is no any program here I have never heard any programmes but we have the mosque and church those are the only one that I know.” (R4)

4.3.3 Girls’ experiences with school

4.3.3.1 Journey to school

When asked about the journey to school most respondents described the struggle involved in getting to school in the mornings, taking public taxis and buses, the drivers of which were harsh and impatient and often made them wait for long periods. Some respondents also had to complete their domestic duties before setting out for school:
“My school was very far, so I was supposed to wake up early, before 7:00 am to be at the bus stop. From there I had to jump in another bus. Then walk for like 20 minutes to be at school. I used to get tired by the time I was at school; also coming back home was the same problem.” (R16)

“I had to walk every day to go to school; the school was not too far.” (R3)

“I wake up very early in the morning. Then I could clean our back yard, wash dishes; after that I could start my journey to school.” (R4)

“In the morning was difficulty; it was fighting for buses, conductors were not very friendly so by the time I am at school, it was late; my journey to school was a trouble; we fought and ran for buses. When you arrive late we were beaten by our teachers. If I explained to them that it’s because of transport they could not understand, so we were being beaten.” (R6)

Participant 8 was one of the exceptions who did not experience difficulties getting to school, although she had to complete domestic duties before setting out:

“We had a school bus at our school, but parents had to pay for every month. So for me the transport was not a problem like other students, but here at home I was supposed to wake up early, clean the dishes, after that I was supposed to prepare breakfast and then go to school. That’s how my journey used to be.”

4.3.3.2 Experiences while at school

When asked about their feelings/experiences with school work, friends, teachers and activities while still at school, most participants mentioned both positive and negative experiences:

“I felt so good to be with my friends and also teachers....school work was sometimes hard especially when I started form two; science subjects like biology and mathematics was very difficult, but I used to discuss with my friends.” (R3)

R19, who had a cleaning job in town said:
“My journey to school was fine... the school was not very far from home. I used to work.”

“It was not a big issue for me but the problem was the bus conductors, they were very harsh to us but I am a very strong person so I could manage them.” (R13)

Regarding after-school activities, several respondents (R15, R3, R13, R6 and R8) mentioned that most of their time was taken up with domestic duties:

“After school I used to do house work at home such as cooking and washing clothes; then some time I could read but not reading every day.” (15)

Several respondents reported positive experiences while at school:

“I liked ..., especially we were taught how to do so many things with our hands, then we went into doing our assignments in practice, our teacher made us do all the home work which was very good.” (R3)

“I enjoyed, at my primary school; we used to play and study hard, [me] with my friend.” (R13)

“I loved singing at the school choir.” (R6)

“To tell the truth, I enjoyed being at school; our teachers were very friendly, also I had good time at school with my friends. I also enjoyed doing arts at school, we had a good teacher, he used to encourage me a lot. That made me to like and enjoy the subject so I used to be the first in that subject.” (R8)

Action Aid (2011), in their study on the role of girls’ clubs in schools, found that established girls’ clubs in schools in Tanzania and Nigeria empower girls (and boys) with knowledge and understanding about gender and education rights and provide girls with information, confidence and skills to challenge in-school and out-of-school obstacles to their schooling. Therefore, girls in school should be supported to form such clubs as a way of promoting and exchanging information and experiences to make learning conducive. However, other participants had negative experiences of school:
“I and my class mates were suspended by the principal… I will never forget that as we missed classes for three weeks, so it was hard to catch up.” (R13)

R19 didn’t like the way boys were behaving towards female teachers and other female students. She described how:

“... boys used to fight over girls; it was horrible. I don’t think students should behave like that; if they continue to behave like that I don’t know what will happen.”

R15 described the harshness and punitive attitude of her teachers:

“One day I was beaten and I was told to do push-ups, also I was told to cut the grass for the cow. I will never forget that.”

According to UNICEF (2012:68), community dialogue led by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) in seven districts of Tanzania, representing a mix of urban and rural realities, highlighted how children’s perspectives on education differ quite substantially from those of their parents and teachers. Children in these districts said that they felt uncomfortable in their school environment, expressing fear of being beaten, and being deprived of food. In addition, UNICEF (2012) points out that corporal punishment is still practised by both teachers and parents, and violence against children is a common occurrence.

4.3.3.3 After school activities

Most of the participants mentioned that they were involved in helping at home and thus spent little time on their homework:

“I was not involved in anything than doing work at home and reading but not reading every day.” (R1)

“I was not involved in anything apart from doing school..... then cooking in the evening, also helping my mother at home.” (R10)

“At school I was not involved in anything, but at home I helped my mother to cook.” (R8)
“No I could help my mother to cook and then reading my books.” (R17)

“Most of the time after school I used to do house work at home, such as cooking and washing clothes, then some time read my books or do my homework if I had any, but then I was tired most of time so I preferred doing my work at school every day, every day.” (R3)

“I was involved in dancing, but not every day; I could go there twice in a week. I used to help my mother (with) any work at home like cooking and washing, or fetching water from our neighbour.” (R16)

Plan International (2009) highlights that young girls face the burden of domestic duties, such as child care, food preparation, and other time-consuming activities, including the fetching of water and fuel, cleaning and agricultural work. The pressure of domestic work constrains girls’ access to schooling and consequently their transition to productive employment.

