

**THE EFFECT OF POVERTY AND CULTURAL PRACTICES ON GIRL-CHILD
EDUCATION IN SOBA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, KADUNA STATE
(2011 – 2017)**

BY

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Declaration

I declare that the work in this Dissertation titled The Effect of Poverty and Cultural Practices on Girl-Child Education in Soba Local Government Area, Kaduna State has been performed by me in the Department of Local Government and Development Studies, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this Dissertation was previously presented for another Degree or Diploma at this or any other institution.

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Date

Certification

This Dissertation titled THE EFFECT OF POVERTY AND CULTURAL PRACTICES ON GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION IN SOBA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, KADUNA STATE by Dauda AYUBA meets the regulations governing the award of the Master of Science (M.Sc.) of Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its' contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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Dedication

This research work is dedicated to my lovely families, the family of Mr. and Mrs. Ayuba Yarima and that of Mr. and Mrs. James Audu.

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Abstract

Girl-child education as a global concern has been shown to be a difficult task that is not easily achievable due to poverty, cultural practices amongst many impediment. The study was carried out to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State from 2011 to 2017. The main objective of this study is to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area. System theory by Ludwing Von Bertalanffy was adopted as the theoretical framework to guide the study. The methodology used for the study was survey design and the primary data collections were questionnaires administration, interviews and observation. The secondary data were collected via records and documents. The study used a total sample of 400 respondents. The analysis of data was done using multiple linear regressions, with the aid of SPSS version 20 software. The regression result from the analysis revealed that poverty and cultural practice have significant negative effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. However, school infrastructures have significant positive effect on girl-child education. The study deduced that poverty hinders girl-child education in Soba local government area of Kaduna state. Therefore, this study recommends among others that community members should be empowered with skills and credit facilities necessary to boost their livelihood. This will impact significantly on their financial capability to support girl-child education.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviation	-	Meaning
UNESCO Organisation	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
OOSC	-	Out of School Children
UIS	-	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
DHS	-	Demographic Health Survey
UNICEF	-	United Nations International Children Education Fund
LDCs	-	Less Developed Countries
USD	-	United State Dollar
OLS	-	Ordinary Least Square
FGM	-	Female Genital Mutilation
UBE	-	Universal Basic Education
HIV/AIDS	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
OST	-	Open System Theory
LGA	-	Local Government Area
LGEA	-	Local Government Education Authority
PTA	-	Parents Teachers Association
SBMC	-	School Based Management Committee
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Science
ADPs	-	Agricultural Development Programmes
PHCs	-	Primary Health Centres
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
SBS	-	State Bureau of Statistics
SSCE	-	Senior School Certificate Examination
GCE	-	General Certificate of Education
NCE	-	National Certificate of Education
OND	-	Ordinary National Diploma
HND	-	Higher National Diploma
NEEDS	-	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
GEP	-	Gender Education Programme
STUMEC	-	Students Tutoring, Mentoring and Counselling
GEM	-	Girls' Education Movement
CCT	-	Conditional Cash Transfer
DFID	-	Department for International Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Girl-child education is a major issue of concern in most developing countries of the world today, especially in Sub - Saharan Africa, where a large number of young girls do not attend school. The out-of-school children estimated globally is 115 million and more than 53% of them are girls, while, over 80% are in Sub – Sahara Africa (Nmadu, 2010; UNESCO, 2010). Globally, about 263 million children and youth are out of school, according to new data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS, 2018). The total includes 61 million children of primary school age, 60 million of lower secondary school age, and includes the first ever estimate of those of upper secondary school age at 142 million (UIS, 2018). According to UIS data, 15 million girls of primary-school age will never get the chance to learn to read or write in primary schools compared to about 10 million boys. Over half of these girls - 9 million - live in sub-Saharan Africa (UIS, 2018). The implications of girls that are not educated in societies would end up less skilled, less healthy, with fewer choices, and not to contribute to the social, economic and political development of their societies. Then to become uneducated women means high risk of poverty, sexual exploitation, maternal and child mortality, and other types of violence (Nmadu, 2010). Thus Yusuf and Ajere (2000) argue that women that are well educated in society usually prosper in ways that will increase their productivity and also improve their economic standing.

Of all regions, Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest rates of education exclusion. Over one-fifth of children between the ages of about 6 and 11 are out of school, followed by one-third of youth between the ages of about 12 and 14. According to UIS data, almost 60% of youth

between the ages of about 15 and 17 are not in school. Girls are more likely than boys never to set foot in a classroom, despite all the efforts and progress made over the past two decades. Poverty creates an additional barrier for girls. In Northern Africa and Western Asia, according to UIS Report analysis, among the poorest in the region, gaps are far wider: only 85 girls for every 100 boys of lower secondary school age attend school. Among those of upper secondary school age, only 77 of the poorest girls for every 100 of the poorest boys attend (UIS, 2018).

Nigeria grapples with increasing number of out-of-school children annually. This trend varies from zone to zone. For instance, in South Eastern Nigeria, which is dominated by the people of Igbo ethnic group, there is however low boy child enrolment in schools as compared to girls. This is because the boy children are sent for apprenticeship in trading which is the dominant occupation of the people. The opposite is the case in Northern Nigeria where there is low girl-child enrolment as compared to boys. More than 93 million children and youth of primary and secondary school ages are out of school across the region. At least 15 million of these children will never set foot in a classroom, with girls facing the biggest barriers. According to the Demographic Health Survey (DHS, 2015), the number of out-of-school children in Nigeria has risen from 10.5 million in 2015 to 13.2 million in 2018. Nigeria accounts for more than one in five (5) out-of-school children and 45% of out-of-school children in West Africa (UNICEF 2018). UNICEF explained that in the North-east and North-West states of Nigeria, more than half of primary school aged girls are not in school. The education of girls in the northern cluster has always been a thorny and unresolved issue. Typically, girl child education in northern states follows a specific pattern which ends with the girls being denied from the system, the chances to attend primary school or further their

education beyond primary school. This is due to gender inequality especially in Northern Nigeria, which is promoted by religious and cultural practices, and has grave consequences for both the individual and the society making the girl-child dysfunctional member of the society.

So many factors have been reported to be responsible for low enrolment of girls in schools in Northern Nigeria. Mukhtar et al. (2011) identified religious misinterpretation, cultural practice, poverty, early marriage, illiteracy, inadequate school infrastructure as the main issues that prevent girl child from going to school. With almost 70 per cent of the Nigerian population living below the poverty line, girls are often sent to work in the markets or hawk wares on the streets (National Bureau of Statistics, 2017). Many Nigerian parents, especially in large families with limited resources, enroll their boys in school rather than girls. Early marriage and teenage pregnancy also prevent girls from going to school. Most schools lack adequate classroom space, furniture and equipment, and are often too remotely located. Water, health and sanitation facilities are usually inadequate while pupil-teacher ratios could be as high as 1:100 in urban slums (UIS, 2018). Some parents also keep their daughters out of school due to misinterpretation of religion. Boys are generally known to be given more opportunities to ask and answer questions, to use learning materials, and to lead groups. Research shows that girls are often given less time on task than boys in schools. The attitude of the society to education is male dominance and preference, and decisions are made in such a way that they favour the male child. This attitude naturally determines the type of education women and girls are allowed to pursue (Korede, 2008).

Kaduna State, like every other state in Northern Nigeria, grapples with low girl child enrolment in schools and colleges. This has become a major source of concern and worries to

State Government, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and other stakeholders in the educational sector. This ugly trend has, over the years, continued to deepen the educational and economic inequality between men and women in the state. Furthermore, the rural areas in Kaduna State are the worst hit; they do not only lack schools but also see no need for enrolment of the girl child. This dehumanizing ignorance has continued to plague most rural dwellers in the north from year to year. It is really a pathetic situation where people, from generation to generation, fail to realize that they could be of any use not only to themselves but to the larger society. The education of girl child is significant in our contemporary society, because it is a method where she will acquire necessary skills, knowledge, realizes her potentials and use them for herself to achieve self – actualization. Education transforms a girl child to become useful to the society’s development; economically, physically, and mentally (Atama, 2012). Therefore, girl child education is a strong weapon that resulted in poverty reduction, improve health and nutrition, reduce inequality, reduces women’s fertility rates, lower infant and child mortality rate and increase women’s labour force participation rate and earning in the society (Etumabo, 2016).

The 2017 Kaduna State School Census Report revealed an uncomfortable situation of education from enrolment to completion, especially of the girl-child, where only 45% of students in public schools were girls. In Soba Local Government Area, the net enrollment for girls is about 35%, while for boys it is about 65%. The real cause of worry is the very high percentage of drop-outs, the number of girl-child who in a given school year that fail to return the following year leaving school without completion. Improving the education of girls is an important requirement to reduce poverty amidst the populace and foster development. Hence, it is imperative to understand the factors that affect girl-child education, particularly in the

context of developing countries where poverty and cultural practices are the major impediments in access to education. It is on this note that this study is out to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Girl-child education as a global concern has been shown to be a difficult task that is not easily achievable due to poverty amongst many impediments. It has been revealed in literature that many Nigerians are living below poverty line (Ehiametalor, 2005). Nigeria as an independent entity is undoubtedly characterized by very harsh economic conditions. This has resulted into scarce resources. As a result of this, choice has to be made between whom to send to school. Most often, it is the girl-child that remains at home. Due to poverty, girls get withdrawn from schools so as to help to supplement family income through hawking, trading or even working on the farm so as to support the family. In some cases, the girls are given out as house helps or even sent into early marriage because of a huge bride price (UNICEF, 2007). A cursory glance at the daily market activities in most rural markets in Soba Local Government Area revealed a disturbing scene of school age going children roaming the street hawking rather than been in school and most of these children are girls.

Millions of children around the world do not have access to clean water or decent toilets at school, putting girls' education in particular at risk. The first ever global assessment of water and sanitation in schools carried out by the World Health Organisation and UNICEF – show that 620 million children do not have decent toilets at school and around 900 million cannot wash their hands properly. Ensuring that children attend school and complete their education is crucial to a country's development but a lack of decent hygiene facilities discourages

pupils, particularly girls, from attending school and completing their education. The assessment found a one third of schools around the world do not have adequate toilet facilities and nearly half – 47 per cent – do not provide soap for children. The report underlines the importance of hygiene and sanitation facilities in schools, particularly for girls, who are more likely to attend school and complete their education if these are in place.

School infrastructure is another factor that scared parent not to send their children to school but rather keep them at home. By 2015, the world's poorest countries need almost four million new classrooms, largely in rural and marginalized areas, to accommodate those who are not in school (UNICEF, 2017). Children in rural areas sometimes walk 1 to 2 hours daily to attend school because there are no school building near where they live. The distance between home and school is a greater problem for girls, especially in rural areas, where schools are more likely to be distant from small villages. Safety concerns make parents reluctant to let girls walk long distances to school. School facilities are inadequate in many ways, include being overcrowded, lacking in adequate sanitary facilities and lacking water for hygiene. The health implications of inadequate toilets and sanitation are very serious. Girls in particular are pushed out of school if facilities are inadequate. Children may be turned away from school when its official enrolment capacity is reached. Inadequacy of learning space and associated facilities is a pervasive factors for out of school children in rural and densely populated urban settings (UNICEF, 2018).

In most the primary schools visited in Soba LGA there are no separate toilet facilities for girls. In fact, some of the rural schools visited, lack toilet facilities, what they have is grass cover field used as toilet and of course the open space and bushes as conveniences. Sources of water is another serious problem in most schools in Soba LGA. Kelly Ann Naylor (2018),

UNICEF global chief of water, sanitation and hygiene, said: “If education is the key to helping children escape poverty, access to water and sanitation is key to helping children safely maximise their education. “To neglect this is to be careless with the wellbeing and health of children. However, young girls may forego education because schools are not safe or lack girl-appropriate facilities such as separate toilet facilities for girls (UNICEF, 2018).

Socio-cultural practices in most African societies, especially in Nigeria, see the girl-child as a wife and mother is conceived as the utmost priority not only by her parents, but also by the girl-child herself. However, in the Nigeria context, gender discrepancy in education is sustained by cultural factors. The wrong notion that her place is in the kitchen, to be seen and not to be heard have had very serious implications on the girl-child’s ability at self-actualization. Obinaju (2014), notes that out of the 130 million children in Less Developed Countries without access to education, 81 million are girls. Also certain cultural and traditional practices like female circumcision, early marriages etc are to say the least unprogressive because they lead not only to absenteeism distraction, but also to eventual dropout of girls from school. More so, the ethnic and values of some religions do not help matter, as they are often perceived with tremendous suspicions.

In Soba Local Government Area, for instance boys have the highest number of enrollment. The net enrollment for girls is about 35%, while for boys it is about 65%. But the real cause of worry is the very high percentage of drop-outs, the number of girl-child who in a given school year that fail to return the following year leaving school without completion as a result of inability to pay school charges, poor learning classrooms, and early marriage amongst others. Many families are just too poor to afford uniform for their children faced with such daunting challenges opt to educate the boys over the girls (Ado, 2018). This is a serious problem. In

this scenario, the girls are educationally marginalized as they are given less opportunity than boys. It is against this backdrop that this study is poised to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practice on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

1.3 Research Questions

This study is out to address the following research questions:

- i. What is the effect of poverty on girl child education in Soba Local Government Area?
- ii. How has cultural practices affect girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area?

1.4 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The main aim of the study is to examine the effects of poverty and cultural practices on girl child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. The specific objectives are to;

- i. To examine the effect of poverty on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area.
- ii. To determine the effect of cultural practice on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the following hypotheses have been developed for testing:

H₀₁ There is no significant effect between poverty and girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area

H₀₂ There is no significant effect between cultural practices and girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area

1.6 Significance of the Study

This research is necessary due to existing issues on the status of girl-child education in northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria (UNICEF 2012) and Kaduna State cannot be exempted from the issues that served as a barriers to girl's education. Aliyu (2009) conducts a study to investigate the attitudes of parents' towards girl-child education in Kaduna State as perceived by teachers and principals. Kainuwa and Yusuf (2013) examine the cultural tradition and practices of parents as barriers to girl-child education in Zamfara State. Several studies (Dechiara & Crosbie, 2001; De Jong, 2001; Feliz, 2004; Tanner, 2006; Gometi, 2010; Usen, 2016) have shown that effective learning is enhanced by the provision of adequate educational facilities and school buildings in quantity and quality. These studies indicated that the poverty and cultural practices have strong effect on pupil's school attendance, participation in academic activities and academic performance. Despite these studies, there is a need for more studies to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in primary schools in Soba Local Government of Kaduna State. This is the gap that the study is to fill by seeking to determine the independent variable with most significant effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Theoretically, this study serves as a reference point to students, researchers and academia by providing up to date primary and secondary data. It will provide an avenue for further research study through recommendations at the end of the study. At the level of policy, the findings of this study lend credence to policy makers in education sector especially basic

education in Kaduna State and the country as a whole. It is also hoped that the Soba Local Government Education Authority (L.G.E.A), and the Kaduna State Ministry of Education will find this work useful in educational policy so that children of school age in Soba Local Government Area are put on the pedestal of equal and adequate educational opportunities for all citizens.

Practically, this study is necessary in order to improve rate of public primary education from its present reality in Soba Local Government Area, especially the girl-child education in order to give more women opportunity to acquire adequate knowledge and skills to become useful to themselves and contribute to nation building.

1.7 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The main focus of this study is to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. The choice of Soba Local Government is due to its rural and remote nature which is associated with poverty and prevalent cultural practices. This study focuses on girl-child education in areas such as girls' enrolment, retention and completion in public primary schools in Soba Local Government Area, which was considered adequate and sufficiently representative to make tentative generalization. The study covers a period from 2011 to 2017, which is one democratic dispensation and half way to another new democratic dispensation in order to make us understand and appreciate what transpired between one administration and another. The researcher encountered some of the following limitations in the course of this study such as disinclination of respondents to provide useful information. Most of them claimed to be very absorbed by their primary assignment.

1.8 Definition of Concepts

The concepts to be discussed and operationally defined as an important variable drawn from the hypothetical viewpoint of this study are:

a. Poverty

Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon. The World Development Report 2000/2001 (see World Bank, 2001) summarizes the various dimensions as a lack of opportunity, lack of empowerment and a lack of security. Operationally, poverty can be presented as follows:

- i. Inability to send girl child to school viz a viz boy child
- ii. Inability to have good school uniform
- iii. Inability to pay school levies as at when due
- iv. Inability to provide adequate learning materials

b. Cultural Practices

Cultural practice refers to the manifestation of a culture or sub-culture especially with regards to the traditional and customary practices of a particular ethnic or cultural groups (Bolaji, 2007). It can be operationally defined as:

- i. Early marriage
- ii. House chores
- iii. Parents preference between boy and girl-child
- iv. Hawking

c. Girl Child Education

The concept of girl child education is over specialized and highly controlled trainings acquired in schools, colleges and other institutions of higher learning, (Chidebelu, 2009). Girl-child education also includes areas of gender equality, access to education and its connection to the alleviation of poverty, good governance, which are major ingredients in averting crime against women. The term girl child education is defined in the perspective of this study to include:

- i. Girls' enrolment in public primary school
- ii. Girls' retention in public primary school
- iii. Completion rate of girl-child in public primary school

Figure 1.1: Research Model

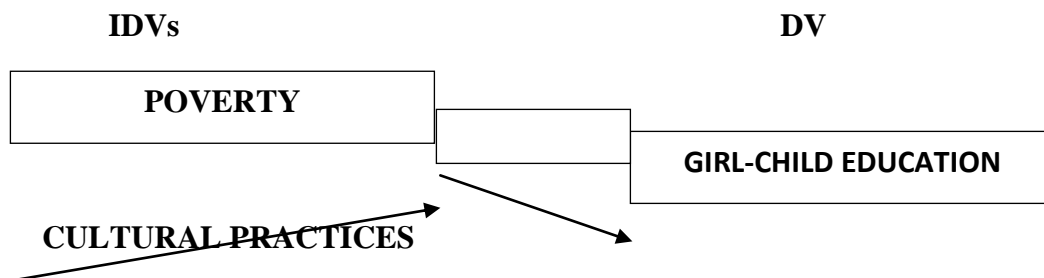


Figure 1.1 above shows a multi-causal effects where independent variables affect the dependent variable.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature in respect to some topical issues of interest to this study. The review was undertaken in the following sub-themes: The concept of poverty, cultural practices, school infrastructures, girl-child education, and review of empirical studies. The purpose is to identify areas of weakness and strength in the previous works from which some useful lessons can be learnt. The study also adopted the system theory as its theoretical framework.

2.2 Conceptual Clarifications

2.2.1 The Concept of Poverty

Poverty defies objective definition because of its multi-dimensional nature. There is yet no universally accepted definition of poverty. There is always the difficulty in deciding where to draw the line between the poor and the “non-poor”. Aluko (1975) refers to poverty as a lack of command over basic consumption needs, which mean, in other words, that there is an inadequate level of consumption giving rise to insufficient food, clothing and/or shelter, and moreover the lack of certain capacities, such as being able to participate with dignity in society.

Poverty has been defined as the inability to maintain a minimum standard of living (World Bank Report, 1990). The report constructed two indices based on a minimum level of consumption in order to show the practical aspect of the concept. While the first index was a country specific poverty line, the second was global, allowing cross-country comparisons (Walton, 1990). The United Nations has introduced the use of such other indices as life

expectancy, infant mortality rate, primary school enrolment ratio and number of persons per physician.

