PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTS REGARDING GIRLS' EDUCATION-SİVAS CASE

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Approval of the Graduate School of Sciences

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ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF PARENTS REGARDING
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The purpose of the present study was to identify the perception of the parents regarding girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions show significant differences with respect to certain background variables. More specifically, parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education were examined.

The sample consisted of 241 parents whose daughters attended the public primary schools in Sivas. Data were gathered from the participants via Girls' Education Questionnaire (GEQ) developed by the Researcher and subjected to factor and reliability analysis. Statistical program, SPSS, was utilized to carry out the statistical analyses. Responses to open-ended question were qualitatively analyzed. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to analyze the data. Descriptive Statistics were used to analyze the background information of the participants. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was employed to explore whether there were significant differences between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to certain background variables.

The results indicated that parents had positive thoughts and beliefs concerning girls' education. Their ideas regarding benefits of girls' education were positive regardless

of their social and educational background. As for the barriers to girls' education, the findings pointed out that parents' were mostly concerned about financial difficulties and securtiy affairs.

In conclusion, the results of this study can contribute to girls' education by displaying current status of girls education in a relatively small province in Turkey and develop strategies to better the position of girls in education system.

Key Words: girls' education, barriers to girls' education, benefits of girls' education

ÖZ

VELİLERİN KIZ ÇOCUKLARININ EĞİTİMİNE İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLERİ-
SİVAS İLİ ÖRNEĞİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı Sivas ilinde kızları ilköğretim okullarında okuyan velilerin kız çocuklarının eğitimine yönelik görüşlerini belirlemek ve velilerin demografik özellikleri açısından kız çocuklarının eğitime dair görüşlerinde bir farklılık olup olmadığı incelemektir.Çalışmanın örneklemini Sivas il merkezinde kızları ilköğretim okullarına devam eden 241 veli oluşturmaktadır. Veriler araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiş ve faktör ve güvenilirlik analizlerine tabi tutulmuş olan Kızların Eğitimi Görüşler Anketi kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Elde edilen veriler betimsel ve çıkarımsal istatistik yöntemleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. İstatistik analizleri, SPSS Paket Programı kullanılarak uygulanmıstır. Açık-uçlu bölümlere verilen cevaplar nitel çözümleme yöntemiyle analiz edilmistir Betimsel istatistik yöntem kullanılarak katılımcıların özellikleri çözümlenmiştir. Daha sonra cinsiyet, gelir düzeyi, annenin eğitim seviyesi ve babanın eğitim seviyesi gibi bağımsız değişkenlere göre velilerin "kızların eğitiminin yararları" ve "kızların eğitimi önündeki engeller" boyutlarında görüşlerini belirlemek için çoklu varyans analizi yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın bulgularına göre, velilerin kızların eğitimine ilişkin görüşleri olumludur. Veliler çoğunlukla ekonomik güçlükleri ve güvenlik sorunlarını kızların eğitimi önünde engel olarak görmektedir.

Sonuç olarak, bu çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular kız çocuklarının eğitiminin mevcut durumunu ortaya koyarak kızların eğitim sistemindeki durumununun iyileştirilmesi için stratejiler geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kızların eğitimi, kızların eğitimi önündeki engeller, kızların eğitiminin yararları

To My Beloved Family

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEDAW : Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women

DFID : Department for International Development

EFA : Education for All

ERI : Education Reform Initiative

EU : European Union

FTI : Education for All Fast Track Initiative

GEM : Gender Empowerment Measure

GEQ : Girls' Education Questionnaire

HDR : Human Development Report

Ka-Der : Kadın Adayları Destekleme ve Eğitme Derneği (Association for Supporting Women Candidates)

KSGM : T.C. Başbakanlık Kadının Statüsü Genel Müdürlüğü

MDG : Millennium Development Goal

MONE : Ministry of National Education

NER : Net Enrollment Ratio

NGO : Nongovernmental Organization

OECD : Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

UN : United Nations

UNESCO : United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

UNICEF : United Nations Children's Fund

UNGEI : The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

It is a well known fact that schooling the girls has crucial value for both girls' and the nation's development. The rate of girls' participation in formal schooling is one of the indicators of the nation's development level. Independent of the quality and content of academic programs, the benefits of girls' education increase with each level of education (Rugh, 2000). Education enables girls to participate in development of the community and the household because educated women exercise their personal rights to take part in political and economic decision-making both in the community and in the household (UNESCO, 2000). The educational participation of girls improves the main national development indicators such as lowered infant and maternal mortality, longer life expectancy, lower fertility rates and improvements in health, nutrition, literacy and economic growth (Rugh, 2000). Educated women contribute more directly to a nation's economic productivity as they are more likely to enter the formal labour market, earn higher wages (UNESCO, 2000). Returns of the girls' education are listed in UNICEF Turkey Report (2005) as the following: "

- Educated women and girls have better opportunities and life choices;
- Educated women and girls have a greater voice in family and community affairs and more likely to participate decision making;
- Educated girls are more likely to marry and have children at a later age- by choice;
- Educated girls have better job opportunities and are more able to contribute to the family income;
- Educated mothers are more likely to send all their children to school;

- Educated girls have fewer and healthier children-child mortality rates drop with higher levels of female education;
- Educated girls are more aware of health issues- rates of HIV/AIDS infection are significantly reduced by higher levels of female education;
- Educated girls have healthier pregnancies, resulting in lower maternal mortality rates;
- Attention to girls also benefits boys-programs focusing on girls have proven to be equally beneficial to boys." (p. 12)

Even if it is obvious that society will lose the economic and social benefits resulting from female schooling, being female is negatively associated with the enrolment, attainment and performance in the educational system. Throughout the developing world girls' educational participation is not at the same level with boys (Tietjen, 1991). As a result of their lower education level and fewer opportunities for female participation in social life, women face inequalities and difficulties in every phase of their life. In no society in the world, women utilize the same opportunities as men. Women work longer hours with less payment and they have more restricted life chances and choices than men. Those disparities are both the cause and the result of girls' unequal access to, and performance in education (UNESCO, 2003).

Both the Dakar "Education for All" goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) emphasis the attainment of ensuring gender parity and gender equality in education (Subrahmanian, 2005). It was agreed at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000 that all countries would eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. In 2000, when World Education Forum was held, a significant majority of the 104 million children not in primary school were girls and women comprised almost two-thirds of the 860 million non-literate people (UNESCO, 2003). MDG specify the year 2005 is an important milestone, targeting gender parity in primary and secondary education and 2015 is marked for achieving gender equality (UNESCO, 2003). In 2006, only 59 of 176 countries accomplished gender parity in both primary and secondary education. When compared with data in 1999, it is seen that just twenty more countries have achieved parity than those of 1999 and over half the countries could not do so. Even if the world goes on

progressing towards gender parity, many countries have a long way to travel (UNESCO, 2009).

Today, there are 41 million more children enrolled in primary school worldwide than there were in 2000. Moreover, in 118 countries there are equal number of boys and girls in primary education. Nevertheless, 75 million primary aged children remain not enrolled in school and 41 million of them are girls- that's 55%. For that reason, it is clear that there are still many things to do in order to reach the target of gender equality in education, namely fair treatment of all girls and boys in the education system (DFID, 2009).

Regarding the Millennium Development Goals, much progress has been made in Turkey. The gender gap in primary education is closing. According to the results of "*Let's Go to School, Girls"*—the girls' education campaign supported by UNICEF and Ministry of National Education, 222.800 girls have been enabled to start the primary school since 2003. The campaign has been executed in 53 provinces with low ratio of girls' schooling in primary education (Çameli, 2007). The statistics illustrate that this campaign has positive impact on eliminating gender parity in primary education. However, much more remains to be done to better achieve MDG and to reach the gender parity and equality in education (UNICEF, 2005). Turkey is ranked 76th out of 140 countries in relation to the gender empowerment measure (GEM) in the Human Development Report (HDR) for 2005. GEM evaluates factors related to economic and political participation, decision-making and power over economic resources as the indicators of gender equality for any modern society (UNICEF, 2005). This result shows that Turkey has a long way to go to ensure gender equality in education.

According to UNICEF Turkey report (2005), ratio of girls to boys in primary education was 95.1%, 74.4% in secondary education and 74.5 % in tertiary education in the year 2004. In 2006, 0.7 million children were out of school in Turkey (UNESCO, 2009). "Turkey's countrywide NER (Net enrolment ratios) is 87.5 per cent in total, but the rate for girls lags behind boys by 10.3 percentage points" (UNESCO, 2000).

Girls' schooling ratio has been increasing by year especially in primary education. However, female schooling ratio is lower than the total and male schooling ratio at every level of education (MONE, 2009). Moreover, at all levels of education enrolment rates of girls continue to be considerably lower than those of boys with high regional disparity in eastern Anatolia (91% of boys and 69% of girls are enrolled in basic education). There is a low participation rate for girls in secondary education as well as non-attendance or non-enrolment in compulsory education in the south east of the country in particular (ETF, 2006). For this reason, it is obvious that female education should be given priority in Turkey in order to reach gender parity and equality in education.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to identify the perception of the parents regarding girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions show significant differences with respect to certain background variables. As the support of the family has a significant effect on the quality of girls' education, it is important to have a deeper insight of perception of parents concerning girls' education. More specifically, parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education were examined.