Other respondents were involved in various activities other than domestic work:

“I used to... study with my friends. Our teachers were very friendly, so after school they helped us with homework and we could pay1500 (12rands) every week.” (R5)

“I was involved in sports. I was a social prefect......I used to organize for music and other sports, so I used to manage all the sports activities with other schools.” (R13)

4.3.4 School dropout factors

4.3.4.1 Process of dropping out from school

The respondents in this study had various reasons for dropping out of school. Six out of 20 indicated that their dropping out was due to financial factors, while four out of 20 had lost their parents and did not have anyone to support their studies. Five respondents reported that their parents were sick, thus forcing them to drop out of school. Two respondents mentioned early pregnancy as a factor, one cited early marriage, and another one mentioned that it was due to rape. One respondent dropped out as she was failing in school:
“My mother said she can’t afford paying for my fees because the money she was getting from the FINKA loan; that’s why I stopped.” (R11)

“No I didn’t decide on one day, but what happened is that I was in form four; we are supposed to pay for my final exams, but that time my mother was going through difficult times; she did not have any job, and my father stopped supporting me long time… so in short that’s how I stopped.” (R18)

“I was going to school until last year in January. My father said he couldn’t afford paying for my fees anymore.” (R15)

HakiElimu (2005), a local NGO working in the area of education, points out that parents fail to send their children to school due to lack awareness of the importance of education, coupled with their inability to pay school fees and make other contributions to the school.

Early marriage was also mentioned as a factor by R16:

“I will say it’s my foolishness; I only realise the mistake I made but I can’t go back... I met a boy who told me that he wanted to be my friend. I accepted; he started buying a lot of things for me; he gave me money for transport... that’s how I got married and stopped school.

A study by the Tanzania Violence against Children (TVAC, 2009) showed that early marriage can act as another barrier to secondary school progression.

One of the common factors mentioned by many respondents as a reason for their dropping out was the death of a parent or guardian:

“I dropped out of school because .... my parents died. I was in Form Two (grade 8) ....my relatives ...promised to pay for my fees but they never paid for my fees. Getting food to eat was a problem let alone my school, fees, so I stopped and started working.” (R19)

“After the death of my mother, the business she left was not bringing any money so I didn’t have anyone to support myself and my brothers; we couldn’t take care
of ourselves, we didn’t have enough money to pay for our bills so I had no option rather than stopping school.” (R5)

“I can say that me stopping going to school started after the death of my uncle who was my sponsor. He was the one paying for my school fees, and other needs. After his death my aunt called me and she said she could not afford paying for my fees as she had to pay for her children who were being paying by their farther (Uncle)…and started crying.” (R1)

R20 mentioned failure and being laughed at as a reason for dropping out that she was not doing well in class:

“I used to fail in school; I used to be the last in class, people used to laugh at me and used to make funny of me, so I used to feel bad about school all the time and I did see the importance of me schooling at all. I didn’t like some of my teachers and some of my classmates. I didn’t like our environment …….that’s how I stopped going to school.”

Lack of health security was also mentioned as one of the reasons for dropping out:

“My parents became sick both my father and my mother. When they went to the hospital they were told that they were HIV positive, my father became very sick at first but now my mother is sick also, I don’t know where to run to I don’t even know who can help us….I had to stop school because there was no one who could take care of us.” (R8)

“When my father became sick I was in Standard Six; you see now he couldn’t afford to pay for my transport, so sometimes I used to stay at home; then mother had to go to work at the saloon, and I could take care of my father. I used to miss school but I managed to finish standard seven.” (R17)

“After my primary school, I was selected to join a secondary school; by that time my mother was ok, but then she became sick, her breast was becoming too big, and it was so painful, but she kept selling vegetables. After some months she became too sick and so we moved to the village me and my mother; we went to
stay with her parents. I was there for 8 months taking care of my mother; she
could not do anything, she was very sick. When I came back to Dar es Salaam, I
went to school and I was told my name was deleted and that I was suspended from
school.” (R6)

The URT Education Sector Performance Report 2011/2012 (2012:17-18) indicates that young
people sometimes drop out as a result of illness (1.5%), their own illness and that of family
members, including HIV and Aids, taking care of their sick parents, guardians or relatives
(0.5%). This situation is experienced in secondary schools in the URT, where the drop-out rate in
2011 was 64679 students mainly due to truancy, which accounts for 72.7%, and failure to meet
basic needs, which accounts for 13.9%. It should also be noted that becoming orphaned also
forced children to drop out of school.

Pregnancy was also a common factor contributing to school dropout:

“I was in a relationship with one of my classmate, and I became pregnant so after
finding out that I was pregnant I decide to stop. I knew if the school find out they
were going to chase me out so I decided to stop on my own.” (R13)

“You know for me stopping school was not my decision [but that of] my parents
or teachers; but you know sometime us girls we are not satisfied with what our
parents give us some time. During vacation I realized that I was pregnant, and I
told the guy who was responsible. He promised to give me the money for abortion,
but from that day I didn’t see him; I think he ran away, knowing that I went home
and I told my father about it, but my father was very angry. He didn’t understand,
so I came here in at my sister’s place, asked her to talk to my father.” (R14)

A study was conducted in two districts by Sima (1995), which investigated whether family
background contributes to primary school drop-out, and to the activities that the drop-outs
undertake thereafter. It was found that pregnancy among female pupils was a serious problem
and in fact the greatest contributory factor to the female drop-out rate.