Poverty has also been conceptualized in both the “relative” and “absolute” sense. This is generally based on whether relative or absolute standards are adopted in the determination of the minimum income required to meet basic life’s necessities. The relative conceptualization of poverty is largely income-based or ultimately so. Accordingly, poverty depicts a situation in which a given material means sustenance within a given society is hardly enough for subsistence in that society (Townsend, 1962). What is most important to deduce from these different definition is that, poverty must be conceived, defined and measured in absolute quantitative ways that are relevant and valid for analysis and policy making in that given time and space.

Dudley (1975) sees poverty largely in the light of the need for personal growth in Nigeria. According to him, the basic needs, which any society should provide for its members should include such things as food, clothing, shelter, education, health, work and mobility. Dudley provided some basic indicators of the state of basic services especially in relation to the poor in Nigeria. Most of the discussion was at a national aggregate level. Other than showing the general adverse situation in the rural and urban areas, inequality, portable water supply, he also refers to issues of nutrition, for instance, it was stated that 30% of the household in Oyo State are malnourished. He also stated that in Lagos State more than 72% of the household live in one-room houses. He also highlighted that access to health services may vary from two-third of the population in the South to one-third in the North.

The issue of conceptualizing poverty within a basic needs framework, specifying these needs and settling minimum levels for them within the Nigerian context, has been the focus of studies by Ogwumike (1998) and Ogwumike and Ekpenyong (1995). These studies generally defined poverty as a household's inability to provide sufficient income to satisfy its basic need for food, shelter, education, clothing and transportation. Minimum standards for food are based on nutritional requirements in terms of calories and protein consumption habit and customs are also allowed for in the selection of the food items to give the required national stock. Shelter and education, the number of persons per room and the number of children attending school (and the level of schooling) respectively, are adopted as minimum standard. However, the problem of defining minimum standard for clothing and transportation has persisted.

Poverty is watching your child dying because you don't have the money to take her to the hospital ... not even a penny to buy food for yourself. It is when a man wakes up in the morning ... and realizes that he has to start a fight for him to be able to get out of the house. Poverty is spending the daytime hawking on the street and missing school in the process (Magnus, 2007)

According to Hazell and Haddad (2001) poverty consists of two interacting deprivations – physiological and social. Physiological deprivation describes the inability of individuals to meet or achieve basic material and physiological needs which can be measured either as a lack of income, which limits access to food and to education, health, housing, water and sanitation services or by the failure to achieve desired outcome, such as a high quality diet rich in micronutrients, health status, educational attainment and the quality of health, water and sanitation services received, while social deprivation refers to an absence of elements that

are empowering, such as autonomy, time, information, dignity and self-esteem. Lack of empowerment is also reflected in exclusion from important decision-making processes, even when the outcome are of considerable importance to the poor – for example, decision about public investment in the local community, management of common properties and priorities for agricultural research and extension.

Poverty has been defined by the poor themselves in the World Bank Study in 2000, which dwells in relation to several dimensions of human life such as hunger, poor material standards, no assets, poor health, lack of education, insecurity, lack of freedom, abuse of human rights, no voice and power in decision making. Thus, revealing the multi-dimensional nature of poverty: material dimension (income, assets); physical dimension (hunger, poor health, poor education); and psychological dimension (voice, freedom, power).

Poverty is not simply about having low income: it is about multidimensional deprivation – hunger, under nutrition, illiteracy, unsafe drinking water, lack of access to basic health services, social discrimination, physical insecurity and political exclusion. Widespread chronic poverty occurs in a world that has the knowledge and resources to eradicate it. The chronically poor are not a distinct group. Most of them are “working poor”, with a minority unable to engage in labour markets. They include people who are discriminated against; socially marginalized people; members of ethnic, religious, indigenous, nomadic and caste group; migrants and bonded labourers; refugees and internal displacees; disabled people; those with ill health; and the young and old. In many contexts, poor women and girls are the most likely to experience lifelong poverty.

Poverty affects many aspect of human condition including physical, moral and psychological. Therefore, poverty is defined in various ways depending on scholars' perceptions. Poverty is more recognized than defined (Aboyade, 1975). It is difficult to provide a single, absolute and standardised definition of poverty rather than defining it in relative terms. Different authors provide different definitions for the concept of poverty. It is a broad, multifaceted, and multi-dimensional concept that involves the economic, social, political, and environmental well-being of the people (World Bank, 2010). In the World Bank Development Report (2012) poverty is defined as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living, not having enough to eat, a low life expectancy, a higher rate of infant mortality, a low educational standard, enrolment and opportunities, poor drinking water, inadequate health care, unfit housing conditions, and the lack of active participation in the decision-making process. Poverty is therefore pronounced deprivation in well-being and as seen, comprises many dimensions (Neuman, 2009). It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity.

In addition, poverty also encompasses poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, the lack of a voice, and the insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one's life (Grimm, 2012; Connell, 2010). Furthermore, poverty is also characterised by the failure of individuals, households or entire communities to command sufficient resources to satisfy their basic needs, namely, food, shelter, clothing, health and education; it is a state of deprivation and insecurity (Abebe, 2009). Implicit to the above, poverty therefore indicates the extent to which an individual does without resources. In most cases, poor people lack the capability to function effectively in society; hence they feel marginalised and stigmatised.

This study observed that what might be called poverty in developed countries might not be defined thus in the study area. The World Bank Development Report (2012) for example, defines poverty as living on less than 1.25 USD per day. This definition may not apply to people in Nigeria, especially those in the rural areas and in the study area. The definition of poverty in rural Nigeria goes further to look at people without cattle, goats, donkeys, pastures, high yields, large farming fields, many wives and children to till the land. In the urban and mining towns, people without their own houses, land to build on, television sets, refrigerators, and those who cannot afford to pay their electricity and water bills and their rent, are regarded as poor. Thus, material wealth can be used to measure the extent of poverty in Nigeria. Given the above, understanding poverty is not an easy task, and reaching a common and universally agreeable definition of poverty is a mammoth and a controversial one. Poverty remains a global problem of huge proportions, which needs great attention to reduce it.

Poverty can be seen as absolute or as relative, and is associated with a lack of income, or with the failure to attain your capabilities. It can be chronic or temporary, and is sometimes closely related or associated with inequality (Chireshe, 2010; Emwawu & Osujo, 2010). Absolute poverty is the absence of adequate resources, and it hampers learning in developing countries because of poor nutrition and health, the circumstances at home (the lack of books, lighting or a place to do homework), and the education of the parents (Neuman, 2009). For example, in most rural areas in Nigeria, there is no electricity, and the people cannot afford candles or other sources of lighting. Furthermore, in the urban areas, load shedding has affected households to an extent where functioning has been reduced to zero. Poverty discourages enrolment and survival to higher grades, and also reduces learning in schools (Robertson, 2011). From the above analysis, it is therefore clear to say that both relative and absolute

poverty perspectives are common among the families from a poor background; it can reduce the motivation of the relatively poor, and their ability to gain the full benefit of education.

Poverty is often correlated with vulnerability and social exclusion, but they are not the same (Atkinson, 2008). Walker (2006) asserts that chronic poverty brings very few opportunities for people to escape from it. This can disengage girl children, which explains why the experience of poverty is closely related to social exclusion. An example is that of a family where the parents are not employed. They live in an overcrowded household; both parents lack confidence, and have low levels of literacy and numeracy. The family has few resources across all dimensions of poverty, which makes it very vulnerable to negative changes in their circumstances. Given the above, the poor often lack adequate food, shelter, education, and health, and may experience deprivations that prevent them from leading the kind of life that everyone values. They also face extreme vulnerability to ill health, economic dislocation and natural disasters (Nsingo, 2011). Moreover, they are exposed to ill-treatment by institutions of the state and society, and are powerless to influence key decisions affecting their lives. Thus, poor people everywhere continue to suffer from unacceptably low social conditions and the lack of access to services. The poor girl children are no exception; hence the need to explore the effects of poverty on education.

Poverty can be considered as a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education, and also of information. It depends not only on income but also on access to services. It is also characterised by a lack of participation in decision-making, and in civil, social and cultural life. As a result of an inadequate income and resources, girl children may be excluded and marginalised from participating in activities which are considered the norm for other people in

society, leading to a negative attitude and a low self-concept, thus negatively affecting their educational pursuit. In some parts of Nigeria, it is a known fact that the input of the girl child into the family income is so high that it becomes economically unwise to allow such a child to go to school. Examples of such inputs include generating income by way of hawking food items. The girl child also helps with the household chores and look after the younger ones which relieves the parents of employing paid house helps. This therefore reduces the financial burden on the family (Ballara, 2002). In addition, poverty compels many parents to marry off their daughters to wealthy men instead of sending them to school. This is because education is so expensive that parents do not consider the returns for girls' education. Instead, parents would rather prefer the returns of marriage in terms of bride prize. Many parents believe that when girls are educated, the benefits go to their family of procreation instead of the family of orientation.

2.2.2 Cultural Practices

The girl-child in Nigeria from historical, social and economic viewpoint has unequal access to education in relation to her male-child counterpart. This inequality could be due to the early sex role of the girls, which influence the conceptualization of their later status, and occupational inclination. In most culture in Nigeria, the female-child only played as subordinate role to the male child. The female-child is neglected right from birth. According to Uyanga (1995) parents are disappointed whenever the first born to the family is a girl and worse still when all children born to the family are girls. She further observed that the father of such family feels that there will be none-to propagate the family lineage or, take leadership of the family after death. This as a result makes some parents ignore the education of the girl-

child because they feel it's a waste of resources since she will be given out for marriage and that only the family the girl-child is married to will enjoy the benefits of her education.

Adamu (2005) views the neglect of female-child education as something that has to do with culture and religion, but Rufai (1996) attributes the neglect to various myths. Some of these include unfounded cultural beliefs that; educated female-child do not make submissive wives, promiscuous, are usually barren and carry attitudes that are incompatible with their traditionally expected roles as future wives and mothers. Such myths go further to say that educated women always insist on being on equal footing with their male counterparts. These beliefs are not completely true, the truth is when the girl-child is educated she has a better understanding on how to take care of her home, be submissive and respectful to her husband, can give birth and have healthy children. The educated girl-child has a greater advantage than the uneducated girl-child not just on herself but to her home and society at large.

Umar (1996), states that female-child particularly in the Northern Nigeria is made to believe that her place as a woman is in the kitchen and home and she is socialized into accepting her traditional role of bearing and rearing children and also maintaining the welfare of her family. As far as parents are concerned, there is no need for female-child to be prepared beyond attaining to such traditional roles of being mothers and wives. It can be understood that this restricted view of female-child education resulted in persistent lukewarm attitude towards exposing female-child to western education in the northern part of the country. Even though parents are now aware of the importance of education especially of the girl-child, there are still some parents who hold on to the belief that the girl-child's place is in the kitchen and should not be granted the privilege of education.

Kaita (1972), in Iheanacho (2002), is of the view that the greatest problems that present themselves in female-child education are their home background, religion, as well as social and or community sanctions. Accordingly, children are brought up right from the beginning with some feelings against western education. They are thus, indoctrinated and unwillingly forced to go to school for which they have already cultivated a traditional prejudice. According to Gomwalk (1996), early marriage continues to play an important role in hampering girl-child's access to secondary education. This is because in many parts of Northern Nigeria, girls of school age, between 9-13 years are usually married off at the expense of their education.

Rufai (1996) in his cultural deprivation concept maintains that the sub-culture of low income group is deficient in certain important respects and these accounts for the low educational attainment of members of this group. This view, places blames on the educational failure of the child, his family, his neighborhood and indeed, the sub-culture of his social group. Such a child suffers isolation brought about by poverty, meagerness of intellectual resources, illiteracy or indifferences of his elders or of the entire community.

Many Nigerian parents, especially in large families with limited resources, enroll boys in school instead of or before girls. Some parents also keep their daughters out of school due to misinterpretation of the tenets of Islamic religion. Bolaji (2007) noted that early marriage has been institutionalized in many parts of Nigeria especially in Kano, Kastina, Sokoto, Bauchi and Kaduna. It also used to be the case among the Ibos, Ibibios and Urhobos, but with Western education, the practice has abated but not completely eradicated. Girls are given out in marriage for many reasons. It is obvious that most girls married off, were still physically immature for pregnancy.

A major deterrent to female take up and follow through of educational opportunities (even when these are available) is a near universal fundamental cultural bias in favour of males. The widespread operation of patriarchal systems of social organization; of customary early marriage; of the incidence of early pregnancy (in and out of marriage); of heavier domestic and subsistence duties of females (especially in rural areas); a generally lower regard for the value of female life, all combine though differentially in each case, to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education. To this list may be added problems of seclusion and security in some areas. Such long standing constraints result in a dearth of female role models that could challenge the traditional role that is clearly acquired by both sexes at a very early age. The influence of these factors can only be overcome, inter alia by a profound change of attitude on the part of influential males, and in some countries of traditionally minded powerful females in key family positions (Amin, 2005; Nnorom, 2009; Alabi, 2012).

2.2.3 School Infrastructures

Scholars that have attempted to provide definition for infrastructural facilities seems to have been influenced by their field of enterprise. Thus the varied nomenclatures assigned to the concept. To Hirschman (1958); Usman (2014); infrastructural facilities refer to basic services necessary for operation of the school systems. Hirschman (1958) argued that the school cannot do without these services. Usman (2014) bolstered that such basic services include but not limited to buildings, water and power supplies, transport and administrative system. It implies that the infrastructural facilities are prerequisite facilities necessary for the establishment and survival of the school. Although they decide to use the concept basic

services, which seems too vague considering the fact that services itself cannot be rendered in a vacuum. Those who ought to benefit from such services needed to have been mentioned.

Infrastructural facilities refer to school facilities that make learning environment conducive for effective teaching and learning and retention of girl child. It includes classroom, blackboard, furniture, toilets and water facilities. They serve as the support for effective teaching and learning. Therefore, the quality and quantity of school facilities determines educational outcome, particularly for girls.

Location or distance of school is an obvious predictor to girls' attendance in school, particularly when there are no schools; children are not able to obtain instruction (Huismanet et al.2010). Dreibelbis et al., (2013) observed that the location of the school or distance obstructs enrolment and consistent school attendance. This situation may be more pronounced in rural areas than urban areas because of the way schools are usually established or distributed. Public Primary schools are mostly attended by children living in the vicinity. Children who lived further away from school were less to be enrolled (Glick and Sahn 2006). It appears that girls' participation in school will be strongly influenced if she may need to travel long distance to school. Likewise, the proximity of junior secondary school to girls household seems to be a strong pointer for parental willingness to allow her completes basic education cycle; especially where junior secondary school is situated far from the vicinity the girl attended primary school. Thus, the transportation and travel time increases the cost of schooling (Lincove 2009; Holmes 2003); the implication is that a further kilometer between household and schools imply 40% decline of girls' attendance in school (Barbara, Mingat and Malala 2003).

Sanoff (2001) in his research on school building assessment methods, says that school buildings had an impact on the mental development of a student, he explains that schools that are properly build and attractive to look at motivated the children to stay in school and learn as well. A number of studies have shown that many school systems, particularly those in urban and high-poverty areas, are plagued by poor planned infrastructures, decaying buildings that threaten the health, safety, and learning opportunities of students. Good facilities appear to be an important precondition for student learning, provided that other conditions are present that support a strong learning in the school. "Learning environment" is a term used liberally in educational discourse because of the emerging use of information technologies for educational purposes on the one hand, and the constructivist concept of knowledge and learning on the other (Mononen, Aaltonen, 2008). The concept of the physical learning environment with respect to physical structures relates to spaces, equipment and tools within the school.

In a school environment, learning infrastructure includes; classrooms, laboratories and libraries. Fisher (2006) conducted research on the impact of school infrastructures on student outcomes and behaviour in Georgia and established that academic achievement improves with improved building conditions, lighting levels air quality and temperature. He further established a correlation between school class size and student achievements. Having large classes can affect students' achievements. Mark (2002) in a study of factors affecting learners' performance in schools in Canada: maintained that one cannot expect high level of students' academic performance where school buildings are poorly located and substandard. He emphasized that well planned structures, clean, quiet, safe, comfortable and healthy environment are important components of successful teaching and learning.

A study by Lackey (2001) in overcrowded schools in New York City found that students in such schools scored significantly lower on both mathematics and reading examinations than did similar students in under-utilized schools. In addition, when asked, students and teachers in overcrowded schools agreed that overcrowding negatively affected both classroom activities and instructional techniques. Laboratories and technical workshops are essentials in teaching and learning process. The extent to which these infrastructures could enhance quality education depends on their location, their structures and facilities available in them. It is not unlikely that well planned learning infrastructures in terms of location, structures and facilities will affect facilitate teaching and learning process and as well as enhance good academic performance of the students (Ayaji, 2009). Sanitation facilities should include solid waste disposal, drainage and adequate water for personal hygiene and to clean toilets. According to Gogo (2002), Wilkens, White and Kinder (2003), materials used in constructions of school buildings and type of buildings determine the levels of cleanliness. When cleanliness in schools is maintained students get attracted and motivated and this will contribute to good academic performance of the students (Kinder 2003).

Adequate provision of school buildings and facilities bring about conducive teaching and learning environment for teachers, students and other staff members to perform their duties effectively. A good school environment fosters desirable behaviour, creativity, harmonious relationship and problem-solving skills among students. According to Yusuf & Oluwarotimi (2011), school facilities provision should be undertaken after diagnosing and estimating school requirements and identifying the ideal communities and sites where new schools and facilities are to be located, and where additional resources are to be provided to meet current

and future needs of education in society. The major purpose of school facilities provision is to set up a school network which would meet future demand for education.

Several studies (Dechiara & Crosbie, 2001; De Jong, 2001; Feliz, 2004; Tanner, 2006; Gometi, 2010; Usen, 2016) have shown that effective learning is enhanced by the provision of adequate educational facilities and school buildings in quantity and quality. Turupere (2016); and Ajayi and Yusuf (2009) maintain that high levels of students' academic performance may not be guaranteed where instructional space such as classrooms, libraries, technical workshops, and laboratories are structurally defective or not available and adequate. The assertions of Williams, Persaud, and Turner (2008) and Usen (2016) further support the view that a safe and orderly classroom environment and school facilities were significantly related to students' academic achievement. They also asserted that a comfortable and caring environment among other factors help to contribute to students' academic performance. According to Chukwuka (2013), the major objective of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) was to reduce junior secondary schools' illiteracy and ensure the acquisition of functional skills for the alleviation of poverty. Notable among the subjects to be taught in the junior secondary school was introductory technology which is meant to provide basic knowledge for industrial technology. It is designed to expose the students to the appreciation of technology and subsequently develop their interest in various areas of industrial technology. Introductory technology as a subject comprises of basic electricity, electronics, metal work and wood work, elementary building construction, technical drawing, food preservation and storage and other miscellaneous topics.

As laudable as this programme is, it was revealed by Gometi (2010) that most of the schools that taught introductory technology had the machines and equipment supplied but abandoned

outside the classrooms because they could not be accommodated; they needed to be installed in special/suitable school buildings. The school managers could not help the situation because they were not consulted before such equipment were sent to their schools. No wonder till date the teaching of introductory technology which is practical in nature is still based on only theory, so the students lack practical skills. It, therefore, means that even when educational policies and programmes are put in place, it requires the political will of the planners to implement the policies to achieve desirable results. Quality issues need to be addressed to provide the most appropriate physical environment for education.