1.3 Problem Statement

The research questions of the present study are as following:

1. What are the perceptions of parents regarding the benefits of girls' education?
2. What are the perceptions of parents regarding the barriers to girls' education?
3. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education?
4. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to certain background variables?
   4.1. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to being mother or father?

4.2. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to father and mother education level?

4.3. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to number of the children they have?

4.4. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to the place of residence?

4.5. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to average income?

4.6. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to father and mother job?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Education, which is one of the most important social institutions in modern societies, has various benefits at personal, communal and social level. It provides training and skilled labor on the one hand, and reproduces existing cultural norms and values on the other. More specifically, including all the members of the society in the process of education will contribute to the social productivity (Tanman, 2008; Toktas and Cindoglu, 2006). The children without access to education will be deprived of their human rights and be prevented from improving their talents and interests in the most basic ways (UNESCO, 2003). Taking the proper advantage of education will save the children from poverty and the dangers of phenomenon like industrial, agricultural and domestic child labour, child exploitation for commercial reasons and the clash of arms (Ka-Der, 2003). Hence, education is a torch which directs and enlightens lives of children. As a fundamental human right, education should be accessible to all members of the society on equal terms. The girls still constitute almost two thirds of the children excluded from basic education rights, so girls' education stands to be a top priority from a human rights perspective (UNESCO, 2000). In spite of all the benefits of educating the girls, girls' education is not given the required importance

because of traditional beliefs and attitudes towards girls' education. Especially in rural areas, the value system and the practices of the society hinder or limit the education of girls. According to the point of view stemming from gender discrimination and traditional division of labour, girls are expected to get married and have children to perform their most important roles assigned by the society. They are expected to dedicate their time for motherhood, family care and domestic affairs. Thus, educating the girls has no importance for the families and the time and money supplied for girls' education are considered as useless. Girls suffer greater educational disadvantage from the background characteristics such as poverty and illiteracy of the family (Rugh, 2000, Tietjen, 1991). As a result, when family's financial resources are not sufficient for school expenses, the girl's education is charged off (Ka-Der, 2003).

With the extension of the compulsory period of primary education from 5 to 8 years in 1997, Turkey marked improvement in relation to universal primary education. Even if this improvement resulted in a general increase in enrolment rates, girls' enrolment rates remained lower than those of boys. The gap is more striking in the poorer, rural Eastern and Southeastern provinces (UNICEF, 2005). In rural areas, girls work on the farm or they take care of younger siblings or they get married at early ages. Besides, the families are not motivated to send their daughters to school. Parents think that girls' education will not provide them better conditions in the future. These traditional practices and patriarchal value judgments of the society inhibit the girls' education to a great extend (Ka-der, 2003). Rugh (2000) suggests that likelihood of girls' participation in the primary education increases if the parents are positively inclined to their daughters' education. Thus, perceptions of parents regarding girls' education have a significant impact on girls' education starting from primary school. In this present study, it is aimed to identify the perceptions of the parents regarding the girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions show significant differences with respect to certain background variables. Because of its conservative social structure it is supposed that achieving gender equality in education is somehow problematic in Sivas. The statistics illustrates that Sivas has not reached the target of gender parity and equality in education yet. It was included in *Let's Go to School*, *Girls*—the girls' education campaign in 2005 but females' schooling ratio is still lower than males' at both

primary and secondary education levels in Sivas (MONE, 2008). At the beginning of the educational year 2008-2009, schooling ratio by level of education was as the following:

Table 1.1

Schooling Ratio by Level of Education in Sivas

Primary Education			Secondary Education		
Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
96.33	96.50	96.15	58.30	61.72	54.77

Source: Statistics of Ministry of National Education, 2008–2009

Moreover, Sivas is among the priority regions of second rank for national development. The progresses in education sector play a critical role in the socio economic development of this province (Doğan, 2007). As it is indicated, before female schooling increases social well- being and contributes to development of the society. Thus, girls' education is particularly an outstanding subject to study in Sivas. Consequently, by portraying the parents' thoughts and beliefs about different aspects of female education this study can help the educators to explore the underlying reasons for lower rates of female schooling. The problems the girls encounter in the education sector are reflected in low attainment and achievement levels of girls as compared to boys (UNESCO, 2000). This study can provide data about the position of girls within education system by revealing the parents' thoughts concerning benefits of female education and barriers to girls' education in Sivas. In other words, the study can illustrate different dimensions of girls' education by exploring parents' viewpoints about diverging aspects of this issue. The findings can help to better the disadvantaged position of girls in education system and to develop strategies to inform the parents about the importance and benefits of female education. "Current indicators on educational outcomes and learning achievement allow only a partial assessment of gender equality. More qualitative indicators, for example to measure perceptions and expectations regarding the treatment of girls and boys, would be required to paint a more accurate picture" (UNESC0, 2003). Therefore, investigating the factors affecting girls' education through assessing parents' views and

perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education in particular will give an insight and opportunity to progress towards gender equality in education.

1.5. Limitations

The major limitation in the present study is that it is based on self-reported data from the parents. It is assumed that parents provide their genuine thoughts and beliefs about girls' education. It would be better to support parents' self-reported data with a variety of measurement tools, such as interviewing the participants. Another limitation of the study is related to the population. Population of this study included all the parents who had daughters attending the public primary schools in 2009-2010 academic year in Sivas. Therefore, the results of the study cannot be generalized directly to all the girls and their parents in Turkey. The results reflect the general condition of that specific sample. Lastly, the questionnaires were sent to the parents to fill out at home via the classroom teachers working at the schools where their daughters were enrolled. As the questionnaires were not completed in the classroom environment, it was not possible the control the extraneous variables by the researcher.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter includes the summary of the existing research literature most relevant to the purpose of this study. First of all, the need for education in general and gender parity and equality in education are examined in line with the current state of girls' education in the world. Then, the need for girls' education in particular is discussed and international framework for gender equality in education is presented. Afterwards, barriers to girls' education are reviewed by means of relevant research studies conducted in developing countries and in Turkey. In the last section, girls' education in Turkey is discussed. Historical background of girls' education in Turkey is analyzed by examining Late Ottoman Period and Republican Period respectively. Last of all, current status of girls' education in Turkey is covered and policies and campaigns for girls' education in Turkey are presented.

2.1 The Need for Education

In today's world, education is regarded as one of the essential means for achieving long term development goals and improving both social and economic standards of living (Subrahmanian, 2007). In other words, education is a crucial and fundamental instrument directing many aspects of economic, political and social life (Mendy, 2008). It plays a vital role to eliminate social and economic injustices inherent in many communities (Ombonga, 2008). At the present day, as a result of the changes and developments in information technology and communication system education has become even more important. The welfare and happiness of a country depend on equipping the citizens with continuous and quality education. The knowledge and the skills gained through education process have accretion value for any country's development. For this reason, the education level of the society and the quality of human resources are the impulsive forces of socio-economic development. The

countries advancing their level of education will experience the positive consequences of it in various fields (KSGM, 2008a). Özkalp (1993) defines education as individuals' process of learning the values and the norms of the society they were born and live in, improving the things that they learn and transferring them to the next generations. From this perspective, the prior reason for society's need for education is the aim of keeping the current cultural values alive and transferring them to the upcoming generations. Education is also necessary for enabling the sustainable development, and for keeping social unity and the present political state of the country. Moreover, education facilitates adaptation process to keep up with the innovations for society's welfare (Dilli, 2006).

Education and schooling are fundamental and constitutional human right of any child. Among other institutions of education school has a more important role as it is the place where the children utilize the socialization process and vital life principles. They learn about life and its purpose by exploring their intuitions, feelings, thoughts and beliefs at school. (Yalın et al, 2005). The children without access to education will be deprived of their human rights and prevented from improving their talents and interests in the most basic ways (UNESCO, 2003). In order to expand children's opportunities in life, they should be encouraged to have access to, enrollment in, and completion of education. Fuke (2007) argues that education plays a vital role in building capabilities and opening opportunities for children from all backgrounds. They will have a chance to make a difference in their world by understanding the structures that shape their world through a quality education. At individual level, people can develop their current potential, discover their strengths and become productive members of society by an adequate education. Similarly, education has direct influence on improving communication abilities of individuals by helping them gain literacy, emphatic understanding and broader world perspective. By means of education people will be able to use their imagination and their reasoning for solving the problems they face. In short, education enables individuals to investigate the world that surrenders them and to reach the self-actualization level (Dilli, 2006).

2.2 Gender Parity and Gender Equality in Education

The educational and cultural position of a society can be estimated by determining to what extend education is provided to all children equally. Becoming aware of this

truth and having sensitivity about it can also be elicited through education (Yalın et al, 2005).