Respondent R12 mentioned that she was raped and that made her decide not to go back to
school:
“I was raped …..after that day I didn’t want to go back to school because some students heard the story, I think from teachers, so there was lot of gossiping around that I was raped. That made me feel uncomfortable and I started missing school, then I started locking up myself in my room. My father wanted me to go back but I can’t go back. I told them to change a school for me but they refused, thus I told my father if he can’t find another school for me which is very far where nobody knows me, I will never go back to that school. So I still waiting they haven’t found a school for me yet and I don’t think they will because I haven’t heard anyone talking about it.”

4.3.4.2 Role played by parent/guardians and school

Parents play a significant role in determining whether their children should continue with their studies or drop out. This study sought to find out from the girls if they thought that their parents played a significant role in supporting their children’s continuing education or not. Their responses were as follows:

“They didn’t do anything wrong; if they had money I think I was not going to stop school.” (R4)

“I don’t know may be because was not clever in class there was nothing they could have done, but I asked for tuition money I was told they didn’t have money to west….school I didn’t have anyone to help me even some teachers were not that friendly to me so they contribute to me heating school may be they could have peeped in my homework’s.” (R20)

“My parents did not do anything they also need help if they get better I am sure they will find work.” (R8)

“I think my mother tried her best but my father contributed a lot, we went to see him, we told him that I had to pay my school fees, otherwise was not going to finish school, then he said to us, was that the only reason that took us to his house we told him yes, then he said he does not have money to west, to someone like me. I felt too bad but there was nothing I could do.” (R18)
“I think my mother’s friends contributed because they used to pump her with lots of gossiping that I had a lot of boyfriends that’s why I was not doing well in school. I know one lady who told my mother that I have bad groups and that I don’t go to school I spend my time with girls on the street but that was not true because I am not like that my mother came to realise later about that friend of hers, she didn’t want me to continue with my studies yet her children continued with their studies, She also made my mother to hate my friend, my friend doesn’t come to visiting me anymore because if my mother sees her around she just chase her away.” (R11)

“I blame my father; he doesn’t take care of us he expect my mother to do everything, for him every money he gets goes to buy alcohol. He also have another wife so ever since he married that woman he stopped caring about us”. (R15)

“They didn’t play any role it’s just me, I also didn’t know that I was going to become pregnant. It just happened.” (R14)

“I think my teachers did not care about me dropping school neither my neighbours. Because my principal is the one who said can’t take me back.” (R7)

Epstein (1995) in a study on partnerships between school, the family and the community in supporting children in their schooling, argues that studies of families show that how the family interacts with the children is more important to student success than family income or the education level of the parents. According to the author, parental participation in their children’s learning significantly improves student learning and performance, whether the child is in preschool or in the upper grades, whether the family is struggling economically or is affluent, or whether the parents have finished high school or graduated from college. It could be argued that if the young people participating in this research had had support from their families, it is probable that they would not have dropped out of school.
4.3.4.3 Reaction of parents/guardians and school

Most participants reported that their parents, some teachers and their peers were sad and disappointed that they had dropped out, but at the same time, they didn’t receive any support from these people:

“I was told by friends that my teachers were very disappointed with me because I used to do well in class, also world vision staff was very disappointed. Some of our neighbours laughed at me; it was hard.” (R14)

“They were shocked; most of them were shocked with my decision.” (R9)

“My parents were sad for me; they only told me there was nothing they could do to help, maybe I should just pray to God one day they might get money and send me to school.” (R1)

They received similar responses from friends:

“My friends felt sorry that I left school but they said there was nothing they can do to help me.” (R1)

“They felt sorry for me because I was sick but there was nothing they could do.” (R7)

4.3.4.4 Advice given to girls not to drop out of school

Most of the respondents, when asked whether anyone had advised them not to drop out of school, responded that no one had advised them not to drop out of school. The reality was that they had no means to pay their fees and other participants mentioned that they had already made their decision, irrespective of whether they sought or received advice or guidance:

“No one, my mother and I didn’t ask anyone we just decided that I should look for the job but she didn’t force me to do that; we discussed about it.” (R17)

“No one…..” (R16)
“No one because I didn’t tell a lot of people about it apart from my mother and my father.” (R18)

However, R19 mentioned that her friends advised her not to stop her schooling, although they were unaware of the realities of her situation:

“Yes my friends advised me not to stop school, but most of them didn’t know what I was going through. My life was not easy without parents or relatives to support me.

Therefore it can be argued from the findings of this research study that young girls living in areas such as the Temeke district do not have any place where they can seek help or guidance: most of them mentioned that they didn’t consult anybody beforehand regarding their decision to drop out.