Improving the quality of school facilities and buildings, and locating them in appropriate places within the schools to meet the needs of the users cannot be overemphasized. It is true that improving the quality of school facilities especially school buildings is an expensive undertaking, but when the positive impacts of facility improvement on teachers and students are translated into monetary figures, the rewards of such investments far outweigh the cost of the investments. The challenge is to create physical facilities that respond to a variety of criteria; they need to be functional, economic, structurally sound and attractive. This requires architects and educational planners to see themselves as members of a multi-disciplinary team which should also include furniture designers, engineers, building cost specialists, educational economists and town and country planners. It is obvious that an effective school building investments policy will provide useful guides for building the right kind of schools in the right places at the appropriate time and will be cost effective.

Many studies (Ogonor & Sanni, 2001; Yadar, 2007; Yara & Otieno, 2010; Owoeye & Yara, 2011) provide evidence of poor student academic performance because of overcrowded classrooms and lack of science laboratories in secondary schools. The problem of ineffective

implementation of continuous assessment by school managers and teachers is also blamed on overcrowded classrooms and inadequate school facilities. But not much is known about availability and adequacy of school buildings.

2.2.4 Girl-Child Education

Girl-child education in its simplest form is the educational training of the female child who is mostly below the age of 18 years. Such education could be the formal school type, informal, Western or Islamic or even both. Girl child education is a catch-all term for a complexity of issues and debates surrounding education (primary education, secondary education, tertiary education and health education for females (Okernmor, Ndit and Filshak, 2012). Girl-child education also includes areas of gender equality, access to education and its connection to the alleviation of poverty, good governance, which are major ingredients in averting crime against women. Today's girl-child education is for her tomorrow's living.

The concept of girl child education incorporates the necessary attitude, cultural and behavioural training which parents give to their daughters at home to enable them become useful, resourceful and respectful citizens of their countries. It also includes the functional teaching or training in skills acquisition which many girls undertake in the shades of seamstress or in computer training centres, weaving/fashion designing centres as well as catering and interior decoration centres, etc. Most importantly, the concept is over specialized and highly controlled trainings acquired in schools, colleges and other institutions of higher learning, (Chidebelu, 2009). Afebendeugne in Ugwu (2001) defines women education as the education that would make a woman become aware of herself and her capacity to exploit her environment, and involves training in literacy and vocational skills to enable her become

functional in the society. When maternal care is adequately provided for the girl-child the aims and objectives of education will be achieved.

Ejikeme (2000) captured this fact when he said that denying girl children access to early childhood education makes them socially excluded, creating room for them to grow up to become illiterate women in later life and be classified as disadvantaged candidates for adult education, women empowerment programmes and other women rescue remedial or support programmes that smack off underdevelopment. Girl-child education is the process through which the girl-child is made functional members of her society (Iwalaiye, Abah, Johnson, Giwa & Ali, 2016). It is a process through which the girl-child acquires knowledge and realizes her potentialities and uses them for self-actualization, to be useful to her and others. It is a means of preserving, transmitting and improving the culture of the society. In every society education connotes acquisition of something good, something worthwhile (Ocho, 2005).

At every educational level, women have been recognized to perform well despite challenges. Schacter (2010) argued that children's intelligence could be significantly influenced by environmental changes and that early childhood was a key to improving later performances in various aspects of the individual's life. In view of this, Stronquist (2000) maintain that girl-child education involves equipping girls who later grow up to women with the knowledge, abilities and mental powers with which they will be useful to themselves, the family and the society. Women education helps them take advantage of opportunities that could benefit them and their families, preparing them for the labor force and helping them understand their legal as well as their reproductive rights. Basic education provides girls and women with an

understanding of basic health, nutrition and family planning, giving their choices and the power to decide over their own lives and bodies (Okoye, 2013).

Girl-child education is not easy to come by as it is usually proclaimed as many impediments stand in the way of the girl-child (Kasomo, 2009). The rights of the girl children are always being denied and this denial leads to lack of access to education thus results in child labor, which deprives the girl-child of her childhood potentials, dignity and joy. This agrees with Bolaji (2007) who noted that there is still gender inequality in terms of accessibility to education in many parts of Nigeria particularly the Northern States like Kaduna, Katsina, Kano, Bauchi, Jigawa, etc. Subsequent to Bolaji (2007), Osinulu (1994) lamented that the girl-child is discriminated against in terms of education and given out to marriage early thereby denying the girl-child the require competences for community development. The resultant effect of such crimination is poverty and the only key to ending poverty among women - folk, as a whole is education of the girl child (Kasomo, 2009). According to Ahmad and Najeemah (2013) one of the most important tools available to empower women within the family and within society is education as it contains cascade of benefits.

Training (especially formal education) nurtures, prepares and matures them to unleash these to humanity in service and live a fulfilled life; Education at basic and post primary school is a fundamental right of every child as it unveils their great potentials, an essential for the exercise of all other human rights. It promotes individual freedom, empowerment and yields important development benefits. Education inculcates in the individual, knowledge, skills, character and desirable values that will foster national development and self-actualization (Asiegbu, Okorji & Bosah, 2014). According to Agbakwuru (2002) education equips one with marketable skills thereby lifting the possessor up from the poverty arena. Essentially Okoye,

(2013) mentioned that through education, the individual learns good health habits, principles and practices which promote healthy living and longevity as well as acquire marketable skills that confer economic power on the educated. Education is a veritable tool utilized by economically and socially marginalized adults and children in achieving freedom from poverty and participates fully as citizens (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, {UNESCO} 2017).

Unfortunately, the right of a girl-child to access quality education has been denied and there are consequences. Though some of the challenges are deeply rooted in our traditional background, they have affected the society at large. Mangvwat, (2005) agree with this when she says that operation and discrimination against women and girls have been so deeply ingrained, for so long in virtually every culture.

The studies on access and retention in primary and lower secondary education in Ghana show that although its made an overall enrolment increase, children from poor households continue to be underrepresented in enrolments (Rolleston, 2009). Rolleston (2009) made it explicit that not only indirect cost hinder access of the poor but also opportunity costs substantially affect the chances of the poor children to enroll in and complete basic education. A study of access pattern in Malawi also concludes that access to education in the country continues to reflect household wealth (Chimombo, 2009). Thus, despite direct fees being abolished, these studies clarify that the abolition of fees has not been enough to ensure access to education for the poor.

2.3 Girl-Child Education Policies in Nigeria

Since Nigeria's Independence in 1960, the government has made concerted efforts in ensuring her citizens gain access to education. However, the focus on girls' education became more prominent in the late 1980s. The Blueprint on Women's Education and the Nomadic Education Programme were both launched in 1986. The Blueprint on Women's Education was aimed at improving the chances of education for women. The Nomadic Education Programme was targeted children in nomadic communities. This was in order to consecutively preserve the culture of the nomadic communities and ensure access to education for children born within the communities. The curriculum has been reviewed to merge with the 9-year basic education curriculum, with adaptable learning tools such as interactive radio instructions.

In addition, to further ensure that the needs of women were further included as part of the nation's development priorities, the National Commission for Women was created to formulate a national policy for women and development in 1989. According to Adebore and Olomukoro (2015), this led to the creation of women education units at federal and state levels of improve access to education for women and girls at national and subnational levels. There is limited available statistics to show the enrolment rate or level of literacy within this era. However, the success of this project can be felt with an increase in the enrolment rate of girls in primary school from over 32% in 1970 to over 86% in 1994.

In 1991, the National Commission for Mass Literacy Adult and Non-formal Education was created to end illiteracy in Nigeria. Women and girls are well prioritized in the projects. Other policies created in the 90's include the Family Support Basic Education Programme which was aimed at increasing access to education for girls living in rural areas. According to Dauda (2007), this programme made impressionable steps, including the construction of early

childhood education centres as well as primary schools. It also constructed WASH facilities such as public toilets. In 1999, Universal Basic Education was revised, to reduce inequalities in education relating to gender and geography. As a result of these policies, the literacy rate for 15-24-year-old girls and young women increased from 62.5% in 1991 to 68.2% in 1999.

To support global and local development frameworks including the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) and the Millennium Development Goals, in 2004, the Universal Basic Education Act was an instrument enacted to ensure free compulsory qualitative education for all children. This led to the creation of the Universal Basic Education Commission. It addresses issues such as the role of the government at all levels and parents in ensuring children attend school. The Gender Education Programme (GEP) which also began in 2004 aims to reduce the gender disparity through different projects such as the Students Tutoring, Mentoring and Counselling (STUMEC), Mothers Association, Teachers Development Pedagogy Module and Girls' Education Movement (GEM).

These projects have recorded successes such as the training of stakeholders through the School-based management committee platforms for mentoring and training of students, and the establishment of the Mothers' Association which is a useful platform to mobilize women to take an interest in ensuring their girls go to school. Over 5000 Mothers' Associations have been created countrywide with workshops on entrepreneurship and income generating activities carried out to ensure women are empowered to participate in financial decision-making procedures in their households. GEP has also been instrumental in establishing Second Chance Centres which is targeted at girls who have dropped out of schools as a result of barriers such as early marriage and teenage pregnancy.

The National Policy on Education was created in 2004 and revised in 2007. It outlines the values of Nigeria and resonates with the fact that education is a tool through which Nigeria can be developed. It further aims to ensure all children are educated. It was revised to include early childhood education which is a key tool for improving the quality of education for both girls and boys. The National Policy on Gender in Basic Education was launched in 2007, the objectives are to promote equal access and participation in the basic enrolment of girls and boys, achieve high level of retention completion and performance rate, advocate for the support of key stakeholders, enabling environment for planning, implementation and achievement of the goals. To support this policy, the Federal Ministry of Education further designed the National Framework on Girls and Women in Education which was aimed at increasing the quality of education accessible to girls through amongst other techniques, a rights-based approach.

The National Gender Policy, created in 2006 aims to recognize the differences between men and women while addressing the inequalities between men and women. It highlights important actions such as cultural reorientation through sensitization and dialogues and ensuring strategic partnerships with important stakeholders such as the parliament at national and sub-national levels, civil society organizations, intergovernmental agencies as well as bilateral agencies.

Between 2004 and 2007, when most of these policies such as the National Policy on Education, National Gender Policy, the Universal Basic Education Act and the National Policy on Gender in Basic Education were revised or created, the enrolment rate for girls in primary school grew from 61.47% in 2004 to over 63.24%⁴⁸ in 2006. The enrolment rate took a downturn to over 62.6% in 2007. It drastically reduced to 56.7 percent in 2008. This

could be explained as a result of the 2007/2008 economic crisis (and Nigeria's dependence on foreign aid for the implementation of education projects), and political transition and policy discontinuation. The enrolment rate gradually began to increase again in 2009 where it was 57.84% and approximately 58.1 in 2010.

Because the female enrolment is a controlling variable in the gender parity index, there is a slow rise of the gender parity index for the enrolment rate from 2004 to 2006 (within the period which the national policy on education, National Gender Policy, the Universal Basic Education Act and the National Policy on Gender in Basic Education) after which there is a sharp decline from over 0.89 in 2006 to 0.81.

The number of out of school children which was near 4 million in 1999 was reduced to over 3.886 million in 2004, however, despite the efforts of the government through the above-mentioned policies and projects created to support them, the number of out of school children increased to over 4.07 million girls in 2007 from an estimated 3.88 million in 2006. It further increased to 4.87 million in 2008 and reached an all-time high of 4.97 million in 2010.

Other policies include the Child Friendly Initiative, Federal Female Teachers' Scholarship Scheme amongst others. The Child Rights Act was adopted in 2003 by the Federal Government in 2003 and as of 2011, UNICEF posits that the Child rights Act has only been adopted in 24 out of 36 states in Nigeria. From 2010 till date, other policies and projects to support these policies have been adopted. The Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) programme was also launched as part of a social protection measure to cater for vulnerable households. Pilot programmes ran in Kano (2010, assisted by World Bank), Katsina and Bauchi (assisted by DFID) states. One of the major objectives of this programme is to create incentives for

households to ensure retention and enrolment of girls in school. However, because of limited data, it is difficult to measure the impact of these CCTs on improving access to girls' education in the three states.

2.4 The Effect of Poverty, Cultural Practices and School Infrastructures on Girl-Child Education

The effect of poverty leads to a lack of educational resources in poor schools and sometimes could hinder learning. Without providing good facilities, teaching materials, textbooks and classroom resources, it becomes hard to facilitate good learning and quality teaching. Educationally speaking, the only way to reduce poverty is to make considerable investments in education. This investment provides many benefits such as skills enhancement and productivity among poor households. Moreover, poverty is a constraint to educational achievement both at the macro and micro levels. Hence, poor countries generally have lower levels of enrolment while at the micro level; children of poor households receive less education (Jin, 1997)

It is believed that the young people who are suffering from poverty are restricted from getting enrolled or are deprived access to education and they are more likely to achieve poorer educational outcomes compared to young people from rich families or those with rich relatives. Furthermore, the situation of the young people deprived of receiving enrolment or being retained in education and those achieving low educational outcomes are the same and they are likely to experience poverty (Bynner and Joshi, 2002)

However, this has now become a global issue and in the US and UK, children's attending school and their academic performance rely on the socio-economic position of their parents (Jencks 1972; Carlo, Alan, Helen, Dave, Lisa and Afroditi, 2007). This issue also applies to

less developed countries where there is a link between education and poverty when enrolment into and retention in education are strongly linked to levels of poverty (Filmer and Pritchett, 1999)

Poverty at house hold level forces the parents to make choices as to which child to enroll in school. Social, and cultural attitudes of the parents lead to boys getting favoured while the girls are discriminated against. The girls are compelled by high poverty level to abandon school because of lack of school fees, in favour of their brothers. School girls, especially from poor backgrounds fall victim of the rich and respected men of the society, the (Sugar Daddies). Such men exploit the economically deprived schools girls in exchange for sexual favours. Such girls eventually drop out of school due to pregnancy or / and they also run the risk of contracting HIV/AIDS.

Cultural practices such as early marriages and initiation rites practiced by some African Communities, expose the girl-child to life styles not conducive to education. The initiation rites and female circumcision make girls to have attitudinal changes, perceiving themselves as adults ready for marriage. They view school as a place for children and therefore they drop out of school immediately after initiation rite. With early and sometimes forced marriage, the girl is compelled to abandon school to take up wifely and parental responsibilities at the expense of her Education. Another challenge facing girl-child education is teenage pregnancy. This has forced many girls to drop out of schools to go and give birth and look after the young one. Unfortunately there is no clear policy on readmission of the girl back to school after delivery. Only a small number of girls return to school.

School environment is another hindrance to the girl-child education. The teachers' attitudes and their teaching styles in class situation are sometimes hostile to the girl-child. Most teachers, probably due to their early childhood socialization, pay more attention to the boy students, leaving the girl to feel neglected and unwanted. This has negatively impacted on the girl's academic achievement. The girls are made to believe that they cannot perform as well as the boys, in school and especially in the science subjects. The girls have continued to perform poorly in these subjects because of this belief, some have even dropped out from school. The transition rate for girls from primary to secondary schools in Kenya is still below that of boys. For instance in 1990 the percentage of girls was 39% while that of boys was 46%. Boy's enrolment in Secondary schools has remained higher than that of girls over the years.

Schools also lack gender sensitive and culturally appropriate facilities. Sometimes, there are no separate toilets for girls and boys. It is uncomfortable for girls to share toilets with boys especially during menstruation. This may cause absenteeism of the girl-child in school. The unattractiveness of the school environment to the girl-child may result to low enrolment for girls' education in school thus affecting access to education by the girl-child (UNICEF, 2007).

Some theorists contend that the poor participate in a subculture of poverty. This argument is that the poor are said to have evolved certain ways of thinking, feeling and behaving that are different from those of participants in the large culture and that are passed on from generation to generation. Lewis (1986) sees the creation of subculture among the poor as an adaptation, an attempt at self defence on the part of people at the bottom of society. His argument shows that, the poor lack success orientation and a change in their objective situations do not ensure

that they will make the effort needed to get out of poverty. As Lewis states, the poor attempt to deal with feelings of discouragement and despaired by creating and subscribing to values, beliefs and attitudes better suited to their deprived conditions. Lewis is quite explicit on the point that “by school age, children of poverty are so thoroughly socialized in their subculture and so psychologically stunted that they are seldom able to capitalise opportunities they may encounter in later life. Ball (1968) sees subculture traits among the poor as an adaptation to the reality of living a denying and frustrating existence like Lewis, he believes that the subculture of poverty becomes a way of life and that it endures even when the conditions that created it no longer exist.

Mertons (1957) notes that culture defines goals, purposes and interest, held out as legitimate objectives for all, and at the same time regulates and controls the acceptable modes of reaching out for these goals. He argues that monetary and material successes were a universal goal. However, the legitimate institutionalized means for achieving such as education, high paying occupations and access to loans are not equally available to all segment of the society. Obviously, the lower socio-economic groups (the poor) have less accessibility to these means to success. So individuals in lower socio-economic groups (the poor) develop values and behavior patterns relatives to their location in the social structure. The poor have little or no access to institutionalized means of achieving success, develop and later become motivated by values favourably to poverty, they continue to be poor. Cloward and Ohlin (1960) in their theory of blocked opportunity noted that people are prone to crime, delinquency of poverty because they have few. Their opportunities for success through the accepted channels are blocked. They do not have the education or the training to hold a job that will keep them out of poverty. They may have the education but opportunity, for good paying job is blocked

because political differences, tribalism or religious differences. When such opportunities are blocked the people simply slide into poverty.

Perhaps the most valid generalizations about the poor are that they are disproportionately located in rural areas, that they are primarily engaged in agricultural and associated activities, that they are more likely to be women and children than adult males, and that they often concentrated among minority ethnic groups and indigenous people. On average, we may conclude that in Africa and Asia, about 80% of all target poverty groups are located in the rural areas, as are about 50% in Latin America. In view therefore of disproportionate numbers of the poor who reside in rural areas, any policy designed to alleviate poverty must necessarily be directed to a large extent toward rural development in general and agricultural sector in particular.

Women make up substantial majority of the worlds' poor. Virtually, everywhere, women and children experience the harshest deprivation. They are more likely to be poor and malnourished and less likely to receive medical services, clean water, sanitation and other benefits. The prevalence of female-headed households, the lower earning capacity of women and their limited control over their spouses' income all contribute to this disturbing phenomenon/ in addition, women have less access to education, formal sector employment, social security and government programs. These facts combine to ensure that poor women's financial resources are meagre and unstable relative to men's

A portion of the income disparity between male and female headed households can be explained by the large earnings differentials between men and women. In addition to the fact that women are often paid less for performing similar tasks, they are essentially barred from

higher-paying occupations. In urban areas, women are much less likely to obtain formal employment in private companies or public organizations/agencies and are frequently restricted to illegal, low productivity jobs. Similarly, rural women have less access to the resources necessary to generate stable income and are frequently subjected to laws that further compromise earning potential. Legislation and social custom often prohibit women from owning property or signing financial contracts without a husband's signature, and women are typically ineligible for institutionally provided resources such as credit and training. With a few notable exceptions, government employment or income-enhancing programmes are accessible primarily if not exclusively by men exacerbating existing income disparities between men and women.