However, in the present world, education is portrayed by extensive gender inequalities (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). In spite of improvements and developments in the field of education, in many regions of the world female education constitutes a problem. Women do not enjoy the same education opportunities as men and gender inequalities continue in the society (KSGM, 2008). Girls' educational experience is still affected by factors related to gender, religion, economic status, age and geographical location. All these factors have an impact on girls' enrollment, retention, achievement and performance (Annin, 2009). Girls comprised two thirds of the children denied their right to education, despite of the fact that girls' education offered the greatest overall returns for economic development (Govinda, 2008) In 2006, only 59 of 176 countries accomplished equal number of girls and boys in both primary and secondary education (UNESCO, 2009). Consequently, achieving gender parity and equality in education stands to be one of the most outstanding problems in the field of education. Before analyzing the current state of girls' education and the problem of gender equality in detail, it is better clarify the differences between the terms "gender parity" and "gender equality". There should be a clear analytical and operational distinction between the concepts of gender parity and equality in order to ensure proper usage of these terms and the measurement of progress towards them (Subrahmanian, 2005).

As an indicator of gender equality, gender parity is a formal notion of equality and it is defined by access and participation in education (Subrahmanian, 2007). In other words, gender parity is a rather narrow aspiration and it is a numerical concept referring to equal proportion of boys and girls enrolled in the education system (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007; UNESCO, 2003). "It is measured by the ratio between the female and male values for any given indicator, with parity being equal to one" (UNESCO, 2003, p.5). The statistics reveal that many countries are making progress regarding gender parity, especially in primary education. Girls' enrollment rates tend to increase in many countries but gender parity indicator has some limitations. First of all, even if it is important, measuring the access to and participation in education are not signs of processes of education. Moreover, gender

parity indicators are static measures so relational perception of "gender" makes it necessary to analyze the dynamic processes shaping gender inequalities in different areas of human life (Subrahmanian, 2005).

The statistics on access and achievement illustrate only partial aspect of gender inequality. As a more complex notion gender equality comprises various aspects of education and assessment of gender equality is more difficult (Unterhalter, 2005). Equal number of boys and girls in education is a starting point for reaching gender equality as an educational goal (Subrahmanian, 2005).The limited nature of the gender parity makes it necessary to measure and discuss other dimensions of gender equality to have a broader portray of girls' education (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). Equality of outcomes regarding the length of schooling, achievement, academic qualifications, and more specifically equal job opportunities and earnings are associated with gender equality (UNESCO, 2003). In addition to all these factors other dimensions of equality should be argued. "Indicators of gender equality thus need to be extended beyond the education system to a selected range of other indicators of gender equality, as a way of alerting educators to the deep links between education and other social institutions and processes" (Subrahmanian, 2005, p. 405). The unequal power relations between women and men cause the gender inequalities in the society (Subrahmanian, 2007). The reasons and consequences of gendered forms of power, the practices endowing women and men with unequal life opportunities triggering the inequalities in other areas of social division are both the results and the causes of gender inequalities in education (Unterhalter, 2005). Gender roles assigned by the society and coupled with certain cultural practices cause different forms of inequality between males and females. The gender inequalities make women disadvantaged in terms of their access to resources, economic opportunities and participation in democratic process and other fields of social life (Annin, 2009). In order to achieve gender equality it is important to overcome the obstacles which hinder equal opportunities for both sexes-such as discriminatory laws, customs, practices and institutional processes (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). The progress towards equality involves changes in formal laws and institutional practices, values of the society and opportunities offered to men and women in different areas of social life (Subrahmanian, 2005). Consequently, reaching the gender equality in education necessitates that fundamental freedoms and

choices be enjoyed by women and men on equal terms. Full gender equality entails offering girls and boys the same chances to go to school. Moreover, it should be assured that they enjoy teaching methods and curricula free of stereotypes and academic orientation and counseling unaffected by gender bias (UNESCO, 2003).

2.3 The Need for Girls' Education

"Educate a woman, educate a nation" is a commonly used expression in Africa reflecting the need for girls' education. The word "family" is sometimes used instead of "nation". In either version, the value of educating a girl for her family's health, economic status, and access to education is emphasized (Rihani, 2006). The returns of girls' education can be observed in diverse settings. As revealed by the research studies, uneducated women are more likely to suffer from poverty, illness, and malnutrition (Scully, 2006). Moreover, female education increases women's labor force participation rates and earnings, and contributes to the household and national income (Roudi-Fahimi and Moghadam, 2003; World Bank, 2009a). Thus, the communities with low level of educated women population have lower productivity. Besides helping generate additional income and breaking the vicious cycle of poverty, investments in female education results in other economic and social benefits (Tembon and Fort, 2008). In other words, more education for girls yields benefits for the society and the community by lessening poverty and reinforcing economic growth. The economic prospects for girls in developing countries can be made better by the help of access to education (Wagner, 2008). Results of a 100-country study by the World Bank indicate that the annual per capita income growth is increased by 0.3 percent on average when the participation of girls' secondary education is increased by 1 percentage point (Dollar and Gatti 1999). Apart from economic returns, girls' education adds other social benefits to the women's lives and to the whole society. There is a direct relationship between literacy, power and empowerment (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). By increasing their political and democratic participation and reducing domestic violence education offers greater empowerment for women (Subrahmanian, 2007). Through more schooling especially secondary education and beyond, a young woman gets a new sense of responsibility for herself and empowerment to shape her own future rather than having her future shaped first by her father and then by her husband (Murphy and Carr, 2007). Roudi-

Fahimi and Moghadam (2003) assert that educated women become more aware of legal rights and they are politically more active. Likewise, while discussing the benefits of girls' secondary education, Rihani (2006) points out that secondary education contributes to the civic participation and democratic change by equipping students with critical thinking. Thus, it can be argued that the adjustments and enhancements in women's economic, social, cultural and political status will be achieved if it is ensured that they enjoy equal rights, opportunities as men (KSGM, 2008).

Apart from being an agent of women's empowerment female education contributes to the development of the upcoming generations. Dilli (2006) points out that mothers' education level is an important determiner of children's educational attainment and opportunities. When mothers are educated children, especially girls, have higher level of educational enrolment and attainment (Roudi-Fahimi and Moghadam, 2003). In many countries, every additional year of formal education completed by a mother results in her children remaining in school for an additional one-third to one-half year (World Bank, 2009a).

Another benefit of female education is related to the reduction in women's fertility rates. Murphy and Carr (2007) assert that reproductive health risks of adolescent girls including early and unwanted fertility declines with their educational attainment. The results of the econometric studies within individual countries indicated that one extra year of female schooling reduces fertility by approximately 5 to 10 percent (Summers, 1994). Fuke (2007) noted that the number of live births, lower infant and maternal mortality rates and increased likelihood of a mother's health care for her children are health outcomes associated with girls' education. Educated women have fewer and healthier children than women with no formal education as they have greater awareness of contraceptives use and family planning methods and delayed age of marriage and childbearing (Sabrahmanian, 2007; World Bank, 2009a).

In the same way, women's educational attainment is associated with healthier families. Women's education contributes to health at family level by increasing access to and use of information, improving use of health service and by increasing the proportion of family income earned by and allocated by women (The Population Council, 2010). More specifically, continued schooling has important consequences

for maternal health and mortality, as well as child mortality and survival by delaying the marital and first pregnancy age (Subrahmainian, 2007). “As education expands women’s horizons, opens up better earning opportunities and improves women’s position in the family and society, couples tend to have fewer children and to invest more in the health and education of each child” (Herz and Sperling, 2004, p.4). Women's increased earning capacity resulting from higher level of education has a positive effect on child nutrition as well (Roudi-Fahimi and Moghadam, 2003). Therefore, the children of educated women have higher survival rates and they tend to be better nourished and healthier as women with some formal education are more conscious of child immunization, nourishment and hygiene (World Bank, 2009a).

Likewise, education reduces maternal mortality as educated women more likely to have better knowledge about health care practices and they tend to have fewer and better-spaced pregnancies and seek pre-and post-natal care (World Bank, 2009a). Thus, an additional year of schooling for 1,000 women is estimated to prevent two maternal deaths (Summers, 1994).

The following diagram illustrates how girls’ education can impact the health of children, families and society as a whole.