4.3.5 Suggested improvements for addressing school dropout

4.3.5.1 Young girls

When asked what could be done to address the school drop-out problem, most participants were in agreement that girls can play a big part in finding a solution to their problems in terms of continuing their education through hard work, seeking help, and concentrating in their studies:

“Girls should focus and should work hard to achieve their goals. They should not depend on men because men are using them to get what they want....some girls in my community have more than 5 boyfriends.” (R19)

“Girls... who are still studying should study hard and those who want to follow their dreams should follow their dreams.” (R20)

“Girls should also study hard.” (R8)

“I think girls should try to achieve their goals. I will advise girls who have opportunities to study. [They] should study so hard because life is so hard.” (R15)
“I will advise girls who have opportunities to study should study so hard because life is so difficult.” (R5)

“Girls should make wise choices, I didn’t make wise choices myself, but I would like my children to finish their studies and also girls should seek help from their parents before making any decisions; some men are not honest to girls.” (R9)

Seeking help to continue with their schooling was the plea from R2:

“Girls should seek help if their parents are poor; that’s why when I heard that you were interviewing I came, but some girls hide; they don’t want people to know that they have dropped out.”

4.3.5.2 Support from parents/guardian/community

When asked what kinds of support parents should receive so that they in turn can support their children to continue their education, participants recommended that poor parents should be supported with financial grants, and the community should be more supportive of parents and young girls - instead of judging them they should help them, especially those who drop out due to pregnancy. Furthermore, they recommended that some parents should take on the responsibility for their children’s education by ensuring that their children study regularly.

R14 was of the view that:

“... the community should stop judging us; when I became pregnant everybody was blaming me. I didn’t get any community support, apart from my grandmother. I also stopped going to church because I was considered to be a bad girl. So I think the church and world vision should do more to help us.”

R9 suggested that:

“... parents should be too close to their children”. Some parents are too busy; they don’t look after their girls. I know girls face a lot of challenges and most of them run to seek advice from friends rather than their parents.”

However, a few respondents defended their parents:
“I think parents are trying their best, but if they don’t have money there is nothing they can do to help their children.” (R17)

“Parents and other relatives in the family, especially those who are well off, should be supportive; if they are rich in their families should help those who need support especially us orphans.” (R3)

4.3.5.3 Schools

Participants recommended that teachers should follow up on what happens to their students especially when students keep missing school. They also suggested that if a student misses school for one year (due to pregnancy, disease or financial issues), and then comes back, she or he should not be excluded, but should be allowed back to finish her studies:

“My school did not help me I was there for four years but they refused me to (allow me to) continue with my studies simply because I couldn’t pay my fees. I think they need to be more understanding and also try to find a way to help students who cannot afford.” (R18)

“.....teachers should also like their jobs but they don’t do much explanations to their students. This makes students to hate science subjects, hence they stop attending those subject and they end up dropping out of school.” (R6)

“.....also teachers should report if they notice that there are students missing in their school.” (R13)

4.3.5.4 Government

Most of the participants in this study felt that government was not doing enough to support young people. Some participants indicated that government should support parents financially towards reducing school drop-outs. They further suggested having skills centres located within communities, as most of the centres were located far away and they could not afford the transport costs:
“….Secondary education should be free to everyone, especially those who cannot afford; also they should make all day school to boarding schools. This will help students not to face a challenge of transport.” (R8)

“Mhh if the government can come and support us with money and support our schools we will be happy, but if they don’t do that I don’t know what else will happen to us. The government here in Mbagala does not seems to help us; I can show you how people live here. I think we are tired of the government. Boys steal and drink alcohol because they are saying that the government is not helping anybody. So maybe the government should come here and talk to us and see how they can help us young people. Also they are few colleges and they are no schools around here; we have to go very far so maybe if the government can build school for us and also make our parents not to pay.” (R20)

“I would like the government to do more to help us young people with money; the government is doing nothing to help us, you have to fight for yourself, and if you don’t have parents like me and my sibling’s things becomes more difficult. Tanzania now is for rich people; us poor people, no-one looks after us, no one cares if we go to school or we don’t know [if any] one care if we eat or we don’t know [if any] one cares about anyone. That’s why now days girls are more involved in prostitution and other staff because that’s the only way out they think they can survive. So the government should come and help us not only during the election campaign.” (R19)

“Government should not make our parents pay because they don’t have money; they can’t afford paying for our fees. Also they should come and help my parents because they have no help.” (R8)

“The government, I don’t I know where to start from because I hear about the government, but who is the government if we don’t know even their offices and where they operates from? I think even going to the government’s office is wasting your time because, like me, I don’t know where or which office I could I
have started from. So I think they should be coming in our community to find out what happened for people like me and what made us not to continue with my studies.” (R18)

“Maybe the government should support and provide loans for people who want to continue with their studies. Because I think many people fail to continue with their studies because they parents have no money. I know so many people who want to study.” (R11)

“I think the government can do a lot to help. They should make education free to everybody. And maybe when that person gets money they can pay them back.” (R15)

4.3.5.5 Non-governmental organisations, private sector, and faith-based organisations

Several of the young girls suggested that NGOs, the private sector and faith-based organisations (FBO) should provide workshops and finance to young girls and boys:

“I don’t know anything about the organisations here but ...I see them in the television or radio. They should come here to us and help find out if we have problems. Maybe that will help because people have problems here, people are suffering a lot.” (R20)