Of primary importance is the fact that relatively large proportion of the work performed by women are unremunerated – for example, collecting firewood and cooking – and may even be intangible, as with parenting. Many also women from poor households are not paid for the work they perform in family agriculture or business. It is common for the male head of household to control all funds from cash crops or the family business, even though a significant portion of the labour inputs is provided by his spouse. In addition, in many cultures, it is considered socially unacceptable for women to contribute significantly to household income, and hence women's work may remain concealed or unrecognized. These combine factors perpetuate the low economic status of women and can lead to strict limitation on their control over household resources.

According Etzioni (1976),lack of economic success was as a result of social situation in the social structure. For example the concept of deprivation is a result of negative social attitudes toward certain people and the victim is deprived of material things available in the society.

The deprived are then unable to secure the necessities of life. These deprived are those work for very low incomes and as a result are unable to purchase the means for existing at the level considered minimally satisfactory in the society. This is an indication that the unemployed and underemployed are the likely candidates for the ranks of the poor. The inequality compares the individuals at the bottom layer of stratified income level with that of more privileged people in the same society. In our society, the poor feel deprived when they know that the society has placed severe limitations on their opportunity to achieve economic success. This means that the poor are not employed in better jobs because of educational deficiencies or lack of occupational skills, or just because they do not have money to bride their way through.

2.5 Review of Empirical Study

A study conducted by Sani (2003) titled “Girls Education in Kano State” which examined if there was any significant difference between the opinion of parents and teachers on the importance of girl-child education and also if there were enough girls’ enrolment in school. Descriptive survey method was used by the researcher. Findings of the study revealed that there is slight improvement in girls’ enrolment in education. The findings also revealed that parents and teachers believed education of the girl-child is important. However, this study is carry out in Kaduna State with focus on enrolment, retention and completion rate of girls’ education.

Kasomo (2009) attempted to find out the factors militating against the education of girls in Lower Eastern Province, Kenya. The investigation employed both qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Using simple random sampling, 260 girls and 305 boys were drawn

from purposely sampled schools. The results derived from the research show that girls have low educational and occupational aspirations and that the greatest hindrance to their educational advancement is alleged to be pregnancy, followed by peer pressure, lack of school fees, lack of parental guidance and counseling, drug addiction and intimate boys/girls relationships. The study recommends that there is need to carry out awareness campaigns to sensitize all stakeholders on the importance of education, especially of the girl child. The usefulness of Kasomo's research to the present study lies in the fact that it unravelled some factors impeding girl child education in Kenya. This offers the present study grounds for making comparisons between what is obtainable here and other parts of Africa.

Aliyu (2009) conducts a study to investigate the attitudes of parents' towards girl-child education in Kaduna State as perceived by teachers and principals. The population of the study consists of all the principals and secondary school teachers in Kaduna State. The instrument used in collecting data was questionnaire and the study discovered that preference of male over female education is common in the society and poverty is a major factor in terminating girl-child education in Kaduna State. In addition, it was discovered that government participation is still inadequate to facilitate change in the area. The study recommends the urgent intervention of government to implement the laws governing girl-child education so as to enhance and change the negligence of girl-child education as provisioned in national policy on education and provide equal access to education. However, the study did not interview parents to know the reasons behind their girl-child not going to school. The study emphasized on poverty as the major factor preventing girls from attending school.

Mannan (2009) carries out a study on the role of women education in the struggle against poverty in Bangladesh. The study relied more on hermeneutic approach which is the study of theories and methods of the interpretation of texts and the systems of meanings. In this approach, the meaning and intention of various related concepts, theories and literatures were examined. The obligation of hermeneutic is to understand the social context on which the study is done. The study showed that education can bring extreme poor out of absolute poverty by creating awareness among the people, beside economic self-reliance, education can make a woman aware of her rights; provide self-confidence, and freedom of expression. An educated woman thus also want her children to be economically independent and morally enlightened by being educated. Education also helps the mother to seek health education by identifying proper food and food habit, maintaining hygiene and diagnosing common diseases. The study recommends that as women health issues are directly or indirectly related to their poverty, health education to women should come explicitly in government policies. Also, drop out of female students in the later stage of primary and secondary schools and lack of enrolment of female students to colleges and university should receive special attention in the policy evaluation and modification. However, their study relied so much on theory which may not actually reflect the ideal situation on ground; also, the study was conducted in Bangladesh, far away Asia. This study will rely on primary and secondary data on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Alam, Ellahi and Jamil (2010) carry out a study on women education and economic performance. The study adopted a time series analysis design and used an annual time series data set over the period of 1980 to 2009. The data were analyzed using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) estimation techniques by the researchers to the contribution of women education for

economic performance in Pakistan. The study found that economic growth is hampered as a result of women's less participation in education. The study therefore recommends a need for women workforce in Pakistan to be provided with better educational opportunities and facilities, strong infrastructure among others in order to get full benefit from educating them. Their study was conducted in Pakistan and cover a period of up till 2009, but our study will provide recent data.

Okafor (2010) conducted a studies on the factors affecting girl-child education in Maiduguri, Borno State. Purposive sampling method was used to draw sample from the population. Researchers' findings revealed that attitude of parents, traditional practices, socio-economic status of parents and general illiteracy rate in Maiduguri Metropolis are some of the factors militating against girl-child education. Closely related to this research by Okorie (2017) on the factors militating against girl-child education in Nigeria reveal poor family background, attitude of parents, religious isolation, disability, early marriage and pregnancy, gender driven violence, cultural discrimination are the major obstacles against girl-child education. Our study which is carry out in Kaduna State will view dimension of school infrastructures in addition to poverty and cultural practices as they affect girl-child education.

Ayodeji (2010) conducts a study on gender stereotypes belief and practices in the classroom: The Nigerian post-primary school teachers. The study explores the gender stereotyped beliefs and perception of secondary school teachers' in classroom practices in Ogun State, Nigeria. The study adopts descriptive survey design and the population of the study was 250 selected teachers. Data was collected through self-administered questionnaire by the selected teachers on how gender stereotypes are played out in the classroom practices. The T-test statistic was used for data analysis and the study revealed that teachers directly or indirectly promote

gender-stereotypes. Among others, it was recommended that the government and all stakeholders should do more work in creating awareness about gender-stereotypes both in and outside the classroom. The population of their study and its characteristics are not sufficient for generalization as stereotype can be among pupils and also parents as such, our study sampled population covers not only teachers but also parents and other stakeholders in education.

Adebola, et al (2012) took a socio-cultural diagnosis of empowerment of the Nigerian girl-child. The population of the study comprised of all 228 female load carriers in three major markets in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. A structured questionnaire was used for data collection. Findings of the study revealed that early marriage, female genital mutilation (FGM), taboos are some of the socio-cultural factors affecting Nigerian girl-child. The findings of the study also showed that poverty, physiological and psychological, are effects of socio cultural factors on Nigerian girl child. The findings of the study further revealed that empowering the girl-child in education, vocational skills and establishing of girls' clubs in market places and schools will help the Nigerian girl-child in getting her full potentials in life. Based on these findings, the study recommended that Federal Government of Nigeria should make sure that all laws prohibiting malpractices against girl-child and women are religiously implemented and anybody who goes against such laws should be sanctioned irrespective of their positions and society. This study is related to the present one since both are interested in how the girl child can be empowered.

Saleh and Kwache (2012) investigated into the girl-child enrolment and completion in senior secondary schools in Bauchi State. A simple survey of school records (class register) of students in two sets of two arms each in three (3) selected secondary schools was carried out

and a purposeful sampling of the three schools (two co-education and one single sex school) was used. Furthermore, a focus group discussion was held with the vice-principal academy and the class teachers in each of the school. Samples of students were also interviewed on their opinion on the possible reasons for students dropped-out from school in each of the school. Based on the findings, it is clear that in some core Northern States of Nigeria of which Bauchi is part, there is still problem with girl-child enrolment and completion of secondary education in Nigeria. Early marriages, poverty, unfriendly environment, and social, cultural or religious beliefs are still major causes of the drop-out rate of girls in Bauchi State. The study recommended that the free and universal basic education (UBE) should be taken seriously by all and sundry, including non-governmental organizations and also young Nigerian girls in rural areas should be made to disregard the wrong notion that their education ends in the kitchen. Gone are days when an African woman is believed to remain only in the kitchen. The girl-child needs education that will empower her face the challenges of today, tomorrow and the future.

Oguta, (2013) conducted a research on factors affecting participation of the girl-child in secondary schools in Migori District, Migori country, Kenya. The purposed is to establish the extent to which the factors affect girl-child participation in secondary education in Migori district, Migori country, Kenya. Four research questions were formulated to guide the study. The study reviewed four factors such as of socio-economic, socio-cultural, parents' level of education as well as distance from school as factors affecting the girl-child participation in secondary school education. The study used descriptive survey. The target population of the study was the principals of 33 public secondary schools in Migori district, 66 class teachers and 66 head girls and deputy head-girls. The census sampling was used to get 33 principals

and 66 head girls and deputy head girls but systematic random selection was used to get the 66 class teachers two from every school. The response rate of the respondents was 100 percent. The study used questionnaires for data collection, collected data were analyzed using computer devices. The findings from the study showed that socio-economic factors affect participation of girl child in secondary education. This resulted to lack of school uniform, lack of school fees, lack of teaching learning materials, high rate of drop-out and lack of personnel affects those with poor socio-economic background. The socio-cultural factors result to early marriages, male preference in family, community initiation into adulthood, negative attitudes of girls in education, cultural practices and feeling of being adults which do affect participation of girl child in secondary education. Parents' level of education as a factor affects girl child participation in secondary education because it can promote or lower their participation in education. Educated parents do support their girls in their educational requirements. They also become role models to their daughters' participation in education they most understand what their daughters want and they do provide them with unlike the uneducated parents. Distance from school as a factor has effect on girl child participation in education. The wider the distance the more insecure the girls are in their participation in secondary education. Distance from school, makes the girl child to become fatigued due to long walking. This also result to early pregnancies as the girls meet a lot of challenges on their way to school when they walk to and fro as in case of day students or when they are sent home as in cases of boarders.

Kainuwa and Yusuf (2013) examine the cultural tradition and practices of parents as barriers to girl-child education in Zamfara State. The study examine the negative role of parents' cultural tradition and practices on the educational process of their girl children which has led

to early marriage, HIV/AIDS prevalence and child abuse in the state. The study discovered that government attention is mostly drawn to educational development of the urban areas that the rural setting and thus suggest that government and stakeholders should concentrate more on education development of rural areas to benefit children of peasant farmers mostly residing in rural areas. The scope of the study is absent and had no target population. There are gaps that our study intent to take into cognizance.

Okobia (2015) study parental attitudes and girl-child education in Edo State. Purposive sampling technique was used to select respondents from all works of life. The data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using t-test of independent sample and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test the hypothesis. Findings revealed that parents have positive attitude towards girl-child education. But parents from the southern part of Nigeria residing in Benin Metropolis were more disposed to girl-child education than those from the northern parts. Also, the results showed that parents who are Christians have better attitude towards girl-child education. This is in consonance to the findings of Hazel (2000) that the problem of allowing girls to attend school is significant for parents living in Northern Nigeria. Therefore, this study adopts Kaduna State in order to verify their findings.

Mollel (2017) aimed to examine the socio-cultural factors that hinder girls' education in Mtwara District in Tanzania. The design that adopted in this research is survey research design. The questionnaire used as a tool to gather the information, also documentary review and data from Mtwara District Education Office about girls' enrolment and completion used as secondary data. The data organized and then analyzed with the use of SPSS software. Descriptive statistics used to analyze the data. The findings of this study discovered that socio-cultural factors mostly affecting girls' access to education. Early marriage, traditional

ceremonies (unyago), social perception and social roles are among the key socio-cultural factors hinder girls education in Mtwara District. The study concluded that socio-cultural factors are mostly affecting girls' access to education in Mtwara District in Tanzania. The study suggested that the government and other education stakeholders should sensitize the community on the need and significance of girls' education for girls themselves and to the entire community. Education stakeholders also should launch mass media programs like television and radio programs to educate and discourage the bad sociocultural practices within the community that deteriorate girls' education. The government should take the serious action for those who participate in one way or another in declining girls' education.

To understand the role of the girl-child student within the family structure, both Ansell (2005) and Kabeer (2000) offer insight into the different roles and power dynamics at play. Ansell writes a useful tool for understanding why families differ is the notion of 'intergenerational contracts', which conceptualizes family relationships as a set of implicit understandings concerning the roles and responsibilities of family members (Ansell 2005:64).' These expected roles and responsibilities are often gendered, which contributes to unequal treatment of girls and boys (Kabeer 2000). Anayanwu's (1995) work examines the living conditions and survival of the girl children in Nigeria and the preferential treatment of boy children. Girls are discriminated again in Nigeria in access to educational opportunity, food and nutrition. Girls carry a heavy burden of farm work and housework. Poor female nutrition contributes to greater vulnerability to disease and to poor physical and mental development. Therefore, how poverty, school infrastructures and cultural practices affect girl child education is the gap that this study intent to fill.

2.6 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

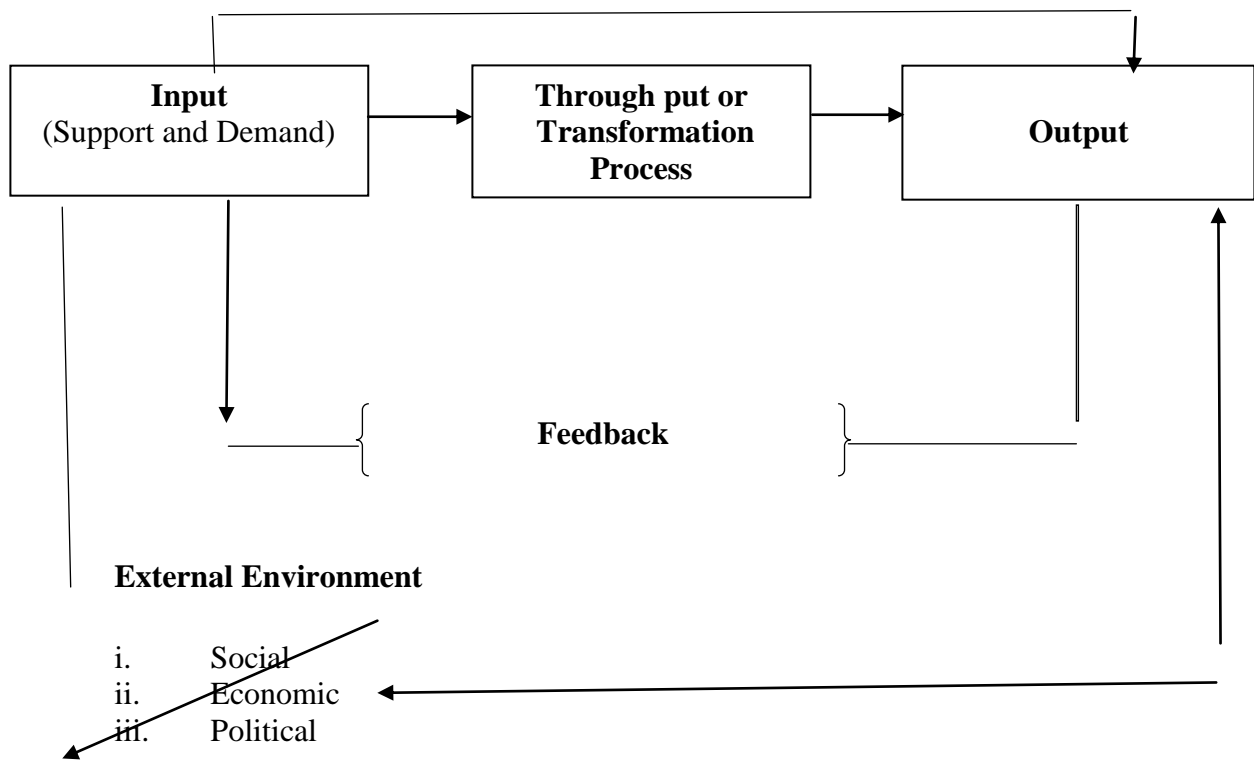
2.6.1 Theoretical Framework: System Theory

For the purpose of this study, system theory by Ludwing (1973) was adopted because it offers explanation on the variables under study and the effect of their interaction. The work of Ludwing (1973) recognized the need of any organization to interact with its external environment, unlike what was proposed by classical school theorists like Max Weber, F. Taylor and Fayol who viewed organization as closed system. Ludwing (1973) defines a system as a complex of interacting elements. He introduces “system” as a new scientific paradigm contrasting the analytical, mechanical paradigm, characterizing classical science (von Bertalanffy, 1950). Flood and Jackson (1991) define a system as a complex and highly interlinked network of parts exhibiting synergistic properties-the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. It is a collection of interrelated parts acting together to achieve some goal which exists in the environment. Also, system is defined as a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes related to each other and to the environment so as to create or form a whole (Schoderbek et al, 1985). Further, Checkland (1981) defines a system as a model of a whole entity, which may be applied to human activity.

A fundamental notion of general systems theory is its focus on interactions. The center in relationships lead to sustain that the behavior of a single autonomous element is different from its behavior when the element interacts with other elements. Another core tenet is the distinction between open, closed and isolated systems. In open systems there are exchanges of energy, matter, people, and information with the external environment. In closed systems there are no exchanges of information and matter, just exchanges of energy. In isolated

system there is no exchange of elements. Open system theory (OST) looks at the relationships between the organizations and the environment in which they are involved.

Figure 2.1: Diagrammatic Presentation of the System Theory



Adopted from Easton, 1965

The basic components of a system are as follows:

- i) **Inputs** - The composition of inputs from the external environment may include people, capital, technical knowledge as well as skills. It also includes the various claimants – groups of people making demands on the organization; such as employees, students, parents and the general public.
- ii) **Transformation process** – In an organizational system, inputs are transformed in an effective and efficient manner into outputs.
- iii) **External variable** – As a component of the systems model, the external environment plays a key role in the transformation of inputs into outputs. While it is true that

organizations have little or no power to change the external environment, they have no alternative but to respond to it.

- iv) **Outputs** – Inputs are secured and utilized by transformation through the managerial functions – with due consideration for external variables into outputs. Outputs of different kinds vary with the organization. They usually include many of the following; structures, facilities, products, services, satisfaction and integration of the goals of various claimants to the organization.
- v) **Reenergizing the system** – It is worthy of note that in the systems model of management process, some of the outputs become inputs again. Apparently, the satisfaction and new knowledge or skills of employees become important human inputs.

The diagram above clearly shows the importance of system theory to this study. It shows the interaction amongst the sub-system that is the input, transformation process, output, feedback mechanism as a self-correcting control mechanism and its environment. Therefore this interaction and interrelationship among the sub-system is very crucial to any community and Local Government that wants to attain its set objectives.