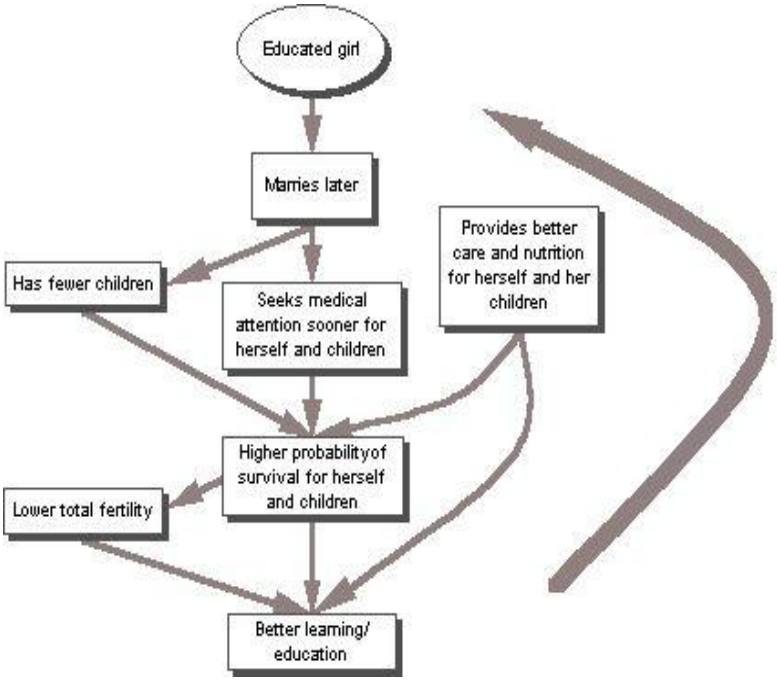

Figure 2.1 Generational Impact of Educating Girls (Source: Mehrotra and Jolly, 1997 cited in UNICEF 1999, p. 57)

Lastly, education helps slow down the spread of HIV/AIDS by contributing to female economic independence, delayed marriage, family planning, and work outside the home, as well as by conveying greater information about the disease and ways to prevent it (World Bank, 2009a). In the 1980s, in the early stages of AIDS pandemic, HIV infection rates tended to be higher among more educated people. Researchers attribute this to the timing of the epidemic and the increased mobility of better-educated people. In the 1990s, however, things changed. Now an increasing body of research shows that more-educated people, especially the youth are less likely to engage in risky behavior and contact HIV (Herz and Sperling, 2004). 40 million people have HIV/AIDS and half of them are women and girls. For instance, in Zambia AIDS spreads twice as fast among uneducated girls (Rihani, 2006).

In short, there are many compelling gains in relation to girls' education such as the reduction of child and maternal mortality, improvement of child nutrition and health, lower fertility rates, enhancement of women's domestic role and their political participation, improvement of economic productivity and growth, and protection of girls from HIV/AIDS, abuse and exploitation. Therefore, it can be concluded that at individual, familial and social level, girls' education results in highest returns of all development investments (World Bank, 2009a).

2.4 International Framework for Gender Equality in Education

Among the few global goals that have been consistently and deeply supported is the notion that every child in every country should have the chance to complete at least a primary education. 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand set this goal to be achieved by 2000. The World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000 reaffirmed and extended the Jomtien commitment, bringing an emphasis on schooling quality while underlining that universal primary completion had not yet been reached. Universal primary completion and gender equity in primary and secondary education were affirmed again in that same year as Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Bruns, Mingat, and Rakotomalala, 2003). Achieving gender equality in education is emphasized at different internationally accepted goals and meetings. Education for All (EFA) is an international commitment to offer the opportunities of education to "every citizen in every society". By focusing on the different levels of education specifically, the EFA goals target to meet the needs of

all children, youth and adults by 2015 (Gardner, 2008). EFA goals to be achieved by 2015 are as the following:

- Expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
- Ensure that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to a complete, free, and compulsory primary education of good quality.
- Achieve a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.
- Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
- Improve all aspects of the quality education and ensure excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (World Bank, 2009b).

The representatives from 155 countries and over 150 organizations participated at the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtein, Thailand in 1990. The conference was sponsored by development agencies such as UNICEF, UNESCO, UNDP, and the World Bank (Fuke, 2007).At the World Education Forum in Dakar, in 200, United Nations Girls Education Initiative was launched. UNICEF is the lead agency for the UNGEI, which works for eliminating gender discrimination and disparity in education by the help of actions at global, national, district and community level (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). Dakar framework emphasized that "the heart of EFA lies at country level". The participants of World Education Forum had the responsibility of attaining the goals and targets of EFA and required the governments to achieve and maintain the goals as well. UNESCO provided guidelines to assist countries to attain girls' education-related goals and increase their efforts. Two significant documents are the Guidelines for Preparing Gender Responsive EFA Plans and the Preparation of National Plans of Action Country Guidelines (Dilli, 2006; Fuke, 2007). Universal primary completion cannot be achieved without a significant acceleration of current progress. In addition to

financing gaps, faster progress necessitates combining substantial policy, capacity and data gaps in many developing countries (Bruns, Mingat, and Rakotomalala, 2003).

In 2000, the United Nations Millennium Declaration put forward The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aiming to reduce poverty, hunger, disease, discrimination, lack of access to resources and to promote gender equality, education, health and sustainable development by 2015 (Moletsane, 2005). The MDGs are novel in the sense that that they involve concrete, time-bound, quantitative targets for action. In fact, they intensify some of the 12 critical areas recognized by the Bejing Platform for Action which was approved by all 189 United Nations member countries at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995. Likewise, they are parallel to other international conventions and treaties that guarantee the rights of women and girls (The World Bank Gender and Development Group, 2003). Two of the MDGs address education specifically. MDG 2 focuses on universal primary education with the target of ensuring that "by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary education". MDG 3 entails promoting gender equality and empowering women with specific target to 'eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education by 2015' (UN, 2009)

In 2002, a global partnership named Education for All Fast Track Initiative (FTI) was founded by the World Bank and other development partners (World Bank, 2009c). UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank, the regional development banks and all major bilateral donors for education support the new initiative. FTI aims at accelerating the MDG process and assist low in-come countries to meet the education Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the EFA goal that all children complete a full cycle of primary education by 2015. Within the framework of FTI compact, the developing countries design and implement education plans and donor partners align and provide complementary support concerning these plans (Bruns, Mingat, and Rakotomalala, 2003; and World Bank, 2009c).

Even if the international policy context (EFA, the BPFA, and the MDGs) regards education as an effective instrument for ensuring gender equity in education and in society in general, poverty, gender-based violence and HIV/AIDS stand to be

significant threats to the achievement of set goals and targets (Moletsane, 2005). Gender inequality may prevent the attainment of other Millennium Development Goals, particularly the ones relating to child mortality, maternal mortality, poverty, and universal primary education. Thus, progress in important development goals largely depends on ensuring gender equality in education (Ghaida and Klasen, 2004). Briefly, as a tool of sustainable development educating girls and women stands to be an outstanding issue as it is emphasized by the goal of gender equality in international framework. Table 2.1 summarizes the global education for all goals.

Table 2.1

Global "Education for All" Goals

DAKAR WORLD EDUCATION FORUM GOALS	**MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS**
Expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.	
Ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.
Ensure that the learning needs of young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs.	
Achieve a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.	
Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.

achievement in basic education of good quality.	
Improve all aspects of the quality of education and ensure excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills.	

Source: (Bruns, Mingat, and Rakotomalala, 2003).

2.5 Barriers to Girls' Education

Despite the known benefits of female education and the international studies carried out to increase girls' enrollment, there still remain factors affecting girls' education negatively. Especially in developing countries, socio-cultural factors and patriarchal norms impact girls' education. Studies carried out to assess the gender equity in education in Africa noted poverty, cultural practices, poor school infrastructure, low quality, natural disaster, and conflict as barriers to girls' education (Herz and Sperling, 2004; Hyde, 1993). In their study Brock and Cammish (1997) examined seven developing countries and came up with a number of factors influencing female participation in education. Their study revealed that several interrelated social, economic and religious factors affected girls' education in particular. Geographical location of the school, socio-cultural factors such as male dominated practices, early marriages, girls' heavier domestic and subsistence workload, education factors like lack of resources, gender bias in teaching materials, low teacher quality and morale, lack of female primary teachers were cited among the outstanding factors influencing female participation in education. In the same way, in order to find out the causes of gender inequality in primary education, Colclough et al, (2000) conducted case studies in Ethiopia and Guinea. The results of their study revealed that poverty and a wide variety of cultural practices had a negative impact on girls' education compared to boys. Moreover, it was found out that household work, cultural practices of early marriage of girls, as well as gendered division of labor limit girls' available time for school.

Materu (2007) asserts that girls' education is affected by financial needs, traditional and cultural practices, poor quality of environment and learning process, inadequate healthcare, insecurity, civil unrest, un-enforced laws and policies protecting girls and women. In his study Mendy (2007) investigated the political, social, economic, and structural factors that limit girls' education in Sub-Saharan Africa. The results of the interview with the parents indicated that many parents believed investment in girls' education is not acquiescent as the investment in girls education is a waste of time and resources. They are concerned about the sexual safety and security of their daughters, from classmates, teachers and random individuals. Moreover, poverty is revealed as the biggest factor preventing girls' education in sub-Saharan Africa. The following diagram demonstrates how poverty affects girls' education:

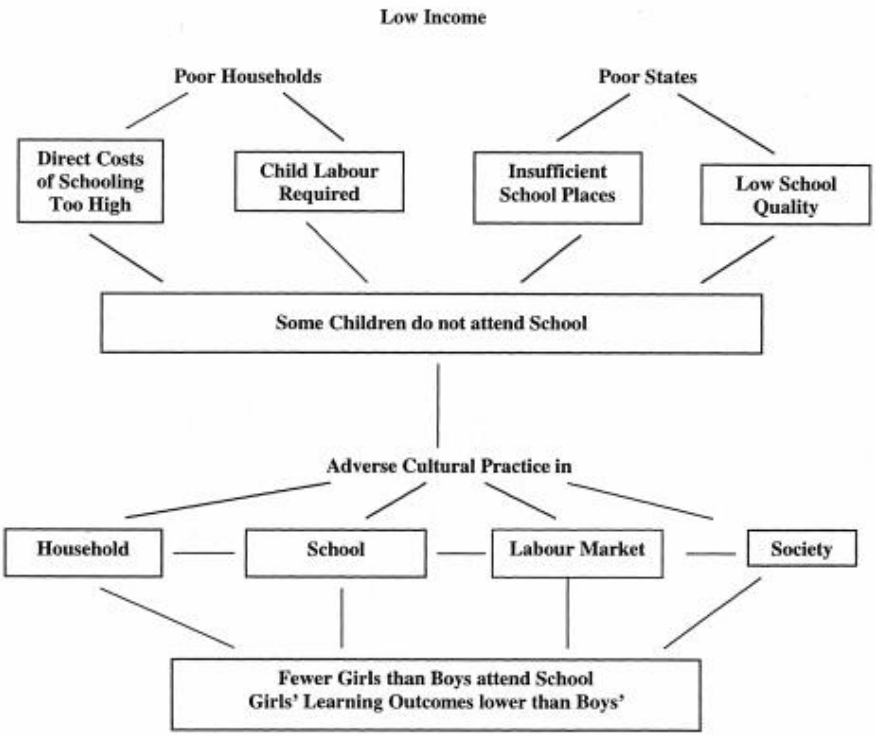

Figure 2.2 The Poverty and Gendered Outcomes of Schooling (Source: Colclough et al.,2000)

MacNeil (2008) conducted a research study in a rural sub-district of southern India to figure out the school-going behaviors of children from families that have one or more school-aged girl children who do not attend school. The constraints that hinder the ability of these largely impoverished families to educate their children, particularly

girl children were investigated. The decision making process of families regarding school investment is associated with the opportunity cost of sending a child to school. The poorer families are less likely and less able to consider their children's earnings and tend to child labor. While judging the schooling versus work decision for their children, parents compare the advantages of having a child in school, in paid work or in household production. Thus, 40% (80) of the boys and 37.5% (260) of the girls were reported to be out of school because of present opportunities for children to earn money (MacNeil, 2008). Costs such as books, uniforms and transportation can be prohibitively expensive for the poor families even if government schools are free (Wu et al, 2007). Annin (2009) carried out a phenomenological study and examined the educational experiences from the voices and from the perspectives of selected stakeholders, particularly girls at the Akuapim South District Ghana. Girls and other stakeholders stated the lack of financial support, workload at home, negative parental attitudes, inadequate school infrastructure, negative teachers' attitudes and low expectation of girls, sexual maturation, as well as attitudes of male students as the barrier for their education.

Several studies noted that the domestic responsibilities of girls inhibit girls' education. Especially older girls in the families are disadvantaged as they have the responsibility of taking care of younger siblings and helping with the household chores. Besides their school work girl have to accomplish several gender roles such as cooking, fetching water, working for family income and others (Hyde, 1993). Dreze and Kingdon (1999) assert that there is a negative impact on girls' education in families with members who are dependent on others for care and rearing such as elders and young children. In a parallel way, Lewis and Lockheed (2006) noted the presence and number of young siblings as a barrier for girls' education because of increased amount of excessive household labor assigned to girl children in the household. Case studies revealed that domestic responsibilities accounted for girls' absence from school and their low performance in the school assignments. Moreover, teenage girls abandon school in order to help their mothers with the domestic chores (Bendera 1999; Bellew and King, 1993; Rose and Tembon, 1999; Wynd, 1999 cited in Lincove, 2005).

At the First National Conference: Millennium Development Goals and Social Gender Equality, Marlaine Lockheed remarked similar barriers for girls' education. Lockheed asserted that 77 million children were out of education system in the world and those children belonged to low-income families and ethnic minority groups having no interest in education. By giving examples from different countries it was indicated that girls were more affected from negative conditions in all disadvantaged groups. Furthermore, the barriers to girls' education were categorized under three groups. In the first category, factors such as compulsory education, giving priority to boys' education, language barriers were listed. Psychical inadequacies of school and the quality of education were handled under the second category. The third category included the factors determining parental demand for education, parents' low level of education, believing that education has no returns, the security concerns (First National Conference Report, 2005).

In Turkey studies conducted to investigate the barriers behind girls' education specifically revealed similar factors affecting girls' education as in the other developing countries. Gönenç, Ayhan and Bakır (2002) aimed to explore the factors limiting girls' education in their research study. Social gender roles assigned to the girls at early ages stood to be a striking reason for girls' being out of school. Cultural and traditional practices constituted negative attitudes towards girls' education. Girls who did not have education or who withdraw from the school did not have a role model except for being a housewife. The prejudices rooted in social norms and poverty hindered the enjoyment of equal opportunities by girls. Girls' lack of interest in school and high costs of schooling, responsibilities of girls in domestic sphere such as household duties and taking care of younger siblings and lack of suitable schools were the other factors inhibiting girls' education.

Dilli (2006) carried out a study to figure out the reasons for girls' being out of school in Şırnak province and Cizre, Silopi, Beytüşebab districts. 200 girls who did not attend the school and 202 parents were surveyed in 2005-2006 education year. The results of the study illustrated that girls do not go to school because of inadequate financial means and parents' negative attitudes towards girls' schooling. Besides, parents thought that schooling was not agreeable for girls who entered the puberty. Educating the boys were considered more important than educating the girls in the

families as helping their mother at home and dealing with household works were thought to be girls' prior responsibilities rather than going to school. Moreover, the idea that schooling the girls was unnecessary as their husbands would take care of them when they got married, early marriages, socio cultural and religious norms, the distance of schools from home were the other factors influencing girls' education negatively.

Lastly, at the First National Conference: Millennium Development Goals and Social Gender Equality, local monitoring reports on gender equality in education were presented. According to the findings of the studies conducted by monitoring groups in Diyarbakır, İstanbul, Mardin and Urfa provinces, the factors limiting girls' education varies in line with the different regional characteristics at different parts of Turkey. Social gender roles, poverty, social, cultural and economic factors were reported to impact girls' schooling. In addition, in Urfa local monitoring report indicated that seasonal working was another issue limiting the children's education in that region (First National Conference Report, 2005).

2.6 Girls' Education in Turkey

2.6.1 Historical Background to Girls' Education in Turkey

2.6.1.1 Late Ottoman Period

Female education in Turkey is analyzed within the framework of two periods. The era from the acceptance of Islam until the foundation of the Turkish Republic constitutes the first period. The Ottoman Empire marked by its religion and sultanate system is included in the first period. The second period starts with the foundation of the Turkish Republic which led to a democratic and secular system in the country (Gelişli, 2004).

As it is the case in any modernizing society, the developments in Ottoman-Turkish education were much related to the political developments in the late Ottoman Empire. The nineteen century was a period of reform, modernization and centralization for the Ottoman Empire. Though relatively late, these reform initiatives influenced education as well (Ceylan, 2010).

The education of women was neglected in the Ottoman Empire because of conflicting religious beliefs related to the male dominated social structure. The improvements in women education started during the Tanzimat period with the Westernization and Modernization processes. Before Tanzimat period, the number of educated women was quite insufficient and there were no public education institutions other than the sibyan primary school. Before the establishment of girls' public schools, only the girls from urban higher class families received education from private tutors or they were educated at home on age hierarchies. Younger women were educated by the older women and educated women had higher ranks in these hierarchies. With the start of the reformist movements it was agreed that girls should have education after the completion of primary education. As a result, the public institutions for girls' education were established in the nineteenth century (Akşit, 2004; Akyüz, 1999; Gelişli, 2004).

In response to the need to coordinate the increasing number of government schools more effectively, The Ministry of National Education was founded in 1857 which was an important institutional step toward the secularization of public education (Somel, 2001). Furthermore, the Regulation of General Education was issued in 1869 and radical and complex changes were made to the education system. This law organized a new system of education and joined madrasa (a type of school) to the Ministry of Education. According to the second article of the Regulation, the school system was graded in to primary (sibyan schools and rushdies), secondary (idadis and sultanis), and higher education (darülfünun). In line with the article 27, women's middle schools were opened (inas rushdies) and article 9 made education in the Ottoman Empire compulsory (Gelişli, 2004).

After the acceptance of the Maarif-i Umumiye Nizamnamesi law in 1869 which mandates the schooling of girls aged between 6 and 11, girls' education was emphasized particularly. Schools were opened for girls such as Darülmuallimat (teachers' school), Girls' Rushdies, and Girls' Industrial Schools. With Kanun-i Esasi (1876) education was mandated as an institutional right for every citizen and in 1913 primary education became compulsory and free at public schools. In 1915, Inas Darülfünun was opened and girls started to be educated freely (Aysöndü, 2010; Hablemitoğlu, 2004 cited in Dilli, 2006).