R5 and R6 suggested that NGOs and FBOs could offer some skills development as well as provide loans to girls as they are often overlooked by donors and organisations:

“Leaders from different church should also provide support to women groups and other programs that will give skills to women so as they can employ us. Women try and always strive to provide jobs, but most of them are not educated like me. My friend who completed her studies (up to)Form Four, though she didn’t perform very well, she found a job and they were trained on how to express themselves and prepare their CV, but they are so many who finish their college but they don’t know how to look for employment. Just like me here, and we’re so many here in my community who didn’t finish school but we are not supported by
anyone because we didn’t finish our studies. So if we get some people here in our community maybe we also be educated we can get jobs.” (R5)

Most of the young girls were not aware of what the private sector was and what the sector was doing to address school drop-out. R8 considered that although the private sector was not doing enough, they could sponsor workshops so that young people know what is going on around them:

“I think they are not doing enough ....to help us poor people.”

“I think they are not doing enough; they have a lot of money but they are not helping us poor people.” (R19)

She added that she considered that mobile companies (Airtel and Vodacom) should assist in terms of developing the talents of young people in areas such as Tembeke district. R3 said that churches and mosques did little to address the challenges facing young girls:

“They should at least hold counselling programmes and workshops on the effects of early pregnancy and provide more supports that could prevent early pregnancy among young people.”

Hunt (2008) observes that non-state providers, in particular NGOs and faith-based organisations, can offer educational opportunities for children who have withdrawn or are excluded from the state system. Moreover, non-state providers offer opportunities in areas that state educational provision does not reach. Given that non-state providers (referring here mostly to NGO provision) target vulnerable children, often the types of provision available can cater for their specific needs.

**4.3.5.6 Activities to reduce dropout rate of girls**

In terms of activities which could help to reduce the dropout rate, most of the respondents suggested skills programmes:

“The government should put training centres here in my community and it should be cheap. We should also have enough support from our neighbours and our
church; maybe that can help. People have problems here. Sometimes [they] don’t have hope for the future; everyday people complain about life and how it is difficult to find jobs.” (R3)

“….we should have evening class programmes especially for those who cannot afford paying for four years. I think Vocational Educational and Training Authority should also open a branch in this area because their colleges are very far and most of us can’t afford paying for transport every day. Also I think teachers should find a way to help their students, especially when they have problems.” (R18)

Respondents also felt that they there was a need for playgrounds and recreational areas:

“First of all I think there are so many things that can be done to help young girls. If they can give us space to play football and to play netball it will be good for us because some time we don’t have places to go and play, so because of that, some girls are forced to go to the bars and pub and to the clubs because they don’t have anywhere to go.” (R20)

R14 felt that they needed:

“… training on safe sex both girls and boys. I didn’t know the importance of having safe sex because I didn’t know about sex until I got involved in a relation [ship].”

4.4 Summary

In this chapter the researcher presented a detailed discussion of the findings of the study, informed by the five research objectives. The main themes emerging from the findings reflect the various factors influencing the decision of the participants to drop out. These were found to include lack of financial, social and emotional support, loss of parents, parents’ illness, poor academic performance, pregnancy, early marriage, and rape. Most of the young girls who participated in this research were involved in doing chores at home. The findings revealed that, although these young girls had dropped out of school, they had dreams and aspirations of
pursuing their studies, and in the process, acquiring the various skills they needed to achieve their goals.

Several of the young girls indicated that the major obstacles in the way of their achieving their dreams was a lack of money necessary for them either to start their own small businesses, or to pay for training and transport to vocational and training centres as most of these centres were located far from their communities.

In addition to their descriptions of the challenges in their daily lives, these young girls expressed a desire for more support from their communities. Based on these findings, the researcher will present in Chapter Five a discussion about the main conclusions and recommendations arising from the research.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the main conclusions and recommendations based on the findings in Chapter four and is informed by the objectives of the research. The first part of the chapter highlights the conclusions drawn from the findings. Thereafter key recommendations, based on these conclusions, are made for addressing the problem of girl school dropouts in districts such as Temeke district in Tanzania. The recommendations are intended for the government, NGOs, private companies, schools, parents/community, and the girls themselves, on possible ways in which all of these stakeholders can reduce the high girls school dropout rate and improve the lives of the poor, particularly in terms of fulfilling their education and life goals.

The main conclusions drawn are from the themes which emerged from the interviews with the participants. These included the difficulties they experience in their everyday lives, the kind of support they do or do not receive from parents and/or guardians, the community, and from the school authorities in continuing with their schooling, the nature of their school experiences, their perceived reasons for dropping out from school, and their own responses in terms of what needs to change in order to reduce the school drop-out rate among girls.

Arising out of these conclusions from the findings, this research study presents recommendations to the various stakeholders for reducing the high numbers of school drop-outs amongst girls in such districts as Temeke, and for improving the general quality of life of young girls in such districts. These included government subsidies for the education and training of young girls, and, in partnership with NGOs and the private sector, the establishment of youth projects and vocational centres and programmes, counselling services, as well as employment opportunities and recreational facilities for young girls. The researcher recommends increased parental and community support of young girls both in and outside the school and that they contribute to improving and maintaining school environments. The researcher recommends that young girls themselves should exercise their agency in proactively seeking various kinds of support. These conclusions and recommendations are described in more detail in 5.2 and 5.3 below.
5.2 Main conclusions

Objective 1: To explore young girls current circumstances in the Temeke district.