2.6.2 Relevance of the System Theory to the Study

The system theory is adopted for this study not because of its operational components alone but also because what is being studied is part of social system which is man, the process of controlling the inter relationship between its own component using the environment within and outside. Community is a system because the people exist in villages and having a culture. The authors of systems theory recognised the fact that there could be sub-systems that exists

in the larger system. A good example of this would be a single household in a village. The activities inside that house would be seen as taking place within a system. First is the family group where that particular household belongs and which in turn exists within the larger system of the village itself. The village can also be seen as a sub-system, one out of a number of communities which together comprise an even greater system, the region or territory in which they all are located (Tamas, 2000). When you locate a community within a larger system or a sub-system, one thing is paramount, people must interact at any level be it sub-system or larger system. In the course of this interaction, community especially in rural area like Soba Local Government Area suffers from related issues like poverty, negative cultural practices and poor school infrastructures that tend to hinder growth and development. Where these vices exist, it prevent the people from working together to achieve mutually accepted goal for their collective betterment.

The various things which pass across the boundaries of the system can be called energy or influencer. This energy which is often in the form of information, is usually the main product of human relationship and is a necessary element in the functioning of the social system.

- Cultural values –these shape views about ethics and determine the relative importance of various issues including girl-child education.
- Economic conditions - these include poverty, unemployment, and many other factors that affect community's ability to grow and prosper. Economic influences may also partially dictate a community's role in the economy.
- Legal/political environment - this effectively helps to allocate infrastructures within a community and to enforce laws. The legal and political systems in which an open system operates can play a key role in determining the long-term stability and security

of the community future. These systems are responsible for creating a fertile environment for the girl-child education, but they are also responsible for ensuring that needs, like school infrastructures, of the larger community or people are addressed.

- Quality of education - this is an important factor in reducing poverty amongst girls. Families will be better off to have educated girls.

For instance, a community which will not be sensitive to its environment will hardly survive. Things like technology, social and economic phenomena are not static but are always changing, hence organisations are needed to adopt in order to survive. The interdependence indicates that when the elements in one component in a system change or breakdown all the other components and the system as a whole is affected.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and explains the methodology adopted in this study under the following captions; research design, study area, population and sample size and sampling technique. Others are sources of data, administration of questionnaires, interview schedule and method of data analysis. Finally, the researcher explains the reasons for adopting the tools in testing the validity or otherwise of the earlier hypotheses formulated.

3.2 Research Design

This study is a survey research. This design is appropriate for this study because it captured people's opinion, beliefs and attitudes on girl-child education. The descriptive survey design is suitable because it involved collection of information, then assessing, finally, describing the data regarding the effect of poverty and cultural practice on girl-child education in shortest time possible.

3.2.1 Study Area

The study is undertaken in Soba Local Government Area (LGA) one of the 23 LGAs within Kaduna State. Soba Local Government headquarter is in the town of Maigana. It is located in the northern part of Kaduna State. It has an area of 2,234 km² and a population of 293,270 at the 2006 Census with total number of 148,605 males and 144,665 females. The population consists predominantly of traders, cattle rearers and farmers. Islam is the main religion practiced by the inhabitants.

3.2.2 Population of the Study

The population for this study consists of pupils of public primary schools, primary school Head-Teachers/Teachers, Parents-Teachers-Association members, staff of Soba Local Government Basic Education, SBMC and some members of the general public from which the sampled subjects is selected for questionnaires and interview scheduled. The population of the study is 293,270 people of Soba Local Government Area, derived from the 2006 National Census (NBS, 2008).

3.2.3 Sampling/Sampling Size

The sample size of this study is calculated using Taro Yamane (1967) formula with 95% confidence level. Yamane's formula to arrive at the sample size as thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where:

n = Sample Size

N = Population Size

e = Sample Error Level of Significance

1 = Constant

Therefore, using the formula, we obtained the sample size as follows:

$$\frac{293,270}{1 + 293,270 (0.05)^2}$$
$$\frac{293,270}{1 + 293,270 \times 0.0025}$$

$$\frac{293,270}{293,271 \times 0.0025}$$

$$\frac{293,270}{733.178}$$

$$= \underline{399.99} \quad = \underline{400}$$

The sample size of this study is 400 respondents. In order to obtain a reliable data as well as take care of non-return questionnaires, 410 questionnaires were distributed.

3.3 Sampling Technique

This study adopted multi-stage sampling technique. We clustered the schools based on the Local Government school clusters which is eighteen (18) in number. From two closely related clusters based on proximity, one cluster was selected making a total of nine (9) schools which are L.E.A. Primary School Gimba, L.E.A. Primary School Dinya, L.E.A. Primary School Yakassai and L.E.A. Primary School Maigana all in Maigana Zone; L.E.A. Primary School Rahama, L.E.A. Primary School Gamagira, L.E.A. Primary School Danwata, L.E.A. Primary School Garu and Soba Model Primary School. Quota random sampling is used to assigned equal number of questionnaires to the selected school and in each school purposive sampling technique is used to select respondents for interview scheduled, while questionnaires were assigned proportionally based on the size of the respondents as shown in the table below:

Table 3.1 Questionnaire Distribution

S/NO	Respondents	Number of Respondent	% of Respondent
1	Teachers	110	27.5%
2	Head Teachers/Assistants	27	6.75%
3	PTA EXCO	40	10%
4	SBMC EXCO	40	10%
5	Parents of Girl-Child	133	33.25%

6	LGEA Staff	50	12.5
Total		400	100%

Source:Soba LGEA, 2019

For the staff of the Local Government Education Authority, purposive sampling technique is adopted in selecting senior staff to respond to questionnaires.

3.4 Sources of Data

For the purpose of this study and in order to test the hypothesis both the secondary and primary sources of data were used. Primary data were collected through interview and questionnaires Secondary data were sourced from relevant records and documents from the sampled schools to complement the primary data.

i. Interview

Interview schedules are the ideal instrument for generating qualitative data. In this study the semi-structured interviews was used. The strengths of semi-structured interviews are that no restrictions are placed on the questions. They are useful and flexible, thereby allowing the researcher to investigate the psychosocial effects of poverty and cultural practice on girl-child education. The researcher used interview to conduct focus group discussion with a group of respondents from each component of the study population that made up the sampling size. The distribution of the numbers of respondents for interview is based on purposive sampling technique. See appendix II for interview scheduled

Table 3.2 Respondents for the Interview Scheduled

S/NO	Respondent	Number
1	Public primary schools head teachers	4
2	Parents-Teachers-Association members	5
3	Staff of Soba Local Government Basic Education Board	4
Total		13

Source:Soba LGEA, 2019

ii. Questionnaires

The use of questionnaires is adopted because these have the advantage of dealing with a wide coverage of issues and territory. Questionnaire are justified on the bases of its reliability, convenience, preserving anonymity and lower rate of reactivity. The questionnaires is structured in a close ended question for use to generate quantitative data for easy analyses. The questionnaire is divided into Section A and B. Section 'A' consist of questions relating to the respondents personal data such as; Gender; Age; Educational Qualification. Section 'B' of the questionnaire consists of questions relating to the research hypotheses. Four hundred and ten (410) questionnaires were distributed using simple random sampling across the sampling size based on Taro Yamane formula.

3.5 Administration of Instrument

The administration of the instrument was carried out with the aid of research assistants who are trained by the researcher. Some research assistance are obtained from some of the head teachers in the schools as well as the staff of Basic Education Board.

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

The data gathered from various sources were theoretically explained, analytically discussed and summarized in tables. The descriptive statistical tools such as tables and simple percentages were employed in data analysis and interpretation. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used for the analysis of quantitative data. Multiple regression was used to interpret the result of the data collected and determined which of the independent

variable with most significant effect on the dependent variable. The use of multiple regression is justified because of the multi-causal relationship of the variables. Also, thematic method is used to analyse qualitative data obtained through interview and observation.

CHAPTER FOUR

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SOBA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, attempt is made to shows the history and administrative structure of soba local government area, social setting, natural endowments, socio-economic infrastructures, water supply facilities, water resources and sanitation situation analysis, infrastructure development situation analysis, political structure, economy and poverty level, educational clusters, school facilities and situation analysis of educational sector

4.2 History and Administrative Structure of Soba Local Government Area

Soba Local Government Area was created in 1989 during the regime of former Head of State in Nigeria by General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida (Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). The Local Government Area was curved out from defunct Zaria Local Government Area. Under the Kaduna State Local Government (Administration) Law No. 11 of 2012, the administrative structure of Local Government is headed by the Head of Local Government. Administration (popularly called the Director of Administration and General Services) who is appointed by the Local Government Service Commission. He is assisted by the Heads of Departments. Under the Law, every Local Government shall have the following Departments:

- i. Administration, Legal and General Services

- ii. Agriculture and Natural Resources
- iii. Budget, Planning, Research and Statistics
- iv. Finance and Supplies
- v. Primary Healthcare
- vi. Social Development, Education and Information
- vii. Sports and Culture Works, Transport, Housing, Land and Survey.

Each Department has its Units manned by Units Heads.

4.3.1 Social Setting of Soba Local Government Area

Soba Local Government Area covers land mass of approximately 2,233.5Km² and lies between latitude 900 and 1100 North and longitude 70 and 80 Northeast. Its bordering Local Government Areas include: Sabon Gari, Zaria and Igabi to the West, Kubau to the East, Kudan, Makarfi and Ikara to the North and Kauru to the South. The ecology is guinea Sahel Savannah. Currently the Local Government has the following two (i.e Maigana and Soba) Districts and villages.

1. Maigana: Under Maigana district there are 23 villages. These include: M. Yahaya, Ang. Galla, Damari, Fagachi, Fari-Kaa, Gimba, Hayin Kinkiba, Kuzai, Kwai, Ma-birni, Madaba, Maferawa ,Magada, Marwa, Matari, Richifa, Sabon Kudi, Sabon-birni, Tamba, Wanka, Yakasai and Yelwa mai Bene

2. Soba District: In Soba district there are 24 villages namely; Alhazawa, Ang. Madaki, Ang. Mallam dogo, Bakura, Barwa, Dan-Isa, Dan-jaba, Dan-wata, Dinya, Dorayi, Gamagira, GarunGwanki, Gurbabiya Kaware, Kuyamutsa, Kwasallo , Lungu, Mai-Zare, Makoron-lemo, Marmara Taba, Taka-Lafiya, Tukurwa and Turawa.

4.3.2 Natural Endowments of Soba Local Government Area

Agriculture is the main occupation of the people of Soba Local Government. The Area is blessed with vast fertile land suitable for the cultivation of both wet and dry season crops such as tomatoes, peppers, sugarcane, rice, corn (maize), Soya beans, and vegetables. Soba has enjoyed major Agricultural Research Projects under the ADPs apart from existing Community Irrigation Scheme for Lungun in Soba, with apple orchard at Maigana, Palmore orchard at Maigana and oil palm orchard also in Maigana. Natural resource endowment (Solid minerals) that are in commercial quantities are (a). Bismuth (b). Kaolin (c). Rhodolite Garnet and (d). Tourmaline

4.3.3 Socio-Economic Infrastructure of Soba Local Government Area

The Local Government Area has two hundred and three (243) primary schools, fifty six (56) clinics, and two (2) rural hospitals. The Local Government Area derived its water supply from Maigana, Soba and Turawa Water Schemes. Between 2008 and 2009, Soba benefited from rural water supply project of 12 boreholes drilling within communities PHCs and Schools phase 1-4. Between 2000 and 2007, Soba had 32 solar powered boreholes that are functional. In 2009 and 2010, it has an additional ten (10) completed in each of the years. In 2015, Soba had 7 boreholes constructed while record on 2008 MDGs hand pump boreholes revealed soba had 26.

From the judicial perspective, Soba Local Government Area has two (2) Sharia Courts located at Soba and Magana and one Customary Court at Magana. The Local Government Area has two (2) rural hospitals, one in Soba and the other in Magana. The Local Government enjoyed

the Maigana, Soba and Turawa Water Project Scheme as State and Local Government Joint project.

4.3.4 Water Supply Facilities of Soba Local Government Area

Soba currently has eight hundred and eighty seven (857) boreholes as main source of water spread across the wards and villages in the LGA with a ratio of 1:450 and 1: 479 in 2015 and 2017 as against the recommended standard threshold of 1:500. The two ratios indicate suboptimal usage per borehole. Given the current total numbers of boreholes it is significant to note that only three hundred and seventy two (372) of these numbers are functional representing 43% of the total while four hundred and eighty five (485) representing 57% of the total are non- functional. In addition, majority of the borehole are hand pumps (827) while 30 are motorized. Using the standard ratio of 1:500 persons per borehole, Soba non-functional boreholes ratio to population estimates for 2015and 2017 were 1:796 and 1: 847. These ratios for the two years showed that the adequacy number of boreholes in Soba have not ensured sufficient and adequate supply of water due to non- functional status of some. The ideal provision for the 2015 and 2017 would have been seven hundred and seventy two (772) and eight hundred and twenty two (822) efficient functional boreholes respectively.

4.3.5 Water Resources and Sanitation Situation Analysis of Soba Local Government Area

Performance of the LGA in providing access to potable water sector is less than adequate. According to SBS statistics, only about 47.9% of households have improved water source. Although there is a record of very high number of boreholes constructed across LGAs and many still under construction, majority of the already constructed boreholes are non-functional. 75% of the house-holds are dependent on borehole for drinking. There are still increasing demand from the communities for portable water.

Summary of key Issues

The following are the identified key issues:

- i. Poor maintenance of existing boreholes
- ii. Poor access to pipe borne water
- iii. Inadequate provision of new borehole to augment the existing ones
- iv. Lack of power supply to pump water when needed

4.3.6 Infrastructure Development Situation Analysis of Soba Local Government Area

The available data provided by the SBS shows the following current situation of the sector in the LGA:

a. Percentage distribution of household by access road

About 82.4% of households have access roads, there are inadequate drainage systems and culverts, lack of road maintenance and low quality of roads and insufficient funds for capital projects. Regular roads maintenance and construction of drainages and culverts, engagement of qualified contractors and provision of feeder roads will ensure increased and regular access roads to households.

b. Percentage distribution of households without source of electricity power

About 40% of households are without source of electricity power. Limiting factors include: 1. Inadequate power supply from national grid. 2. Inadequate power supply facilities 3. Lack of alternative efficient source of power. Success factors include - 1. Provision of transformer to the wards. 2. Increased power supply from the national grid.

c. Percentage distribution of households by type of toilet facility covered latrines

About 60.6% of households make use of covered latrines. The remaining 47.2% do not due to cultural background, high poverty level and inadequate awareness on the use of modern sewage disposal systems. Public awareness on environmental hygiene will improve the status of this indicator.

Summary of Key Issues

- i. Cultural barriers
- ii. Inadequate drainage and culvert
- iii. Inadequate power supply from national electricity grid
- iv. Insufficient funds for capital project
- v. Lack of alternative and efficient source of power
- vi. Lack of awareness on the importance of sanitation and hygiene
- vii. Lack of maintenance
- viii. Low quality of the road
- ix. Under-estimation of project (State Bureau of Statistics, 2018)

4.4 Political Structure of Soba Local Government Area

In Soba Local Government Area, there are two constituencies; Soba and Maigana representing the Local Government Area in Kaduna State House of Assembly. There are eleven (11) Wards in the Local Government Area namely; Soba, Maigana, Turawa, Gamagira, Rahama and Dan'wata, and the rest are Garun, Kinkiba, Richifa, Kwassallo and Gimba. The Local Government Area has three (3) Potential Development Areas that could bring development to the people and these are Soba, Turawa and Yakasai (NBS, 2010).

In democratic settings, every local government area is administered by a Local Government Council. The LGA Council consist of Chairman who is the Chief Executive of the LGA, and other elected members are referred to as Councilors. The Chairman is normally elected, but can, under special circumstances, also be appointed. He/she supervises the activities of the local government and presides over all meetings of the Council.

4.5 Economy and Poverty Level of Soba Local Government Area

The economic outlook of Soba Local Government can be described as a growing economy. Available data from the State Bureau of Statistics (SBS) shows that 76.8% of households in the Local Government Area live below poverty line of fourteen thousand naira (N14,000) monthly. This poverty situation was linked to relatively high unemployment rate and low literacy level in the Local Government Area. A closer analysis of the population of the Local Government Area further indicates that 90.3% of the population are self-employed and 66.9% out of this 90.3% are involved in either agriculture, hunting or forestry (Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics, 2018).

4.6 Educational Clusters of Soba Local Government Area

There are eighteen (18) educational clusters in Soba Local Government Area as follows:

- i. Yakasai cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- ii. Dinya cluster comprises of 14 primary schools
- iii. Kwasallo cluster comprises of 15 primary schools
- iv. Sambirni cluster comprises of 15 primary schools
- v. Matari cluster comprises of 15 primary schools
- vi. Tudun Saibu cluster comprises of 14 primary schools
- vii. Maigana cluster comprises of 12 primary schools
- viii. Gardago cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- ix. Gimba cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- x. Lungu cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- xi. Tashan jirgi cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- xii. Model Soba cluster comprises of 15 primary schools
- xiii. Turawa cluster comprises of 12 primary schools
- xiv. Lungun Dankande cluster comprises of 13 primary schools
- xv. Rahama cluster comprises of 15 primary schools
- xvi. Dogon Daji cluster comprises of 14 primary schools
- xvii. Gamagira cluster comprises of 12 primary schools
- xviii. Liman Ibada cluster comprises of 12 primary schools

4.7 School Facilities of Soba Local Government Area

There are 952 classrooms in all with only 351 classroom with good condition, 224 classrooms with minor repairs, 337 classrooms with major repairs, 111 classrooms with seating, 337

classrooms with good blackboard and 22 classrooms under constructions. This show the conditions of classrooms, which do not encourage proper learning activities.

In terms of other facilities, there is no single computer system and laboratory in the entire Soba Local Government Area with only 2 useable libraries in the whole schools in the study area. There are 237 useable playground which is good for outdoor activities from the total number of 243 schools across the study area. 48 useable toilet facilities representing is also too insignificant to cater for the need of pupils especially the girl-child. 92 useable washing hand implies that many schools do not have useable washing hand. 18 useable water sources is very insignificant to meet the need of pupils. There is no single useable power sources in the schools. Therefore, facilities in public primary schools are grossly inadequate or in total absent, which make the environment unconducive for pupils to learn, especially girl-child.

The number of teachers in public primary schools in the study area are 1,627 teachers both males and females. Among the total number of both male and female teachers, more than half of them are female teachers, which serve as a role model for girl-child. There are minimum of 61 pupils for one teacher. The pupils-teacher ratio is below the global standard of 45 pupils per one teacher as obtain in developed countries of the world. Also, there is an average of 104 pupils in a classroom, which is below the global practice and standard of a maximum of 45 pupils per classroom. The pupils-classrooms ratio number does not guarantee conducive learning environment (Kaduna State Bureau of Statistics, 2018).

4.8 Situation Analysis of Educational Sector in Soba Local Government Area

The public primary schools in this Local Government according to Soba LGEA are 243 with 70,028 pupils and 1,420 teachers. The estimated pupils-teachers ratio is 1:49. This ratio is

above the threshold by four (4) extra pupils using the 1:45 threshold standard of teacher per classroom. The ratio of pupils aged 6-11 to teacher is estimated at 1:40. This ratio is less by five (5) to meet the required standard threshold. Thus, there is need to step up enrolment rate so that there is adequate utilization and pupils distribution in classrooms that would ensure efficient service delivery in basic education in the rural areas. Analyses of other indicators in the sector are as follows:

4.8.1 Pre-primary school enrolment in public schools in Soba Local Government Area

The total enrolment in pre-primary schools are 9,225 out of which 3,162 are females representing 35%.