2.6.1.2 Republican Period

Although the changes in the late Ottoman and the Young Turk Era constituted the background for a true reform in the field of education, dynamic and radical changes in women education occurred in the first decade of the Republican Period (Ceylan,2010; Çetin, 2003). Şimsek and Yıldırım (2004) assert that "education between 1923 and 1950 emphasized gender equality, scientific positivism and republican ideals, such as secularism and modernity in schools. The adaptation of Latin script, the restructuring of the school system along the lines of Western models (i.e. primary, middle and high school), the adaptation of co-education in schools, and the de-emphasis on religious education were all signs of this effort" (pg. 159). With the foundation of the Turkish Republic, it became one of the preferential responsibilities of the government to guarantee that all the citizens benefit from educational opportunities on equal terms. For this aim, reforms and changes were carried out in the education system. First of all, in 1924 the *Tevhid-i Tedrisat Kanunu* (Law of Unification of Instruction) was published and all educational institutions were placed under the control of the Ministry of National Education. In a parallel way, primary education was valued as it was regarded as an effective tool of ensuring reforms and secularity were accepted by the society. Thus, constitutional regulations were executed and primary education became compulsory and free in public schools for all the citizens with the passing of Teskilat-i Esasiye Law (Akyüz 1994; Dilli, 2006). In 1927 co-education was established in all secondary schools in Turkey and female students had the opportunity to attend similar schools with their male counterparts (Başgöz, 1995).

The policies of education were determined by Atatürk during the years of the Turkish War of Independence. Atatürk's belief in education system resulted in the improvements in women education in Turkey. The position of women education has become considerably better in the period of past eighty years and more social, cultural, economic and judicial rights have been given to women than was the case in the Ottoman Empire. Owing to the strong support provided by the governments to women's education, the rate of women enrolling in school has been rising since the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923 and women have education right at all levels (Gelişli, 2004)

In Turkey gender equality in education is guaranteed by the constitution. Equality in education is included in the 1982 constitution (items 10 and 40). Moreover, according to item 42, elementary education is compulsory for men and women and it is free in public schools. The principles of The National Education Basic Law (no. 1739) dictate the gender equality at all levels of education: Education institutions are open to anyone without discrimination on the basis of gender, men and women have equal educational opportunities, schools must be coeducational (although, some schools can be designated for only women and men it if is necessary given the type of education or specific difficulties) (Çetin, 2003; Nohl, 2008)

In addition to legal framework, Turkey signed international agreements to maintain gender equality in education such as the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the 4th World Conference on Women Action Plan (the Beijing Declaration and Action Plan), and the EU directives on equality between women and men. In the Beijing Conference, Turkey pledged a 50 percent decrease in maternal and child mortality, an extension of the duration of compulsory education to eight years and an increase in women's literacy to 100 per cent by the year 2000. The level of education of girls has been raised and significant decreases have been recorded in maternal and child mortality rates with the extension of compulsory education to 8 years in 1997 (KSGM, 2008b).

2.6.2 Current Status of Girls' Education in Turkey

Education reform is an urgent necessity and priority in Turkey as it is regarded as a tool to achieve the goals of transformation into an information society, improved economic competitiveness, achieving sustainable development, and membership to the European Union (EU). In the last decade, Turkish education system has passed through major reforms along with transition to eight-year compulsory education and reform of the primary and secondary education curricula. However, equal access to quality education which can enable all citizens to fulfill their potential and realize their right to education has not been achieved (ERI, 2010).

The Ministry of Education considers girls' schooling as its biggest challenge in education. Because of social and religious restrictions thousands of girls derogated

from their right of education in Turkey. The most disadvantaged group stands to be girls and women in southeast Turkey. Gender disparities in education are still significant in eastern regions and eastern Anatolia. According to UNICEF, more than half of all girls between the ages of seven and 13 do not attend school in some rural areas. While one girl in ten does not attend primary school, three in ten is excluded from secondary education. Of all the provinces that spend least on education per student, 90% are located in East and Southeast Anatolia. 50% of girls between 6 and 14 are out of school in some provinces. Moreover, in rural areas 60% of all girls between 11 and 14 have not even enrolled (Aydagül, 2008; UNICEF, 2007).

Gender-related Development Index, which is prepared by including gender indicators in the values (education, health and income) of the Human Development Index, ranks Turkey 112th out of 156 countries with a value of 98.5 per cent. While life expectancy of women in Turkey is higher than of men, men are ahead of women in terms of adult literacy rate and combined enrolment ratio (KSGM, 2008a). Schooling ratio by educational year and level of education according to 2008-2009 statistics by Ministry of National Education is provided in Table 2.2

Table 2.2

Schooling Ratio by Educational Year and Level of Education (%)

	Primary Education			Secondary Education			Higher Education		
Educational Year	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1997-1998	84.74	90.25	78.97	37.87	41.39	34.16	10.25	11.28	9.17
1998-1999	89.26	94.48	83.79	38.87	42.34	35.22	10.76	11.81	9.67
1999-2000	93.54	98.41	88.45	40.38	44.05	36.52	11.62	12.68	10.52
2000-2001	95.28	99.58	90.79	43.95	48.49	39.18	12.27	13.12	11.38
2001/2002	92.40	96.20	88.45	48.11	53.01	42.97	12.98	13.75	12.17
2005/2006	89.77	92.29	87.16	56.63	61.13	51.95	18.85	20.22	17.41
2006/2007	90.13	92.25	87.93	56.51	60.71	52.16	20.14	21.56	18.66
2007/2008	97.37	98.53	96.14	58.56	61.17	55.81	21.06	22.37	16.69
2008/2009	96.49	96.99	95.97	58.52	60.63	56.30	27.69	29.40	25.92

Source: Statistics of Ministry of National Education, 2008–2009.

As it can be seen in Table 2.2, girls' schooling ratio especially in primary education has been increasing by year. However, female schooling ratio is lower than the total

and male schooling ratio at every level of education. Today, overall adult literacy rate is around 86 percent in Turkey but the quality of education is quite poor in some regions. Girls' enrollment rates are still low and the drop-out rate is the highest in the OECD. 700.000 girls are excluded from primary education and millions of women are left out from the education system. Therefore it is obvious that girls' education constitutes a problem especially in rural areas (Tan et al, n.d.; World Bank Group, 2006).

2.6.3 Policies and Campaigns for Girls' Education in Turkey

Education of girls will offer a more democratic position and role to girls in the future and also will enable them to participate in society. Therefore, this matter is one of the highest priorities on the agenda. Turkey is taking the initiative to eliminate the negative indicators in the area of education. In this respect, it intends to reach 100 per cent literacy and schooling rates for both genders (KSGM, 2008a).

In the Five Year Development Plans (1991-2005), the education of girls/women is considered almost entirely in terms of the contribution they will make to the economy and to the family. Gender concerns in education are reduced to eliminating the gender gap in primary education and making contributions to a more productive labor force. It is thought that when more women are educated, the contribution they will make to the economy and to the family will be more and of better quality. Thus, the main focus in the Five-Year Development Plans (1991-2005) in terms of gender equality has mostly been on access issue (Coker, 2002).

Turkey presented a country evaluation as part of the EFA framework before the Dakar Conference in 2000 and this was followed by a National Action Plan two years later. There is not much evidence that this plan provided a benchmark or platform for evaluating and monitoring the progress towards the EFA goals. However, more inclusive of EFA goals was the Ninth Development Plan covering the period 2007–2013. As well as goals related to early childhood education, universal access and education quality, the new scheme prioritizes girls and students in rural areas and addresses dropouts as important policy issues (Aydagül, 2008).

European Commission awarded ERI, AÇEV, and Association for Supporting Women Candidates (Ka-Der) a grant in September 2004 for them to embark on the three-year project “Raising Women: Reducing Gender Disparity in Education through Functional and Political Literacy, Parent Training, Collective Action and Advocacy”. ERI makes a contribution to the project mainly by carrying out activities for better local and national policy formulation, dialogue and monitoring in the area of gender disparity in education. The Civic Initiative formed within this framework recently prepared a declaration for the education of girls. ERI also led the study called "Drop-Out in Primary Schools in Turkey and Policies on Monitoring and Preventing Drop-Out", which was published in 2006 (ERI, 2010).

Efforts to enhance female enrolment include programs by UNICEF and the government which together led to the opening of about 1,000 new schools in 2003 in rural provinces, as well as Istanbul and Ankara. The World Bank plans to spend US$600 million on education facilities, including bus services to take girls to school (Financial Times, 2004; cited in World Bank Group, 2006).

A prominent government initiative has been Let’s Go to School, Girls—the girls’ education campaign. The organizations MONE and UNICEF led a massive inter-sectoral campaign to activate different parties, aiming to increase female enrolment rates and attain gender parity by 2005 (Somuncu, 2006). The girls' education campaign carried out by the Ministry of National Education and UNICEF ensured 62,000 girls to enroll in primary schools in 2005, which would otherwise have been out of school. In 2006 the campaign was expanded to all 81 provinces. Private sector campaigns to increase school enrollment and to improve the physical school conditions have continued (Commission of the European Communities, 2006)

The private sector and civil society launched the project named “Kardelenler - Contemporary Girls of Contemporary Turkey” in 2000. For girls who could not continue their education because of economic reasons, it was aimed at providing equal opportunities, providing them with qualifications to acquire a profession, and helping them become open minded individuals. In this project, 12,300 students were granted with scholarships, 7380 students graduated from high schools, 950 students passed the university entrance exam, and 67 students graduated from university. Due to its success, the project was extended until 2015 (KSGM, 2008a)

In Turkey, although the importance of education has been realised and great reforms have been made since the first years of the Republic, the overall rate of schooling has not reached the desired level yet. There are some reasons preventing girls from fully benefiting from education service (KSGM, 2008a). It has been targeted to decrease girls' dropout rates and to organize alternative education programmes for girls and women who dropped out of school early. Several projects, including "Support to Basic Education", and campaigns such as "Let's go to school, Girls!" and "Daddy, Send me to School!" aimed to diminish the number of school dropouts, especially for girls, and to arrange education programmes for girls and women. In implementing these programmes, cooperation with international organizations, the private sector and non-governmental organizations were emphasized. As well as these, the Ministry of National Education will implement the "We, as mother and daughter, are at School Campaign" in cooperation with Halk Bank between the years 2008-2013 (KSGM, 2008a).