Following from Objective 1 the following conclusions are reached:

- Most of the young girls in this study described themselves as hard working people, who like helping out with household chores such as cleaning the house, fetching water, helping with farm work, as well as selling things at the market.
- They described themselves as girls who, because of their gender, were expected to be particular in cleaning their bodies and to be cleaner than men.
- Girls should exercise care in their sexual relationships with boys to avoid becoming pregnant.
- Young girls considered that some men take advantage of girls simply because they think that girls are weak, which causes a situation where girls are mistreated by men and end up becoming pregnant.
- The majority of young girls described their talents and interests in a variety of ways. Most of their talents and interests revolved around being cooks, singers, soccer players, netballers and dancers.
- Young girls in this study met their friends while at school and enjoyed being with them because they had the same interests. Friends played an important role in their lives. Some participants had met their friends during soccer and choir practice, but they were not attached to these friends in the same way as they were to those whom they had met while still studying.
- Young girls generally felt that their home and community environments were difficult as described by most of participants. One common feature that emerged was that most participants’ parents and guardians were struggling with socio-economic difficulties.
- Young girls had left school because they had to take care of their siblings.
- The majority of young girls had no stable income to sustain their families. There was a need to get jobs and to contribute to the family income.
- Parents’ expectations were not high in regard to their children’s performance at school. Most of the participants reported that their parents/guardians wanted them to study
merely for the sake of getting jobs so that they could help their families. However, others wanted their children to concentrate on their studies, although they didn’t have enough money to support their children in completing their studies.

- In terms of community expectations of girls, most of the participants reported that people in their community were expecting them to get married since, as these community members saw it, they were ‘just sitting at home’.
- Young girls had dreams, but interestingly most of the participants wanted to begin training immediately for non-academic trades or professions, such as tailors and nurses, rather than go back to finish their secondary studies.
- Lack of financial resources was the most frequently cited obstacle to continuing their education, particularly because lack of finance it made it difficult for the young people to get to school and it was difficult to move from one point to another in their search for jobs or to be able to start a small business. Family responsibilities also served as an obstacle in the way to their achieving their dreams, mainly because the young people were not able to save or invest their money.

**Objective 2: To explore the kinds of support young girls receive from parents and/or guardians and school authorities to continue with their schooling.**

Following from Objective 2 the following conclusions are reached:

- Young girls only got a small measure of support from their parents and they received very little or no support from anyone else.
- Young girls received some help from the government and the school, but they did not receive social and emotional support when needed.
- Parents find it difficult to afford to pay for girls to continue with their studies at secondary level.
- The secondary schools were often not equipped with computers, books and toilets at the schools which they had attended.
- For young girls there was no socialising clubs and they did not have clubs for educational activities and they were not aware of any programmes being run by different organisations in their community. Whilst they are familiar with and attended church and
the mosque they did not know if these religious institutions were running any educational or uplifting programmes.

Objective 3: To describe the experiences that young girls go through during their school life.

Following from Objective 3 the following conclusions are reached:

- For young girls it was hard to board public taxies and buses as the drivers and conductors were very harsh and this resulted in their having to wait for long periods in the course of their journey to school. This made young girls late for school which in turn led to them being punished at school.
- Participants had positive experiences while at school. Some of the teachers were friendly and they made friends and enjoyed being with their friends.
- After school they had to spend most of their time and energy doing house work at home, cooking and washing clothes, instead of reading or doing homework.
- Few participants had been involved in some kind of activity, such as netball or choir, after school.
- Some teachers were not very friendly towards them and used to give them punishments.
- Most of young girls did not like the way the boys at school behaved towards female teachers and female students.

Objective 4: To find out from young girls what led them to drop out from school.

Following from Objective 4 the following conclusions are reached:

- Lack of financial support leads many young girls to drop out of school.
- Early marriage and pregnancy is one of the reasons why young girls dropped out of school.
- One of the common reasons for young girls dropping out of school was the death of parents.
- Young girls recognise that their own foolishness and short-sightedness caused them to drop out of school.
Parents of girls who had dropped out of school were sad about this, as were their peers, but at the same time they had not received any support from parents or peers to continue with their schooling.

Parents played a major role in young girls dropping out of school in the sense of their parents not having the money to pay for their school fees. Most of them mentioned that no one had advised them against dropping out from school; they had simply had no means to pay their fees.

Young girls do not have any place where they can seek help and/or they do not seek help when they have problems.

Objective 5: To find out what needs to change in order to reduce the school dropout rate among girls.

Following from Objective 5 the following conclusions are reached:

- Young girls can play a leading role in defining their challenges by means of hard work at school, being responsible for their actions and also by seeking help.
- Most young girls felt that the government should give poor parents financial support. Financial support was mentioned as government’s major responsibility in terms of reducing school dropouts.
- More skills centres need to be established in the immediate community since most of these centres were at the time located very far from the communities where the girls live and they could not afford paying for the transport to get to them.
- Communities should be more supportive instead of judging them for dropping out of school or for becoming pregnant, and that they should help them, especially those who drop out due to pregnancy.
- Parents should take on the responsibility for their children’s continuing education by ensuring that their children are studying.