Reasons adduced for the shortfall include:

- i. Ignorance of the value of education by some parents and their children.
- ii. Poverty of some parents which make them to send their children to farm or other economic activities.
- iii. Inadequate qualified teachers.
- iv. Un-conducive learning environment due to over population of pupils or proximity of school to marketplace.
- v. Inadequate teaching material and equipment such as textbooks, computers, laboratory equipment etc.
- vi. Distance from home to schools

- vii. Poor funding for public schools by the government.
- viii. Inadequate qualified teachers especially English and Mathematics.
- ix. Lack of training and retraining of teachers.

4.8.2 Primary School Enrolment in Public Schools in Soba Local Government Area

The total enrolments in primary schools are 70,028 out of which 40,547 are male representing 57%. Limiting factors include:

- i. Attitude to education of some parents and the children due to ignorance of value of education
- ii. Poverty of some parents which make them to send their children to farm or other economic activities.
- iii. Inadequate qualified teachers.
- iv. Un-conducive learning environment due to over population of pupils or proximity of school to marketplace.
- v. Inadequate teaching material and equipment such as text books, computers, laboratory equipment etc.
- vi. Distance from home to schools
- vii. Poor funding for public school by the government.
- viii. Inadequate qualified teachers especially English and Mathematics.
- ix. Lack of training and retraining of teachers.

4.8.6 Public Junior Secondary School Enrolment

The total enrolments in public junior secondary schools are 5,969 out of which 4,489 are males representing 75%. Reasons adduced for the shortfall include:

- i. Attitude to education of some parents and their children due to ignorance of value of education
- ii. Poverty of some parents which make them to send their children to farm or other economic activities.
- iii. Inadequate qualified teachers.
- iv. Un-conducive learning environment due to over population of pupils or proximity of school to marketplace.
- v. Inadequate teaching material and equipment such as textbooks, computers, laboratory equipment etc.
- vi. Distance from home to schools
- vii. Poor funding for public schools by the government.
- viii. Inadequate qualified teachers especially English and Mathematics.
- ix. Lack of training and retraining of teachers.

Possible areas of intervention to reverse the situation include:

- i. School Feeding Program.
- ii. Rehabilitation and repairs of public schools.
- iii. Monitoring of schools performance by Quality Assurance Teams.
- iv. Introduction of free and compulsory primary education. 5
- v. Provision of teaching and learning materials such as textbooks, etc.
- vi. Supply of furniture
- vii. Provision of toilet facilities and
- viii. Provision of tap water (State Bureau of Statistics, 2018)

4.8.7 Percentage of Household Members Aged 4 to 18 Years with Highest Grade Completion for Pre-Primary, Nursery/Crèche

According to the 2017 Kaduna State School Census only 4.7% of household members aged 4 to 18 years are with highest-grade completion for pre-primary and nursery/crèche. Limiting factors include:

- i. Late introduction of young children into primary school level.
- ii. Poverty of parents
- iii. Ignorance of some parents on the importance of education
- iv. Some parents preferred Almajiri School for their children at the early age.
- v. Illness of the children can stop the child from attending the school.
- vi. Attitude of Parents towards the education of their children.

Success factors include:

- i. School feeding program.
- ii. Rehabilitation and repairs of public schools.
- iii. Monitoring of schools performance by Quality Assurance Teams.
- iv. Introduction of free and compulsory primary education.
- v. Provision of teaching and learning materials such as textbooks, etc.
- vi. Supply of furniture
- vii. Supply of toilet facilities
- viii. Provision of tap water (State Bureau of Statistics, 2018).

4.8.8 Percentage of household members aged 4 to 18 years with highest grade completion for Primary School

About 67.1% of household members aged 4 to 18 years are with highest-grade completion for primary school. Limiting factors include:

- i. Late introduction of young children into primary school level.
- ii. Poverty of parents
- iii. Ignorance of some parents on the importance of education
- iv. Some parents preferred Almajiri's school for their children at the early age.
- v. Illness of the children can stop the child from attending the school.
- vi. Attitude of parents towards the education of their children.

Success factors include:

- i. School feeding program.
- ii. Rehabilitation and repairs of public schools.
- iii. Monitoring of schools performance by Quality Assurance Teams.
- iv. Introduction of free and compulsory primary education.
- v. Provision of teaching and learning materials such as textbooks, etc.
- vi. Supply of furniture
- vii. Supply of toilet facilities
- viii. Provision of tap water (State Bureau of Statistics, 2018)

Summary of Key Issues

The following factors could be attributable to the education situation in this Local Government Area

- i. Poor funding for public schools by the government.
- ii. Attitude of parents towards the education of their children
- iii. Ignorance of some parents on the importance of education
- iv. Inadequate qualified teachers especially in English and Mathematics.
- v. Late introduction of young children into primary school level.
- vi. Some parents preferred Almajiri schools for their children at the early age.
- vii. Attitude to education of some parents and the children due to ignorance of value of education
- viii. Distance from home to schools
- ix. Ignorance of value education of some parents and their children
- x. Inadequate teaching materials and equipment such as text books, computers, laboratory equipment etc ,
- xi. Lack of training and retraining of teachers
- xii. Poor funding for public school by the government.
- xiii. Poverty of some parents which make them to send their children to farm or other economic activities.
- xiv. Inappropriate learning environment due to over population of pupils or proximity of school to market place (State Bureau of Statistics)

CHAPTER FIVE
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis of data and discussion of results. The major aim of the study is to investigate the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. A total of four hundred (400) questionnaires were responded to and returned out of 410 administered representing 97.6%. Data collected through the test instrument is presented in this sections. The first section presents the bio data of the respondents by means of frequencies and percentages, while the second section answers the research questions. The hypotheses were tested at the end of the chapter with discussions of findings from the analyzed data.

5.2 Presentation and Analysis of Data Collected Through Questionnaires

5.2.1 Response Rate

Table 5.1: Summary of Response Rate

Item	Copies/Rate
Number of questionnaires distributed	410
Number of questionnaires Returned	400
Number of questionnaire not returned	10
Response Rate	97.56%

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5.1 shows the number of questionnaire distributed to the respondents, out of 410 questionnaire administered 400 were returned representing 97.56%, which we find it adequate for analysis.

5.2.2 Bio Data of the Respondents

The table below presents the demographic characteristics of the sampled respondents. It includes gender, age, marital status, level of education and occupation.

Table 5.2: Bio Data of the Respondents

Particulars	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender				
Male	220	55.0	55.0	55.0
Female	180	45.0	45.0	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	
Age				
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
15-24	216	54.0	54.0	54.0
25-40	141	35.3	35.3	89.3
41 – 55	35	8.8	8.8	98.0
56 and above	8	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	
Marital Status				
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Single	165	41.3	41.3	41.3
Married	235	58.8	58.8	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	
Educational Qualification				
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Primary school Certificate	93	23.3	23.3	23.3
SSCE/GCE	210	52.5	52.5	75.8
NCE/OND	41	10.3	10.3	86.0
HND/First Degree	56	14.0	14.0	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	
Occupation				
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Civil Servant	60	15.0	15.0	15.0
Students	61	15.3	15.3	30.3
Traders	56	14.0	14.0	44.3
Farmers	169	42.3	42.3	86.5
Others	54	13.5	13.5	100.0
Total	400	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5.2 above, the gender of the respondents reveal that 220 respondents which account for 55% of the total respondents are male. While 180 respondents, representing 45% are female. This showed that majority of the respondents are male because based on 2006 National Census the population of male is more than that of female in the study area.

Table 5.2 above, the age of the respondents reveal that 54% of the respondents are within the age 15-24 year bracket, 35.3% are within 25-40 years, 8.8% of the respondents are within 41-50 of age and the remaining 2% are 56 years and above. The table signifies that majority of our respondents are within youthful age which form the target of this study.

Table 5.2 above, the marital status of the respondents show that 41.3% of the respondents are single while 58.8% of the respondents are married. The married group formed the highest respondents because they are the main stakeholders in this study who support or deny the girl-child from having access to education.

On the educational qualification of the respondents in table 5.2 above shows that 23.3% of the respondents have primary school certificate, 52.5% have secondary school certificate, and, 10.3% are with NCE/OND while the remaining 14% are with Degree/HND. It can be observed that the majority of the sampled respondents are with SSCE/GCE and primary certificates. This implies that majority of the respondents are not well educated but they are knowledgeable enough to respond to our questionnaires.

Table 5.2 above, the occupation of the respondents show that 169 respondents representing 42.3% are farmers, followed by the students with 15.3% of the respondents, respondents who are civil servants constitute 15%. The table also indicates that 14% of the respondents are traders and others which constitute 13.5% are into other kinds of occupations not specifying

above. The table shows that majority of the respondents are farmers. This is because farming is the main occupation in Soba Local Government Area.

5.2.3 Analysis of Data According to Research Questions

Table 5.3: Opinion of the Respondents on How Poverty Affect Girl-Child Education

S/NO	Item	Level of					Total
		SA	A	U	D	SD	
1	Parent pay for their children school uniform	45 (11.3)	50 (12.5)	45 (11.3)	140 (35.0)	120 (30.0)	400 (100%)
2	Pupil without proper school uniform were sent home from school	102 (25.5)	90 (22.5)	77 (19.3)	40 (10.0)	91 (22.5)	400 (100%)
3	Parent were made to pay other school levies such as PTA, development levy etc	100 (25.0)	121 (30.3)	40 (10.0)	82 (20.5)	57 (14.3)	400 (100%)
4	Pupils who cannot afford to pay school levies were sent home	103 (25.8)	87 (21.8)	70 (17.5)	60 (15.0)	80 (20.0)	400 (100%)
5	Parent were expected to buy books and other materials for their children	101 (25.3)	115 (28.7)	44 (11.0)	80 (20.0)	60 (15.0)	400 (100%)
6	Parent who are poor prefer to pay for the boy rather than the girl-child	97 (24.3)	106 (26.5)	88 (22.0)	59 (14.8)	50 (12.5)	400 (100%)
7	Parents' low income hinder girl-child education	131 (32.8)	116 (29.0)	42 (10.5)	72 (18.0)	39 (9.8)	400 (100%)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5.3 item 1 above reveals that 45 (11.3%) of the respondents strongly agree that parents pay for their children school uniform; 50 (12.5%) of the respondents also agree to this claim; while 45 (11.3%) of the respondents are undecided. On the other hand, 140 (35.0%) of the respondents disagree that parents pay for their children school uniform as at when due; while

120 (30.0%) strongly disagree to the claim. This reveals that 65% representing the view of the majority of the respondents claim that parents do not usually pay for their children school uniform as at when due. This indicates that parents' level of income serve as constraints to girl-child education in Soba local government area of Kaduna.

Table 5.3 item 2 above shows that 102 (25.5%) of the respondents strongly agree that pupils without proper school uniform were sent home; 90 (22.5%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 77 (19.3%) of the respondents are undecided. On the other hand, 40 (10.0%) of the respondents disagree that children without proper school uniform were sent home; while 91 (22.5%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to this claim. This reveals that children without proper school uniform were sent home as seen by 48% representing the opinion of the majority of the respondents. This is because in public primary school pupils were expected to wear school uniform with badge to school. The responsibility of sowing school uniform lay with the parents and those who cannot afford due to poverty had to allow their children remain at home.

Table 5.3 item 3 above reveals that 100 of the respondents which constitute (25.0%) strongly agree that parent were made to pay other school levies such as PTA, development levy, etc; 121 (30.3%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 40 (10.0) of the respondents were not sure. On the other hand, 82 (20.5%) of the respondents disagree that parents were made to pay school levies such as PTA and development levy of the school; while 57 (14.3) of the respondents also strongly disagree with this claim. This suggests that 55.3% representing the view of the majority of the respondents are of the opinion that parent were made to pay school levies in order to contribute to the development of the school as a result of

schools' need, which could not be made by government alone in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State

Table 5.3 item 4 above shows that 103 (25.8%) of the respondents strongly agree that pupils who cannot afford were sent home; 89 (21.8%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 70 (17.5%) were undecided. On the other hand, 60 (15.0%) of the respondents disagree that pupils who cannot afford to pay school levies were sent home; while 80 (20.0%) of the respondents also strongly disagree this claim. This reveals that majority of the respondents which constitute 47.6% of the respondents are of the assertion that pupils who cannot afford to pay school levies were sent home even though the school levies is not compulsory on pupils according to state laws. Yet those who cannot afford to pay are not allow to attend school in Soba local government area of Kaduna.

Table 5.3 item 5 above reveals that 101 (25.3%) of the respondents strongly agree that parent were expected to buy books and other materials for their children; 115 (28.7%) of the respondents also agree to this claim; while 44 (11.0%) of the respondents were unsure about the statement. On the other hand, 80 (20%) of the respondents disagree that parents were expected to buy books and other material for their children; while 60 (15%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to the assertion. This indicates that majority of the respondents representing (54%) are of the opinion that parent were expected to buy books and other materials for their children because there are insufficient learning material in school, which is a manifestation of poverty in schools in Soba local government area in Kaduna.

Table 5.3 item 6 above shows that 97 (24.3%) of the respondents strongly agree that parent who are poor prefer to pay for the boy rather than the girl-child; 106 (26.5%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 88 (22.0%) of the respondents are uncertain

about the statement. On the other hand, 59 (14.8) of the respondents disagree that poor parent prefer to pay for the boy rather than the girl-child; while 50 (12.5%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to the assertion. This indicates that 50.8% of the respondents, which form the majority share the point that parents prefer sending their boys to school than the girls in Soba local government area in line with the societal practice of male dominance and role in the society.

Table 5.3 item 7 above reveals that 131 (32.8%) of the respondents strongly agree that parents' low income hinders the education of their girls; 116 (29.0%) of the respondents also agree to the assertion, while 42 (10.5%) of the respondents are uncertain. On the other hand, 72 (18.0%) of the respondents disagree that parents' low income hinders the education of their girls; while 39 (9.8%) of the respondents also strongly disagree on the assertion. This further reveals that 61.8% representing the majority of the respondents share the point of view that parents' low income is a constraint to girls' education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Table 5.4: Opinion of the Respondents on Cultural Practices

S/NO	Item	Level of					Total
		SA	A	U	D	SD	
1	Parents in the community preferred the boy as against the girl-child	124 (31.0)	92 (23.0)	20 (5.0)	87 (21.8)	77 (19.3)	400 (100%)
2	Girls are married early in this community	100 (25.0)	103 (25.8)	33 (8.3)	91 (22.8)	73 (18.3)	400 (100%)
3	Parent send their girl-child hawking than going to school	91 (22.8)	102 (25.5)	77 (19.3)	90 (22.5)	40 (10.0)	400 (100%)
4	Parents send their girl-child for nanny than sending them to school	90 (22.5)	91 (22.8)	40 (10.0)	102 (25.5)	77 (19.3)	400 (100%)
5	Parents engaged their girls to do house chores than sending them to school	108 (27.0)	118 (29.5)	40 (10.0)	71 (17.8)	63 (15.8)	400 (100%)

6	The community preference on girl-child education is low	116 (29.0)	131 (32.8)	39 (9.85)	72 (18.0)	42 (10.5)	400 (100%)
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Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5.4 item 1 above reveals that 124 (31.0%) of the respondents strongly agree that parents in the community preferred the boy as against the girl-child; 92 (23.0%) of the respondents also agree to this claim; while 20 (5.0%) of the respondents are undecided. On the other hand, 87 (21.8%) of the respondents disagree that parents in the community preferred the boy as against the girl-child; while 77 (19.3%) strongly disagree to the claim. This reveals that 54% representing the view of the majority of the respondents claim that parents in the community preferred the boy as against the girl-child. This indicates the preferential treatment of the boy which is detrimental to girl-child in Soba local government area of Kaduna.

Table 5.4 item 2 above shows that 100 (25.0%) of the respondents strongly agree that girls are married early in this community; 103 (25.8%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 33 (8.3%) of the respondents are undecided. On the other hand, 91 (22.8%) of the respondents disagree that girls are married early in this community; while 73 (18.3%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to this claim. This reveals that 50.8% representing the opinion of the majority of the respondents share the point of view that early married is source worry to education's stakeholders in Soba Local Government Area.

Table 5.4 item 3 above reveals that 91 of the respondents which constitute (22.8%) strongly agree that parent send their girl-child hawking than going to school; 102 (25.5%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 77 (19.3) of the respondents were not sure. On the other hand, 90 (22.5%) of the respondents disagree that parent send their girl-child hawking than going to school; while 40 (10.0) of the respondents also strongly disagree with this claim. This suggests that 48.3% representing the view of the majority of the respondents are of the opinion that parent send their girl-child hawking than going to school, which is the

reason for low school retention for girl-child in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Table 5.4 item 4 above shows that 90 (22.5%) of the respondents strongly agree that parents send their girl-child for nanny than sending them to school; 91 (22.8%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 40 (10.0%) were undecided. On the other hand, 102 (25.5%) of the respondents disagree that parents send their girl-child for nanny than sending them to school; while 77 (19.3%) of the respondents also strongly disagree this claim. This reveals that majority of the respondents which constitute 45.3% of the respondents are of the assertion that parents usually send their girls for nanny than sending them to school in Soba local government area of Kaduna.

Table 5.4 item 5 above reveals that 108 (27.0%) of the respondents strongly agree that parents engaged their girls to do house chores than sending them to school; 118 (29.5%) of the respondents also agree to this claim; while 40 (10.0%) of the respondents were unsure about the statement. On the other hand, 71 (17.8%) of the respondents disagree that parents engaged their girls to do house chores than sending them to school; while 60 (15%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to the assertion. This indicates that majority of the respondents representing (56.5%) are of the opinion that parents engaged their girls to do house chores than sending them to school in Soba local government area in Kaduna. This signifies that parents do not attach much importance to the education of the girl-child.

Table 5.4 item 6 above shows that 116 (29.0%) of the respondents strongly agree that community preference on girl-child education is low; 131 (32.8%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 39 (9.8%) of the respondents are uncertain about the statement. On the other hand, 72 (18.0) of the respondents disagree that community preference on girl-

child education is low; while 50 (12.5%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to the assertion. This indicates that 61.8% of the respondents, which form the majority share the point that parents' preference on girl-child education is low. This is in line with the societal practice of male dominance and role in the society.

Table 5.5: Opinion of the Respondents on Girl-Child Education

S/NO	Item	Level of					Total
		SA	A	U	D	SD	
1	There are more boys in school than girls	155 (38.8)	85 (21.3)	15 (3.8)	69 (17.3)	76 (19.0)	400 (100%)
2	The rate of girl retention in school is low	101 (25.3)	93 (23.3)	50 (12.5)	80 (20.0)	76 (19.0)	400 (100%)
3	More girls drop out of school than boys	108 (27.0)	116 (29.0)	42 (10.2)	72 (18.0)	62 (15.5)	400 (100%)
4	The completion rate of boys is more than that of girls	139 (34.8)	126 (31.5)	18 (4.5)	59 (14.8)	58 (14.5)	400 (100%)
5	The girl-child has the highest number of out of school population	101 (25.3)	115 (28.7)	33 (8.4)	91 (22.7)	60 (15)	400 (100)

Source: Field Survey, 2019

Table 5.5 item 1 above reveals that 155 (38.8%) of the respondents strongly agree that there are more boys in school than girls; 85 (21.3%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 15 (3.8%) of the respondents were undecided. On the other hand, 69 (17.3%) of the respondents disagree that there are more boys in school than girls; while 76 (19.0%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to the claim. This reveals that 60.1% representing the majority respondents share the point of view that there are more boys in school than girls. This further vindicate global estimate that there are more out-of-school girls than boys.