In short, women's education has been a janus-headed phenomenon in Turkey for a long time. On the one hand, owing to the cumulative effects of a strong political will and a supportive ideological climate, women's entry into all levels and types of education has been a consistent national priority since the establishment of the secular Turkish Republic (1923). On the other hand, a strong patriarchal culture reflected in gender discriminatory traditions and practices (such as son preference, early marriage, and gender-based seclusion and segregation reinforced by Islamic beliefs) as well as scarce economic resources have acted as barriers to women's education (Acar, 2003). There have been positive developments on account of various programs, projects and campaigns aiming at schooling of girls in recent years. However, at educational processes following primary education, we witness a drop in schooling rates of girls and female illiteracy still poses a problem for the country. Women are still subject to discriminatory practices, largely because of a lack of education and a high illiteracy rate (Commission of the European Communities, 2006; Tomul, 2005)

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter presents the method used while conducting the present research study. It includes overall design of the study, research questions, variables, population and sample sellection,development of questionaire, pilot testing of questionaire, data collection procedure,and data analysis procedure.

3.1 Overall Design of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to identify the perception of the parents regarding the girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions show significant differences with respect to certain background variables. More specifically, parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education were examined. Cross-sectional survey method was used in the study. A questionnaire developed by the researcher under the light of the related literature was administered to the subjects. The sample of the study consisted of the parents whose daughters attend the primary school in 8 different villages and 3 regions in the city center of the province of Sivas. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to get a deeper insight into the research questions. Descriptive Statistics were used to analyze the background information of the participants. A paired samples *t*- test was conducted to compare the perceptions of parents in two dimensions of GEQ. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was employed to explore whether there were significant differences between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to certain background variables. Alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

3.2 Research Questions

The specific research questions are as follows:

1. What are the perceptions of parents regarding the benefits of girls' education?
2. What are the perceptions of parents regarding the barriers to girls' education?
3. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education?
4. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to certain background variables?
   4.1. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to being mother or father?
   4.2. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to father and mother education level?
   4.3. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to number of the children they have?
   4.4. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to the place of residence?
   4.5. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to average income?
   4.6. Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to father and mother job?

3.3 Variables

Being father or mother: It is a categorical variable with two levels (1= Mother, 2=Father).

Education level of mother: It is a categorical variable with seven levels (1=not literate, 2=literate but no diploma, 3=elementary school graduate, 4=middle school

graduate, 5=high school graduate, 6=university graduate, 7=postgraduate (Master's and/or Ph.D. degree).

Education level of father: It is a categorical variable with seven levels (1=not literate, 2=literate but no diploma, 3=elementary school graduate, 4=middle school graduate, 5=high school graduate, 6=university graduate, 7=postgraduate (Master's and/or Ph.D. degree)).

The number of children: It is a categorical variable with six levels (1= one, 2= two, 3= three, 4= four, 5= more than four, 6= none)

Place of residence: It is a categorical variable with five levels (1= Village, 2= Town, 3=District, 4= Central city (Population below 1 million), 5= Big city (Population 1 million and above)

Average income: It is a categorical variable with five levels (1=0-499TL, 2=500-999 TL, 3=1000-1499 TL, 4=1500-1999 TL, 5= 2000 TL and above)

The job of mother: It is a categorical variable with six levels (1= housewife, 2=civil servant (working for the government with regular income and social security), 3= worker (no stable income and social security), 4= farmer, 5= tradesman, 6= self employed)

The job of father: It is a categorical variable with six levels (1= housewife, 2=civil servant (working for the government with regular income and social security), 3= worker (no stable income and social security), 4= farmer, 5= tradesman, 6= self employed)

3.4 Population and Sample Selection

Population of this study included all the parents who had daughters attending the public primary schools in 2009-2010 academic year in Sivas. For sample selection, experienced teachers working in the public primary schools in the province of Sivas were consulted and the villages and the regions in the city center in which people had

low-level and middle level socio economic status and where the girls' did not attend the school after primary education were determined. Thus, the parents would be the representative of the broad range of regions where the girls' education was affected by diverging factors. As a result, 8 villages and 3 regions in the city center were selected. As the researcher has been working as a teacher for a year she used personal judgment and the views of her colleagues with more than three years of experience in the city in order to select the neighborhoods where the girls' education might be problematic. Therefore, the process of sample selection was purposive sampling. The sample consisted of 241 parents whose daughters attended the public primary schools in Sivas. Among the 241 parents, 153 of them were mothers, 88 of them were fathers.

3.5 Development of the Questionnaire

In this study "Girls Education Questionnaire (GEQ)" was administered to the parents to explore their perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher after a comprehensive review of the literature related to the girls' education. For the purpose of selecting appropriate items for the questionnaire development, the books written on the issue (Lewis and Lockheed, 2007; King and Hill, 1993) the reports of the international organizations working on girls' education (UNESCO,2000; UNICEF, 2007; UN, 2009), the related articles on different journals (Scully, 2006; Somuncu, 2006; Subrahmanian, 2005; Unterhalter, 2005) and unpublished theses conducted in Turkey (Akşit, 2004; Coker, 2002; Dilli, 2006; Tanman, 2008) and other countries (Annin, 2009; Lincove, 2005; MacNeil, 2008; Mendy, 2008; Ombonga, 2008) were reviewed. On the basis of the related literature, an instrument consisting of two sections were prepared for the parents. The first section included the questions addressing to the background information of the participants. The second section of the instrument consisted of 36 items in a five point Likert scale format by scoring 5 to "Strongly Agree", 4 to "Agree", 3 to "Not Decided", 2 to "Disagree", and 1 to "Strongly Disagree" which were designed to identify parents' views of girls' education.

In the next step, the questionnaire was given to the 3 academicians, who were experts in that area, in order to examine whether the statements were sufficient in identifying

the perceptions of the parents regarding girls' education. It was also checked by two Turkish teachers for the clarity of its language. By this way the items were written in a way that the parents could understand. More specifically, this process helped to eliminate ambiguities and unfamiliar expressions and to examine content and face validity. The final form of the instrument was revised utilizing the responses and comments of the experts and some statements were extracted and reformulated.

3.6 Pilot Testing of the Questionnaire

Pilot testing was conducted with 146 parents in Kızılcahamam and Polatlı districts in Ankara by the researcher. The participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire and make comments about the items for clarity. Questionnaire included two sections; the first section consisting of background questions and the second **s**ection with 36 items related to the benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education. By considering the results of the pilot testing some items were eliminated and some statements which were criticized as being unclear were rewritten. For the overall reliability of the questionnaire coefficient Alpha was calculated and Cronbach Alpha of the questionnaire with 36 items was computed as .74.

Green and Salkind asserted that (2004) factor analysis is used to determine the dimensions underlying existing measurement. Items of the questionnaire were written under two dimensions in accordance with the existing literature. Factor analysis was conducted by varimax method to confirm the underlying dimensions or the factors of the inventory and to see whether researchers' hypothesis was correct. The rotated solution was evaluated for 36 items of the questionnaire and it was observed that there were 10 dimensions with eigenvalues above 1. It was observed that 3 items were scattered in the rotated component matrix. These items were removed from the questionnaire and the last version of the questionnaire included 33 items. After eliminating the three items from the questionnaire, the number of the factors was reduced to eight. In the same way, the overall reliability of the questionnaire with 33 items was computed as .89 indicating that the scale had high internal consistency.

The final version of the questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section included the questions addressing to the background information. The required background -information were those that might influence the parents' views of girls'

education. The second section of the questionnaire included 33 items and consisted of two groups of questions. There were 10 items related to the benefits of girls' education and 23 items in relation the barriers to the girls' education (see Appendix A). The reliability coefficient was found .73 for the first group of items and .94 for the second group.

3.7 Data collection procedure

Before administering the questionnaire permission was obtained from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee and permission from MONE were obtained to administer the questionnaire. After the necessary permission was obtained the questionnaire was administered in April, 2010. The questionnaires were sent to the parents to fill out at home via the classroom teachers working at the schools where their daughters were enrolled. The classroom teachers surveyed the illiterate parents by reading aloud the questions and filling in participants' responses.