- Teachers should follow up on students who keep missing school. If a student misses school for one year (due to pregnancy, illness, or financial issues) and then returns to school, she should not be chased away from the school, but should be taken back to finish her studies.
Young girls were not aware of programmes being run by non-governmental organisations, faith-based organisations and the private sector. These NGOs and FBOs could offer skills programmes as well as micro credit services to girls as they are often overlooked, in favour of women, men and boys.

There is a need for playgrounds and recreation centres in order to provide an outlet for their recreational and social activities and to develop their talents.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study a number of conclusions was made. The researcher makes the following recommendations to the government of Tanzania, the NGOs, to schools and to parents, guardians, the community and to young girls.

5.3.1 Recommendations to the government

The recommendations to government are:

- Government should introduce illness grants for children whose parents are sick in order for them to continue with school.
- The government should reach out to young girls who drop out of school and encourage them to participate in youth projects. A number of initiatives and projects already exist in Dar es Salaam that are aimed at women empowerment. This would encourage and develop young girls not only to be productive, but also to engage meaningfully in development activities, thus developing their potential and capabilities.
- Government in working with other stakeholders should make resources such as loans or grants available for young girls who wish to venture into business. In partnership with other stakeholders, government should support entrepreneurship development initiatives of young girls by not only providing with loans, but also business skills development.
- Government should support young people who wish to pursue further education by providing bursaries and loans to disadvantaged girls such as those living in Temeke. The bursaries and loans should not only be for university students, but also for those in secondary schools.
Government should provide adequate funding to VETA (Vocational Education Training Authority), to enable it to fund students from disadvantaged communities and training centres.

Government should create an environment conducive for private sector companies to invest in Temeke in order to create employment opportunities for young people in the area.

Government should promote strong partnerships with the private sector to provide young girls access to apprenticeship and internship programmes to enable them to gain work experience and thus employment opportunities.

Government should set up more recreation facilities, such as sporting centres, as a way of keeping young girls productively busy. This has the potential of keeping youths away from various scenarios to which they are vulnerable, such as early pregnancy, drugs and crime.

Government could also look at models elsewhere in the world and in developing countries, particularly in Africa, for example, the South African Education Department’s no-fee policy for schools in high poverty level areas, as well as free transport and feeding schemes for learners at these schools. This is in accordance with the Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution (1996).

5.3.2 Recommendations to NGOs

The recommendations to NGOs are:

- In partnership with government, NGOs, should publicise and promote their youth programmes in Temeke to make them known and accessible to young girls.
- NGOs in partnership with local government should open offices and target young girls with services such as counselling and the importance of going to school. NGOs should develop holistic programmes that not only support young people in making productive healthy choices, but also with skills that include changing young people’s attitudes towards education.
- In partnership with government, NGOs should support young girls in seeing the link between education, business development and employment by linking young people to
business role models and mentors in the Temeke district. Furthermore, NGOs should support young girls to access funding to help them realise their dreams, obtain jobs, start their own businesses and find productive and paid work.

- NGOs, in working with girls, should advocate for the inclusion of young girls in decision making; this would empower girls to speak about their problems and influence the government to come up with policies and programmes that support girls to realise their education goals.

5.3.3 Recommendations to schools

The recommendations to schools are:

- Schools, in partnership with parents, community, government and NGOs should motivate their students, especially girls, by introducing rewards and incentives for students; this will motivate students to do well in and inspire them to complete their studies.
- Schools, in partnership with VETA (Vocational Education Training Authority), and government, should provide skills-based education to ensure that students are exposed to some useful skills during and after their school education.
- Schools should enter into partnerships with other stakeholders to support orphans to continue with their studies even after their having to interrupt their studies.
- Schools in partnership with government, should provide life skills workshops to young people aimed specifically at improving Sexual Reproductive Health Education, targeting sexual behaviour change for students at all levels. This programme should include the transition of young people to adulthood, an awareness of the negative effects of early marriage on a young adult’s career and life, and the importance of setting goals.

5.3.4 Recommendations to parents/ guardians and community

The recommendations to parents or guardian and community are:

- Parents and community members, in partnership with government, NGOs and the private sector, should establish a forum to discuss issues concerning their children’s education,
and the ways in which they, working collaboratively, can improve the environments of schools.

- Parents and community members, in partnership with banks and microcredit companies, should come together and develop innovative programmes, such as that of Basket of Love, aimed at supporting young girls financially in order to further their studies. This could be done through both financial support and through helping young people to open saving accounts.

- Parents and community members should be more supportive of young girls instead of judging and blaming those girls who become pregnant. Their support should take the form of sexual education and guidance, and positive advice on the effects of early pregnancy and early marriage.

- Parents, in partnership with schools, should support young people with establishing and running after school study programmes. This will help young girls to focus on and consolidate their studies instead of their having to do house chores or being involved in unproductive behaviour.

5.3.5 Recommendations to young girls

The recommendations to young girls are:

- Young girls who drop out of school should be supported with formation of an organisation/club that could act as a platform to share their experiences with one another as well actively sensitise other girls on the importance of education. In addition, they could use this organisation to engage with government and other stakeholders to address the various challenges they were facing such as access to finance to start up their own businesses.