Table 5.5 item 2 above shows that 101 (25.3%) of the respondents strongly agree that the rate of girl retention in school is low; 93 (23.3%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion;

while 50 (12.5%) of the respondents were undecided. On the other hand, 80 (20.0%) of the respondents disagree that the rate of girl retention in school is low; while 76 (19.0%) of the respondents also strongly disagree with the claim. This reveals that the rate of girls' retention in school because of numerous challenges such as early marriage, hawking, and house chore among others based on the opinion of the majority representing 48.3% of the respondents in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Table 5.5 item 3 above reveals that 108 of the respondents which constitute (27.0%) strongly agree that more girls drop out of school than boys; 116 (29.0%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion; while 42 (10.2) of the respondents were not sure. On the other hand, 72 (18.0%) of the respondents disagree that more girls drop out of school than boys; while 62 (15.5) of the respondents also strongly disagree to this claim. This suggests that 56% representing the view of the majority of the respondents agree that more girls drop out of school than boys in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Table 5.5 item 4 above shows that 139 (34.8%) of the respondents strongly agree that the completion rate of boys in school is more than that of girls; 126 (31.5%) of the respondents also agree to this assertion, while 18 (4.5%) are undecided. On the other hand, 59 (14.8%) of the respondents disagree that the completion rate of boys in school is more than that of girls; while 58 (14.5%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to this claim. This reveals that majority of the respondents which constitute 52.5% are of the opinion that the completion rate of boys in school is more than that of girls in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

Table 5.5 item 5 above reveals that 101 (25.3%) of the respondents strongly agree that the girl-child has the highest number of out of school population; 115 (28.7%) of the respondents also agree to this claim; while 33 (8.4%) of the respondents are unsure about the statement. On the

other hand, 91 (22.7%) disagree that the girl-child has the highest number of out of school population; while 60 (15.0%) of the respondents also strongly disagree to this assertion. This indicates that majority of the respondents representing 54% are of the opinion that the girl-child has the highest number of out of school population in Soba local government area in Kaduna. This is also in line with the global estimate by UNICEF that the number of out-of-school girls has continue to increase in an alarming rate.

Table 5.6: Primary School Enrolment by Gender in Soba LGA

Year	Primary 1				Primary 2			
	Boys	Girl	Total	% Girl	Boy	Girl	Total	% Girl
2011	8,404	5,848	14,252	41.03%	6,543	4,554	11,907	38.25%
2012	8,515	6,409	14,924	42.94%	6,566	4,642	11,208	41.42%
2013	9,658	6,722	16,380	41.04%	7,601	4,751	12,352	38.46%
2014	15,491	12,198	27,689	44.05%	9,494	7,147	16,641	42.95%
2015	16,026	13,198	29,224	45.16%	10,556	8,069	18,625	43.32%
2016	16,389	12,697	29,086	43.65%	7,780	6,153	13,933	44.16%
2017	15,679	12,831	28,510	45.01%	9,594	7,280	16,874	43.14%

Source: Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.6 above shows girl-child enrolment in primary 1 is 41.03% in 2011 the lowest. It increased to 42.94% in 2012. The enrolment declined to 41.04% in 2013. But increases to 44.05% in 2014 and reached its peak to 45.16% in 2015. It further declined to 43.65% in 2016 but slightly increased to 45.01% in 2017. The enrolment in primary 1 has been fluctuating within the period under review with more boys than girls throughout.

Also, table 5.6 shows girl-child enrolment in primary 2 is 38.25% in 2011 the lowest. It increased to 41.42% in 2012. The enrolment declined to 38.46% in 2013. But increased to 42.95% in 2014 and 43.32% in 2015 respectively. It reached its peak to 44.16% in 2016, but further declined to 43.14% in 2017. The enrolment in primary 2 also has been fluctuating within the period under review with more boys than girls throughout.

Table 5.7: Primary School Enrolment by Gender in Soba LGA

Year	Primary 3				Primary 4			
	Boys	Girl	Total	% Girl	Boy	Girl	Total	% Girl
2011	5,573	3,804	9,377	40.57%	4,176	2,411	6,587	36.60%
2012	5,908	3,710	9,618	38.57%	4,802	2,510	7,312	34.33%
2013	6,097	3,734	9,831	37.98%	4,811	2,862	7,673	37.30%
2014	6,973	5,136	12,109	42.41%	5,236	4,004	9,240	43.33%
2015	7,940	8,651	16,591	52.14%	5,518	4,142	9,660	42.88%
2016	6,301	4,777	11,078	43.12%	4,144	2,833	6,977	40.60%
2017	7,093	5,245	12,338	42.51%	4,611	3,302	7,913	41.73%

Source: Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.7 shows girl-child enrolment in primary 3 is 40.57% in 2011. It declined to 38.57% in 2012 and drastically fall to 37.98% in 2013, which is the lowest. But increased to 42.41% in 2014 and reached its peak to 52.14% in 2015. But continues a steady fall to 43.12% in 2016 and 42.51% in 2017 respectively. The enrolment in primary 3 also has been fluctuating within the period under review with more boys than girls except in 2015, where girls' enrolment represent 52.14%.

Also, table 5.7 shows girl-child enrolment in primary 4 is 36.60% in 2011. It declined to 34.33% in 2012, which is the lowest but increased to 37.30% in 2013. But reached its peak to 43.33% in 2014. It continues a steady to decline to 42.88% in 2015 and 40.60% in 2016 respectively. It finally increased to 41.73% in 2017. The enrolment in primary 4 also has been fluctuating within the period under review with more boys than girls throughout.

Table 5.8: Primary School Enrolment by Gender in Soba LGA

Year	Primary 5				Primary 6			
	Boys	Girl	Total	% Girl	Boy	Girl	Total	% Girl
2011	3,365	1,843	5,208	35.39%	2,464	1,285	3,749	34.28%
2012	3,389	1,994	5,383	37.04%	2,462	1,389	3,851	36.10%
2013	3,514	2,135	5,649	37.80%	2,457	1,426	3,883	36.72%
2014	3,629	2,575	6,204	41.51%	2,495	1,673	4,168	40.14%
2015	3,371	2,476	5,847	42.35%	2,191	1,542	3,733	41.31%
2016	2,792	1,952	4,744	41.15%	2,052	1,301	3,353	38.80%
2017	2,747	2,104	4,851	43.40%	1,851	1,311	3,162	41.46%

Source: Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.8 shows girl-child enrolment in primary 5 is 35.39% in 2011. But continues a steady rise to 37.04% in 2012, 37.80% in 2013, 41.51% in 2014 and 42.35% in 2015 respectively. It declined to 41.15% in 2016 and reached its peak to 43.40% in 2017.

Also, table 5.8 shows girl-child enrolment in primary 6 is 34.28% in 2011. But continues a steady rise to 36.10% in 2012, 36.72% in 2013, 40.14% in 2014 and 41.31% in 2015 respectively. It declined to 38.80% in 2016 and reached its peak to 41.46% in 2017.

Table 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8 above show the enrolment of pupils in public primary schools from primary 1 to 6 in Soba Local Government Area. It covers the period from 2011 – 2017. The statistic reveals that the annual enrolment in all the classes in soba local government area all boys continuously outnumbers the girls except only in primary 3 in 2015, which is an indication that there are more boys than girl child in public primary schools during the period under review.

Table 5.9: Girl-Child School Enrolment in Soba LGA

	Primary 1	Primary 2	Primary 3	Primary 4	Primary 5	Primary 6
2011	5,848	4,554	3,804	2,411	1,843	1,285
2012	6,409	4,642	3,710	2,510	1,994	1,389
2013	6,722	4,751	3,734	2,862	2,135	1,426
2014	12,198	7,147	5,136	4,004	2,575	1,673
2015	13,198	8,069	8,651	4,142	2,476	1,542
2016	12,697	6,153	4,777	2,833	1,952	1,301
2017	12,831	7,280	5,245	3,302	2,104	1,311

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

The Table 5.9 above depicts that the enrolment into schools in Soba local government area in all the class from year 2011 to 2017. The table showed that for primary one , the girl child enrolment increase from 5848 in 2011 to 12831 in 2017 which is above 100% increment. Also the primary two increase for the studied period is from 4554 to 7280, primary three 3804 to 5245. Also in similar trend, the primary four enrolment increase from 2411 to 3302, primary five 1843 to 2104 while primary six increase from 1285 to 1311. It is a clear indication of class increment although the percent increases in the difference class reduces as the level of class increase.

Table 5.10: Public Primary School Completion by Gender in Soba LGA

Year	Primary 6			
	Boy	Girl	Total	% Girl
2011	2,127	850	2,977	28.55%
2012	2,123	1,058	3,181	33.26%
2013	2,113	1,028	3,141	32.73%
2014	2,189	1,326	3,515	37.72%
2015	1,581	923	2,504	36.86%
2016	1,303	592	1,895	31.23%
2017	901	390	1,291	30.21%

Source: Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.10 above shows the percentage completion rate of girl-child education. It covers the period from 2011 to 2017. Based on the data, it can be observed that more boys complete primary 6 than girls for the period under review. The school completion rate among girls keep fluctuating to as low as 28.55% in 2011. It is only in 2014 that the school completion rate among girls reached its peak to 37.72%, which means that the annual completion rate is insignificant compare to boys.

5.2.4 Discussion on School Infrastructures

It is worthy to note that school infrastructures also affect both boys and girls in their determination to be educated in the following ways:

Table 5.11: Number of Useable Classroom with their Condition

Total Number of Classroom	Number of Useable Classroom in Good Condition	Number of Useable Classroom with Minor Repairs	Number of Useable Classroom with Major repairs	Number of Classroom Under construction	Number of Classroom with Seating	Number of Classroom with Good Black Board
952	351	224	337	22	111	337

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.11 shows total number of useable classrooms in good condition representing only 36.87% from the entire classrooms in the study area. This implies that over 60% of classroom are not useable for pupils and give room for high level of pupils-classroom ratio that do not encourage learning. 224 are the number of useable classrooms with minor repairs representing 63.82% from the number of useable classrooms. 337 number of useable classrooms with major repairs representing 96.01% from the number of useable classrooms. 22 classrooms under construction representing only 6.27% from the number of useable classrooms. 111 number of classroom with seating representing 31.62% from the total number of useable classroom. And 337 classroom with good blackboard representing 96.01% from the total number of useable classroom. This make classroom grossly inadequate to accommodate pupils' enrolment, retention and completion.

Table 5.12: Public Primary School Facilities in Soba LGA

Number of Useable Computers	Number of Useable Laboratories	Number of Useable Libraries	Number of Useable Play Ground	Number of Useable Toilet Facilities	Number of Useable Washing Hand	Number of Useable Water Sources	Number of Useable Power Sources
0	0	2	237	48	92	18	0 _[N1]

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.12 reveals the number of useable facilities that make conducive environment and enhance learning. There is no single computer system and laboratory which are the important components of teaching aid in the whole of public primary schools, though computer studies and basic science are important subject taught in primary school. Only 2 libraries in the whole schools in the study area, which does not encourage learning. 237 useable playground representing 97.53% from the total number of 243 schools across the study area. 48 useable toilet facilities representing 19.75% is too insignificant to cater for the need of pupils especially the girl-child. 92 useable washing hand representing 37.86% from the total number of 243 schools, which implies that many schools do not have useable washing hand. 18 useable water sources representing only 7.41% is very insignificant to meet the need of pupils. There is no single useable power sources in the schools, which is very bad to note. Therefore, facilities in public primary schools are grossly inadequate or total absent, which make the environment unconducive for learning.

Table 5.13: Number of Qualified Public Primary School Teachers by Gender

Male Teachers	Female Teachers	Total	Qualified Teachers	% Female
795	832	1,627	1,417	51.14%

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Table 5.13 above show the number of teachers in public primary schools in the study area. There are 1,627 teachers both males and females and 1,417 representing 87.1% are qualified to teach in public primary schools. Among the total number of both male and female teachers, 51.14% of them are female teachers representing more than half of the total teachers in the study area.

Table 5.14: Public Primary School Pupil-Teachers Ratio

Enrolment (M+F)	All teachers (M+F)	All Pupils Teacher Ratio	Qualified Teacher	Pupil Qualified Teacher Ratio
99,330	1,627	61	1,417	70

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

From table 5.14 there are 61 pupils for one teacher and 70 pupils for one qualified teacher. These number of pupils per one teacher is below the standard and also what is obtainable in developed countries of the world.

Table 5.15: Public Primary School Pupils-Classroom Ratio

Enrolment (M+F)	Total Number of Classroom	Pupils Classroom Ratio
99,330	952	104

Source:Soba Local Government Education Board, 2019

Form table 5.9 shows 104 pupils in a classroom, which is above the global practice and standard of a maximum of 45 pupils per classroom. The number of pupils in a classroom are too many to contain and ensure conducive learning environment.

5.3 Result of Interviews and observations

Theme One: Parents ability to send their girls to school

The result of the interviews show that parents cannot afford to send their children to school without engaging them in domestic or farm work during school period. School managers opines that pupils attendance in school usually drop to over 50% especially on market days and in wet season, when the labour of a girl- child is required. The PTA members are of the view that most parent cannot send their girls to school on regular basis without demanding their services or assistance at home or in the farm. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that school attendance use to drop drastically on market days and wet season as a result of the demand for child labour during these periods. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that schools usually close early on market days due to low school turn out or absence of pupils and in wet season schools continue to experience low attendance rate throughout the season.

Theme Two: Distance to school for boy and girl-child

The result of the interviews show that distance of school from home is a serious source of worry to parents because pupils usually trek for not less than 30 minutes and for some it takes over an hour for them to reach school from home. School teachers opines that the community where schools are located enjoys schools' proximity, while

neighbouring communities have to bear the burden of travelling far before reaching school from home. The PTA members' opinion is similar from that of the teachers that most schools are far from many communities and that become a challenge for their girls to trek this far before going to school. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of schools in the area are not adequate enough to bridge the distance gap between home and school. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that some pupils usually cross rivers, farms and bushes before they could reached school, which is not good for their safety and security because of their age and threat on the road.

Theme Three: The adequacy of classrooms for girls' education

The result of the interviews show that there are many pupils in classrooms and in some cases they are overcrowded, which usually affect their concentration during teaching. Teachers opined that classrooms are insufficient for the number of registered pupils and that teaching pupils in an overcrowded classroom is very difficult. The PTA members also expresses a similar dissatisfaction on the number of classroom in schools compared to the number of pupils. They argued that most classrooms are overcrowded with pupils and inadequate. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of classrooms in this study area are not adequate enough for the standard of 45 pupils per classroom. In some of the visited schools, we notice the shortage of classrooms and the available ones were overcrowded with pupils; some of these classrooms were not in good condition for girl-child education.

Theme Four: Availability of separate toilet facilities for girl-child

The result of the interviews show that there are separate toilet facilities in schools but that these facilities are insufficient, sometime not in good condition or unusable to cater for the number of girls. Teachers opined that toilet facilities are grossly inadequate for both pupils and teachers. In fact, in some cases teachers and pupils shares the same toilet. Also, sometime community members use these toilet facilities that belong to schools, when schools closes. The PTA members opined that there are separate toilet facilities in schools but most of these facilities are not in good condition for pupils especially the girl-child. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that there are separate toilet facilities for both boys and girls, but may not be available enough to meet the demand of the pupils. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that there are separate toilet facilities but not available enough to meet the need of the girl-child. In some schools, there are only one toilet facility for all the boys and one for all the girls in the school. In some schools these facilities were not in good condition or unusable or even absence. Some schools environment have stagnant water particularly during wet season which is uncondusive for girl-child education.

Theme Five: Work that prevent girl-child from going to school

The result of the interviews show that the inability of girls to come to school regularly is because of a number domestic or farm work such as washing of cloth or cooking materials, fetching of fire wood or water, hawking and farm work. Teachers opined

that whenever they ask pupils who were absent in school for some days, they are told by some pupils that they stay at home to help their parents with domestic work or were sent to farm to work. In fact, some pupils usually report to the teachers that their classmate who was absent in school went on hawking. The PTA members opined that pupils usually stay away from schools to help their parents with some domestic work or are sent to hawk. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that pupils usually stay away from schools because of the family demand for their services at home or in farm. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that most pupils do not come to school regularly but are usually seen hawking or engaged in domestic activities.

Theme Six: Girls' attitude towards girl-child education

The results of the interviews show that girls are indifferent towards girls' education, that is whether girls are educated or not it does not really matter much to them. Teachers opined that girls do not care about the education of girl-child; that is girls' education is not a priority to girls. The PTA members opined that girls do not even understand the need for girl-child education in the first place not to mention of how they feel about it. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also express their view that girls do not take girls' education as something important because of the dominant role male play in the society.

Theme Seven: Parents' attitude towards girl-child education

The result of the interviews revealed that parents' attitude towards girls' education is supportive but cannot be compared to that of boys. Teachers opined that parents desire

their daughter to acquire education just like boys. The PTA members opined that as parents they usually support their daughter education within the available resources. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also express their view that parents support the education of their daughter as they are beginning to see the need for girls' education.

Theme Eight: Number of girls in school viz a viz boys

The result of the interviews revealed that there are more boys than girls in public primary schools. Teachers opined that the number of boys and girls varies according to class that is there are more girls in classes one to three but more boys in class four to six, but in general boys are more than girls in schools. The PTA members opined that primary one to three usually have more girls than boys in classes but their number continue to drop as they transit to higher classes. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of boys are more that of girls in schools. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that the gap between girls and boys is close in primary one to three but from primary four to six the gap is very wide with more boys than girls in the classroom.

Theme Nine: Number of girls drop out in school viz a viz boys

The result of the interviews show that more girls drop out of school than boys. Teachers also have a similar view that most of the drop out in schools are girls across the classes. The PTA members opined that the number of girls that drop out of schools are more than that of boys. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of girls that continue to drop out of schools is

alarming and more than boys by far. In some of the visited schools, it was discovered that the attendant rate of boys is more than that of girls.

Theme Ten: The completion rate of girls viz a viz boys

The result of the interviews show that the rate of school completion among girls is low when compared to boys. The teachers are of the view that the rate of school completion favour boys than girls. The PTA members opined that the number of girls that complete schools continue to be lower than that of boys across schools. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of girls that complete school is very insignificant compare to boys. In some of the visited schools, it was observed that number of girls in primary six is too small, where in some cases only two girls complete primary six.

Theme Eleven: number of out-of-school girl-child viz a viz those in schools

The result of the interviews revealed that the number of out-of-school girls are more than those in school. The teachers expressed their view that the number of out-of-school girl-child is alarming and by far more than the number of those in schools. The PTA members opined that there are more out-of-school girls who may never come to school than those who are attending schools. The staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the number of out-of-school girls continue to increase annually when compared to boys. In some of the visited communities, it was observed that number of out-of-school girls is far incomparable with those attending schools.

Theme Twelve: Problems associated with girl-child education

The result of the interviews revealed that the problems associated with girls' education include early marriage, low family's income, distance of school from home, and poor school building. Teachers opined that the problem with girls education include: early marriage, low income of the family, nonchalant attitude of girls to education, distance to school from home, inadequate classrooms, lack of teaching materials and aid, child labour, lack of school fence. The PTA members opined that the problems of girl-child education are: poor school structures, unconducive learning environment, nonchalant attitude of parent towards girls' education, financial constraint, early marriage, and too many pupils in the class, lack of teaching materials, insufficient seating and lack of school fence. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority also expresses their view that the problems with girl-child education are: poverty, early marriage, and distance to school from home, insufficient teaching materials, insufficient seating, and parents' nonchalant attitude towards girl-child education. In some of the visited schools, it was discovered that girl-child education is faced with a number of problems, which include: family poverty, early marriage, distance to school from home, insufficient teaching aid and materials, lack of outdoor activities, insufficient toilet facilities, insufficient classrooms, poor school building, lack of school fence and unconducive learning material.

Theme Thirteen: Solution to girl-child education

The result of the interviews suggested that government need to build more school and renovate the existing ones, support families, increase their income, provision of teaching material and aid, early marriage should be stopped, employment more teachers, school feeding should continue and be improved, provision of games

facilities, provision of adequate toilet facilities. Provision of good drinking water. Teachers interviewed want government to build more schools and renovate the existing one, employ more teachers, provide teaching materials and aid, training and retraining of teachers, improve teachers' salaries and welfare, empower the parent to send their daughter to school and building of school fence. The PTA members interviewed want the government and other stakeholders to provide separate schools for girls, financial support to parents, build more schools and fix the existing one, employ more teachers and ensure their welfare, give scholarship to the best girl-child, build sufficient toilet facilities for girls, provide games facilities for girls, provide good drinking water in schools and building of school fence. Staff of Soba Local Government Education Authority want educational stakeholders to help in making the school environment conducive for girl-child education through the provision of school facilities like sufficient classrooms, toilets, games facilities, learning materials, scholarship, and teachers' welfare.

5.4 Multiple Regression Analysis

The table represents the regression result on the effect of Poverty and Cultural Practices on Girl-Child Education

Table 5.16: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.590 ^a	.348	.343	.68197	1.934

a. Predictors: (Constant), POVERTY, CULTURAL PRACTICES

b. Dependent Variable: GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The model summary above showed that the adjusted r square is 34.3% indicating that the independent variables poverty and cultural practices are able to explain up to 34.3% of the

variation in changes in girl-child education while the remaining percentage is explained by other factors not captured in the model.

Table 5.17: ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Square	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	98.126	3	32.709	70.329	.000 ^b
1 Residual	184.173	396	.465		
Total	282.300	399			

a. Dependent Variable: GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

b. Predictors: (Constant), POVERTY, CULTURAL PRACTICES

Source: Field Survey, 2019

The F- statistics chi square is 70.329 with a p-value of 0.0000 which reveals that model is fitted at 1% significant level and the independent variables poverty and cultural practices have joint effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

5.5 Hypotheses Testing

Table 5.18: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.	Collinearity	
	Coefficients		Coefficients			Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3.681	.237		15.521	.000		
POVERTY	-.358	.060	-.273	-6.008	.000	.800	1.250
CULTURALPRACTICES	-.230	.064	-.185	-3.582	.000	.621	1.611

a. Dependent Variable: GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

5.5.1: Hypothesis One

H0¹: There is no significant effect of poverty on girl-child education

In the regression result presented in Table 5.19 the coefficient value for poverty was found to be -.358 with a related Probability Value of 0.000. The Probability Value of 0.000 which is less than alpha value of 0.05 (under 5% confidence levels); thus, the study reject the first null hypothesis that there is no significant effect of poverty on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

5.5.2 Hypothesis Two

H0²: There is no significant effect of cultural practices on girl-child education

Also, tables 5.19 above shows a coefficient value of -.230 with associated probability value of 0.000. The Probability Value of 0.000 which is less than alpha value of 0.05 (under 5% confidence level); thus, the study reject the third null hypothesis that there is no significant effect of cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

5.6 Discussion of Findings

The findings in relations to the three hypothesis tested are discussed below.

5.6.1 Poverty and Girl child education

The result from the table 5.19 reveals a negative coefficient value of -.358 o and associated p-value of 0.0000 indicating that poverty has a negative and significant effect on girl child education in Soba local government area in Kaduna state. This further suggests that poverty influence girl-child education. As poverty is increasing in Soba local government area, the girl-child enrollment, retention and completion of education is also decreasing. The parents' level of income in the local government affect the level of girl-child education. Parents

ability to pay school levies as at when due have a role to play in the girl child enrolment, retention and completion of education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. This findings correlates with the result of the interview conducted in the local government in relation to the subject matter as financial constraints was pointed out as one factor that affect the rate of girl child education in Soba local government area in Kaduna state. Parents who can afford to send the girl-child to school would not certainly hold back girls from going to school. Most girls are interested in going to school but the required mechanisms to encourage and support them are not available. This finding further corroborates the findings of prior research such as the study of Kasomo (2009) who also found that lack of school fees affect the girl child education.

5.6.2 Cultural Practice and Girl Child Education

With regard to cultural practice and girl-child education, table 5.19 shows a coefficient of -.230 and a p-value of 0.000 which is less than 5% level of significance suggesting that the girl-child education is positively related to cultural practices of the people. The community cultural norms influence their attitude to girl-child education. The cultural practice of early girl-child education influences their decision on girl-child education. Some parents' nonchalant attitude towards girls' education do not help matters which has continued to hinder girl-child education. The findings commensurate with the interview that reveals most parents viewed the education of the boy child is more important than that of the girl-child due to cultural belief based on male dominance and their roles in the society. A key obstacle to girls participating in school life is early marriage. This findings also corroborate with the prior studies by Igbolo and Ejue (2016), Mohamed, Mberia and Muturi (2017) and Mollel and

Chong (2017) etc that found out that socio cultural practice and norms of the communities could influence girl-child education.

5.6.3 School Infrastructure and Girl child education

With respect to the school infrastructure and girl child education, it signifies that provisions and improvement of school infrastructure by the government goes a long way in increasing the rate of girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area in Kaduna state. It further suggests that availability of school in remote areas, education material, and conducive classrooms is encouraging girl-child enrolment, retention and completion rate in school in this study area. Also availability of good water, sanitation, separate toilet for the girl child and conducive learning and safe environment will improve girl-child education in Soba local government area of Kaduna State. Lack of access to good sanitary products, classroom can disrupt a girl's ability to participate in school. This finding is corroborates with the studies of Dechiara & Crosbie, 2001; De Jong, 2001; Feliz, 2004; Tanner, 2006; Gometi, 2010; Usen, 2016, which found out that effective learning is enhanced by the provision of adequate educational facilities and school buildings in quantity and quality. Also, this findings is supported by the interview carried out in those communities as its revealed that distance of school and inadequacy of classrooms in primary schoolis an issue of concern. Most schools have poor sanitation where there is stagnant water within the schools' environment. In fact, in some schools teachers and students share the same toilet and some cases with the community members, while other schools have poor or non-functional toilet facilities.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of the findings of the research based on data presented and analyzed in chapter five, the conclusion drawn from the study, recommendations made to address the issues raised, researcher recommends some directions of future research based on the research limitations. Finally, the researcher concludes the research based on such research findings.

6.2 Summary of Findings

This study sought to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Based on the data collected, presented and analysed, this study established the following findings:

1. The study found that poverty has significant negative effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Poverty compels many parents to marry off their daughters to wealthy men instead of sending them to school. And also the input of the girl-child into the family income is so high that it becomes economically unwise to allow such a child to go to school. Therefore, this reduces the financial burden on the family (Ballara, 2002).
2. The study also found that cultural practices have significant negative effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. The major deterrent to girl-child take up and follow through of educational opportunities is a cultural bias in favour of boys. The practice of patriarchal systems of social organization, early marriage, incidence of early pregnancy, heavier domestic and

subsistence duties of girls adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education.

3. Of worthy to note, the study also revealed that School infrastructures have significant positive effect on both boys and girls education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. The proximity of public primary school to household seems to be a strong pointer for parental willingness to allow their children to complete primary education.
4. Lastly the study concludes that, poverty is the major impediment with the most significant negative effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area. Children from a poorer household generally receive less education while some may never go to school.

6.3 Summary of the Study

The major objective of this study is to examine the effect of poverty and cultural practices on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State in order to achieve this goal, three specific objectives were set which are: to examine the effect of poverty on girl-child education and to examine the effect cultural practices on girl-child education. Conceptual definition of the proxies for the variables, review of related empirical studies and theoretical underpinning the studies were taken into consideration. Survey instrument was adapted and self-administered to 410 pupils, teachers, management staff, and PTA members in Soba Local Government Area. Through the use of the survey instruments adapted for this study, data were collected which addressed the research problem posed in the first chapter of this dissertation. The hypotheses of the study were tested using a multiple regression technique with the aid of SPSS Version 20. The study found that poverty has a

negative effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State; that cultural practice has a negative and significant effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State; and that school infrastructure has positive and significant effect on girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

6.4 Conclusions

Education plays the most important role in the social, economic and political parts of human development. It is also through the use of education that the environment has been transformed into a better place to live. Girl-child education continues to be proper instrument in nation building thus development of any society would grossly be skewed if the girl-child is not given quality education. Based on the findings, the study concludes as follows:

The study concludes that poverty (financial constraints) has cause hindrance to girl-child enrollment, retention and completion of education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Also cultural practice of the people such as early marriage, hawking and house chores have negative effect on girl-child education especially in the area of retention and completion of education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State. Furthermore, provision of good school infrastructural facilities like water and sanitation, separate toilet facilities for girls will influence girl-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.

6.5 Recommendation

In line with the findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Government should empower community members through skill acquisition programmes as well as organize them into cooperative where they can access soft loan necessary to boost their livelihood and business to be financially capable to support girl-child education.

2. Soba communities should change their value system on girl-child education and embrace the fact that educating their girl-child may help eradicate poverty in the society. The message of girl-child education should be preach using traditional and religious leaders like it was done to spread the importance of immunization against polio disease and other child killer diseases in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.
3. Governments, donor agencies, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders should strengthen their cooperation and collaboration to build new schools and toilet facilities, renovate existing ones, provision of adequate water source and sufficient learning materials and aid to ensure that schools are well-furnished and conducive to encourage and increase enrolment, retention and completion of girls-child education in Soba Local Government Area of Kaduna State.
4. Poverty being the major impediment to girl-child education should first and foremost be addressed at household and community levels in order to free the girl-child from its attendant negative effect and help her acquire primary education to become useful to herself and the society in general.

6.6 Recommendation for further studies

In line with the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made for further research:

1. The present study covers only Soba local government area. Therefore, further studies could be conducted to cover more local government within the state.
2. Study on the role of religion on girl-child education

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Appendix I - Questionnaire

**Department of Local Government
and Development Studies,
Faculty of Administration,
Ahmadu Bello University,
Zaria.**

Dear Respondent,

QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

I am a Postgraduate student of the above named address carrying out a research in your Local Government. The Questionnaire seeks to solicit information from you for purely academic purpose relating to the effect of poverty, school infrastructures and cultural practices on girl-child education. I assure you that the information you will provide in this Questionnaire will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,
Dauda Ayuba

Section A - Personal Data of Respondent

Please tick appropriately

- (1) Sex
(a) Male () (b) Female ()
- (2) Age
(a) 15 – 24 years () (b) 25 – 40 years () (c) 41 – 55 years ()
(d) 56 and above ()
- (3) Marital status
(a) Single () (b) Married ()
- (4) Educational Qualification
(a) Primary School Certificate () (b) SSCE/GCE ()
(c) NCE/OND/ () (d) HND/First Degree ()
(e) Post Graduate ()
- (5) Occupation
(a) Teacher () (b) Civil Servant () (c) Student

(b) Farmer () (e) Others _____

SECTION B

Please tick and also answer the questions appropriately

Questions Related to Poverty

S/NO	Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Parent pay for their children school uniform					
2	Pupil without proper school uniform were sent form					
3	Parent were made to pay other school levies such as PTA, development levy etc					
4	Pupils who cannot afford to pay school levies were sent home					
5	Parent were expected to buy books and other materials for their children					
6	Parent who are poor prefer to pay for the boy rather than the girl-child					
7	Parents' low income hinder girl-child education					

Questions Related to Cultural Practices

S/NO	Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Parents in the community preferred the boy as against the girl-child					
2	Girls are married early in this community					
3	Parent send their girl-child hawking than going to school					
4	Parents send their girl-child for nanny than sending them to school					
5	Parents engaged their girls to do house chores than sending them to school					
6	The community preference on girl-child education is low					

Questions Related to Girl-Child Education

S/NO	Question	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	There are more boys in school than girls					
2	The rate of girl retention in school is low					
3	More girls drop out of school than boys					
4	The completion rate of boys is more than that of girls					
5	The girl-child has the highest number of out of school population					

Appendix II - Checklist of Interviews

1. Parents' ability to send their girls to school
2. Distance to school for boy and girl-child
3. The adequacy of classrooms for girls' education
4. Availability of separate toilet facilities for girl-child
5. Work that prevent girl-child from going to school
6. Girls' attitude towards girl-child education
7. Parents' attitude towards girl-child education
8. Number of girls in school viz a viz boys
9. Number of girls drop out in school viz a viz boys
10. The completion rate of girls viz a viz boys
11. Number of out-of-school girl-child viz a viz those in schools
12. Problems associated with girl-child education
13. Solution to girl-child education

Appendix III - Checklist of Observations

1. The condition of the schools and classrooms
2. The numbers of girl-child in the street hawking
3. The number of girl-child in schools
4. The number and condition of school toilet for girl-child
5. The number of outdoor facilities for girl-child

Appendix IV - Output of SPSS Version 20

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Mode	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	culturalfactor, poverty1, SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable:

GIRLCHILDEDUCATION

b. All requested variables entered.

Correlations

		GIRLCHILD EDUCATION	poverty1	SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE	Culturalfactor
Pearson Correlation	GIRLCHILDEDUCATION	1.000	-.372	.456	-.466
	poverty1	-.372	1.000	-.063	.419
	SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE	.456	-.063	1.000	-.476
	Culturalfactor	-.466	.419	-.476	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	GIRLCHILDEDUCATION	.	.000	.000	.000
	poverty1	.000	.	.106	.000
	SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE	.000	.106	.	.000
	Culturalfactor	.000	.000	.000	.
N	GIRLCHILDEDUCATION	400	400	400	400
	poverty1	400	400	400	400
	SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE	400	400	400	400
	Culturalpractices	400	400	400	400

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.590 ^a	.348	.343	.68197	1.934

- a. Predictors: (Constant), culturalpractices, poverty1, SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE
b. Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	98.126	3	32.709	70.329	.000 ^b
	Residual	184.173	396	.465		
	Total	282.300	399			

- a. Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION
b. Predictors: (Constant), culturalpractices, poverty1, SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.681	.237		15.521	.000		
	poverty	-.358	.060	-.273	-6.008	.000	.800	1.250
	SCHOOLINFRASTRUCTURE	.260	.035	.351	7.494	.000	.750	1.333
	Cultural practices	-.230	.064	-.185	-3.582	.000	.621	1.611

- a. Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION

Collinearity Diagnostics^a

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition	Variance Proportions
-------	-----------	------------	-----------	----------------------

	e	Index	(Constant)	Poverty	SCHOOLIN FRASTRUC TURE	Culturalprac tices
1	3.814	1.000	.00	.00	.01	.00
2	.136	5.288	.00	.03	.41	.07
3	.036	10.344	.07	.97	.00	.21
4	.014	16.578	.93	.00	.58	.72

a. Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION

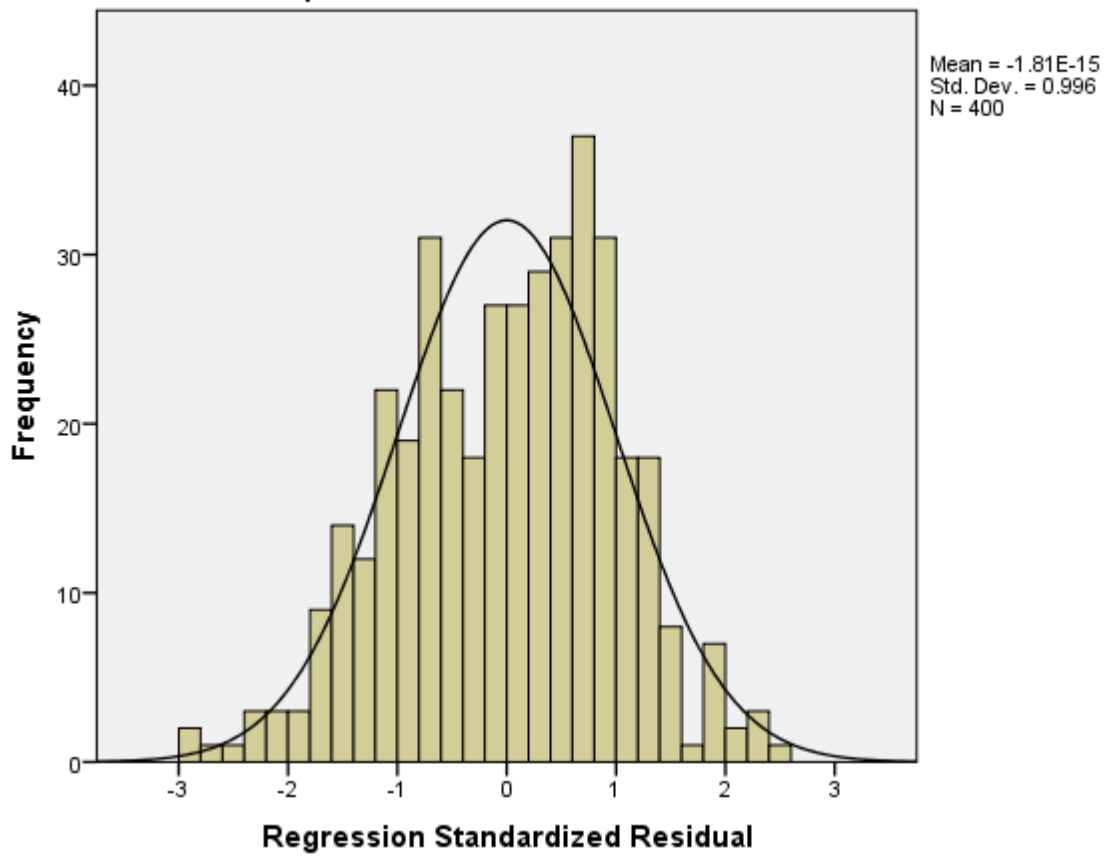
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimu m	Maximu m	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.5895	4.0940	3.0038	.49591	400
Residual	-2.00410	1.67700	.00000	.67940	400
Std. Predicted Value	-2.852	2.199	.000	1.000	400
Std. Residual	-2.939	2.459	.000	.996	400

a. Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION

Histogram

Dependent Variable: GIRLCHILDEDUCATION



Appendix V - Pictures



The above picture shows toilet facility for boys on the right hand side and for girls on the left hand side. The toilet surrounding looks untidy and the structure need renovation.



The above picture shows the only toilet facility available in the school for all the pupils including teachers. The toilet structures is uncompleted and not hygienic for pupils especially the girl-child.