- Young girls should actively seek information about the various programmes and projects around their communities and if possible do voluntary community work in order to develop job skills and capacity.

- Young girls should come together and establish a forum to speak about their problems together and discuss solutions amongst themselves.
5.4 Conclusion

This study explored the factors contributing to school dropout among girls in the Temeke district of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The study adopted an exploratory qualitative approach using semi-structured, one-on-one interviews with the participants. The findings of the study revealed that participants were forced to discontinue their studies for various reasons, which included lack of financial support on the part of both their parents and of government, loss and illness of parents, poor academic performance, pregnancy, rape and early marriage. Cultural norms (both Swahili and Muslim) accounted for early marriage, due to pressure from their communities. Cultural norms, together with financial pressures and the fact that it was difficult for them to find jobs as they had neither training nor certificates, accounted for the fact that most of the young girls in this research were involved in domestic and agricultural chores. One of the interesting findings was that, although young girls had dropped out of school, they nevertheless had dreams and aspirations of pursuing further education and acquiring different skills in order for them to achieve their goals.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A - LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

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10th June 2013

Dear Sir/Madam,

Introducing Ms Jeniphar Rwuchungura

This letter serves to introduce Ms Jeniphar Rwuchungura who will be undertaking an exploratory study on the factors contributing to school dropout among girls in Tembeke district of Dar es Salaam. Jeniphar is a Masters student studying Social Development at our university. She is undertaking this study as part of her degree and is a requirement of this programme.

She is undertaking this study for academic purposes and she will conduct interviews with girls who dropped out of school in Tembeke district. Upon completion of the study, she commits to share the findings of her study with the Ministry of Community Development Gender and Children in the form of a bound copy of the full research report. We would greatly appreciate any support that your office could avail our student during this exercise in your area of operation.

Should you need any clarification on any of the above, kindly contact me on phone numbers +2721 650 4221 and +27 825680200 or alternatively you can write to me at eric.atmore@uct.ac.za.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully,

ERIC ATMORE
Associate Professor
TEMEKE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL
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Mandela Road  
DAR ES SALAAM,  
TANZANIA.

Date: 13/06/2013

MUNICIPAL SECONDARY EDUCATION OFFICER.
TEMEKE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

Please refer to the heading above

This is to inform you that, permission is granted to JENIPHAR RWECHUNGURA from 13/06/2013 to conduct research on FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO SCHOOL DROPOUT AMONG GIRLS.

This permit will effect from date of this letter.

Please give them necessary assistance.

For: MUNICIPAL DIRECTOR  
TEMEKE

Student/Researcher: JENIPHAR RWECHUNGURA
APPENDIX C - INTERVIEW GUIDE

THEME: Young girl’s current situation

- What does it mean to be a girl from your perspective/circumstances?
- What are your parents/community expectations? Vis via school, marriage, church, business, contribution to family welfare
- What are your interests/values/ talents?
- What kind of friends do you have?
- What are your dreams?
- How do you hope to achieve these dreams?
- What activities are you currently engaged in?
- How do you describe your home/community environment?

THEME: School and community support to girls

- What kind of assistance did you receive i.e. financial (school requirements, awards, sponsorship.), social (i.e. coaching, girls clubs, mentorship, motivation), emotional (i.e. medical assistance) and educational(i.e. guidance & counseling, home work)
- What kind of facilities, services (communication channels) were available to you while at school?
- How useful/helpful were these services to meeting your needs?
- What kinds of programmes are run by FBOs, NGO’s, private companies, government in your community?
- Are you aware of these programmes?
- Did you make use of these programmes? If NOT
- Why did you not make use of these programmes?
- How accessible are these programmes to you?

THEME: Girls’ experiences with school

- How would you describe your journey to school?
- How would you describe your feelings/experience while you were at school with friends/teachers/school work/activities?
• Which after-school activities were you involved in?
• Which positive experiences did you have while at school?
• Which negative experiences did you have while at school?
• Which of these experiences stand out for you?

**THEME: School drop-out factors**

• How would you describe the process of dropping out of school?
• Why did you discontinue with your studies?
• What role did your parent/guardian/school/community play in your dropping out of school?
• How did your parents/guardian/school/community react to your dropping out of school?
• How did your friends/peers react to you dropping out of school?
• Did anyone advise you not to drop out of school?

❖ To examine if young girls are aware of programmes that support girl child education in their community

**THEME: What needs to change to address school drop-out in Tanzania?**

• What should be the role of girls/parents/guardians/community/NGOs/FBO/Government/Private sector?

• What activities do you think would reduce the dropout rate of girls?
❖ We have come to the close of the interview. You are free to share with me anything
❖ Thank you for your time and participation.
APPENDIX D - BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

Kindly answer the questions in the table below to provide important information about yourself. You can write in the correct response (e.g. your age). If there is a question you do not want to respond to, just leave it blank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of district</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lived with who at the time of dropping out from school? [kindly specify]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If parents [both or single parent]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What Form did you drop out from school? Form [kindly specify] Year [kindly specify]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How far was the school?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How long have you been residing in this community? Years Months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>