3.8 Data Analysis Procedure

Because of incomplete information, out of 265 parents that participated in the study, the data obtained from 24 parents were not included in the analysis. The statistical analyses were carried out by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] 15.0 program and data was analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics. The .05 level was set as a criterion of statistical significance for all the statistical procedures utilized. Descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentages were used to describe the background variables. Mean values of the parents' responses for each item in the questionnaire were analyzed in order to determine the items that were given the most importance with respect to benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education. Factor analysis was used as a data reduction and classification method. Principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was employed to confirm underlying two dimensions of girls' education. Inferential statistics was employed to investigate if the significant differences among dependent variables across independent variables existed. More specifically, a paired samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the perceptions of parents in two dimensions of GEQ. Moreover, MANOVA was utilized to examine whether gender, place of residence, average income, and mother-father education level had significant effect on the

parents' perceptions on each dimensions of girls' education. MANOVA with Pillai's Trace was employed when homogeneity of variance assumption was not met. Pillai's Trace test was preferred since it is, as Olson (1976) stated, more robust than the other three multivariate tests: Wilks's lambda, Hotelling's trace, and Roy's largest root (cited in Liu, 2003, p.54). It was also highlighted by Bray and Maxwell (1985) that as compared to the other tests, its robustness is the most when the assumptions are violated (cited in Field, 2005, p. 594). MANOVA with Wilks' Lambda was employed when homogeneity of variance assumption was observed to have been met. Wilks' Lambda was chosen in order to test the significance as it provides a good and commonly used multivariate under most conditions when assumptions are met (Leech, Barret and Morgan, 2005).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The present study aimed to identify the perception of the parents regarding the girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions showed significant differences with respect to certain background variables. More specifically, parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education were examined. This chapter of the study includes three sections: In the first section the results obtained by principal component analysis which was conducted to investigate the dimensions of the instrument are presented. In the second section demographic information of the parents analyzed through descriptive statistics are presented. In the third section the results of paired samples *t*-test and MANOVA which was carried out to analyze the mean differences in the perceptions of parents with respect to certain background variables are presented.

4.1 Results Concerning Principal Component Analysis

Items of the questionnaire were written under two dimensions in accordance with the existing literature. As Green and Salkind asserted that (2004) factor analysis is used to determine the dimensions underlying existing measurement, a factor analysis was applied in order to determine whether the items were grouped under the factors determined beforehand. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test were considered to see sampling adequacy for factor analysis. The KMO measure is 0.909 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (.00) was significant supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Initial principal component analysis with varimax rotation of the 33 items inventory revealed seven factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The scree plot provides a fairly reliable criterion for factor selection with a sample of more than 200 participants (Stevens, 1992, cited in Field, 2005). The results a scree

plot (see Figure 4.1) indicated that two factors should be examined since they had large loadings and defined most of the items.

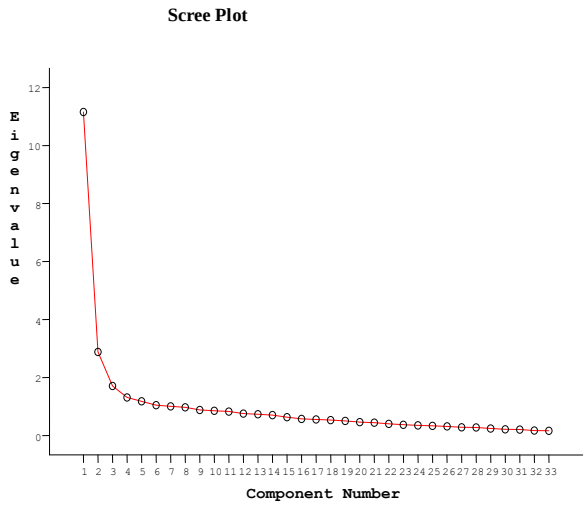

Figure 4.1 Scree Plot for Factor Reduction

Field asserts that the analysis have to be rerun specifying that SPSS extract the number of factors required if scree plot is used to determine how many factors are retrained (Field, 2005). Therefore, initial principal component analysis calling for two factors was conducted. The eigenvalue of the first dimension was 11.153, while the other was 2.88. These two dimensions explained 42.529% of variance. The first dimension 'barriers to girls' education' explained 33.798% of variance and the second dimension 'benefits of girls' education' explained 8.731% of variance.

The benefits of girls' education subscale pertained 10 items (Items 1, 2,3, 4, 5, 6,7, 8, 9 and 10) with loadings ranging from .41 to .68 and the barriers to girls' subscale pertained 23 items (Items 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33) with loadings ranging from .41 to .80. The Factor Loadings of each item obtained via Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation are given on Table 4.1

Table 4.1

Factor Loadings Obtained via Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Item No	***ITEMS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE***	F1	F2
Item 23.	I would not like my daughter to go to school once she grows up and reaches puberty.	**.802**	-.102
Item 31.	It is not appropriate to send girls to school as they will not appreciate their families and their living conditions in the future.	**.781**	-.090
Item 17.	It is morally wrong to send girls above certain age to school.	**.773**	-.003
Item 15.	It is not essential for girls to get education and get a job as it is mainly men's responsibility to maintain the family.	**.763**	-.031
Item 18.	It is more essential for girls to learn household chores than going to school.	**.756**	-105
Item 19.	It is not necessary for girls to go to school as their husband will take care of them when they get married.	**.736**	-.148
Item 30.	It is not right to send girls to school as they will be in the same environment with boys.	**.732**	-.147
Item 16.	It is unnecessary to send girls to school as they will eventually get married and leave home.	**.729**	.004
Item 21.	It is more essential for girls to learn child-care at home than going to school.	**.695**	-.029
Item 28.	It is not appropriate to send girls to school as they might make harmful friends at school.	**.692**	-.126
Item 32.	I would not like my daughter to go to school if the school is away from our house.	**.691**	-.096
Item 20.	It is more important to spare money for boys' education.	**.689**	.027
Item 22.	It is not right for girls to go to school in our religion.	**.672**	-.116
Item 24.	It is not appropriate for girls to go to another place for education.	**.668**	-.199
Item 27.	Even if my daughter is enrolled at school, she may not attend the lessons if she is needed at home.	**.666**	-.039
Item 25.	Girls will be more rebellious if they are sent to school.	**.648**	-.122
Item 29.	It is ill-advised to send girls to school as they might get used to bad habits like cigarettes and drugs.	**.640**	-.219
Item 12.	If someone decent proposes, it is convenient for girls to leave school and get married.	**.629**	-.141
Item 13.	It is not appropriate for girls to be educated according to our customs and traditions.	**.600**	-.068

Item 14.	It is not appropriate to send girls to school unless their teacher is female.	**.596**	-.108
Item 33.	I will send my daughter to school if the expenses are met by the government.	**.507**	.077
Item 11.	Girls cannot be as successful as boys at school.	**.491**	-.117
Item 26.	I would send my daughter to school for a longer period if there were more arts and crafts lessons for girls in the curriculum.	**.413**	.034
Item 10.	Educating girls contributes to social development.	-.098	**.680**
Item 6.	Educated girls can take decisions about themselves independently.	-.124	**.629**
Item 7.	Educated girls will be more knowledgeable about raising children in the future.	-.023	**.598**
Item 8.	Girls' education contributes to economy of the country in the long-run.	-.108	**.584**
Item 2.	Girls should be provided with equal educational opportunities as boys.	-.338	**.564**
Item 5.	Educated girls can find more compatible husbands for themselves.	-.050	**.542**
Item 3.	Girls can be as successful as boys at school.	-.069	**.483**
Item 9.	Educated girls support their families financially.	.050	**.478**
Item 4.	Education enables girls to be good housewives in the future.	.141	**.457**
Item 1.	Families should support girls' schooling.	-.294	**.417**

Cronbach's Alpha was computed to check the reliability of each dimension of the questionnaire. Reliability coefficients for the two scales were found to be .94 for barriers to girls' education and .73 for the benefits of girls' education. In the same way, the overall reliability of the questionnaire with 33 items was computed as .89 indicating that the scale had high internal consistency.

4.2 Results Concerning the Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Totally 241 parents were participated in the study. 153 (63.5%) of the participant were mothers and 88 (36.5%) of them were fathers. As it is illustrated in Table 4.2., the majority of the parents were at the age of 30-39 (54.8%). 40-49 aged parents constituted the second largest proportion and it was 29 % of the sample. 10.8% of them were at the age of 20-29. There were only two parents at the age of 60-69 years and the number of parents who were 50-59 years old was 11.

Table 4.2

Distribution of Parents by Age

Age	***f***	***%***
20-29	26	10.8
30-39	132	54.8
40-49	70	29.0
50-59	11	4.6
60-69	2	0.8
Total	241	100

The parents were also asked to provide data in relation to their "educational background". Table 4.3 reports the frequencies and percentages of parents for education level. As can be seen in Table 4.3, 14.1 % of mothers were illiterate, and similarly 5.4% of them had a mother who was literate but had no diploma. More than three fifth of the mothers (65.1 %) were elementary-school graduate. The percentage of mothers graduated from middle-school, high-school and university were 7.5%, 7.1% and 0.8% respectively. Moreover, none of the mothers had post graduate degree. Results indicated that 2.5% of fathers were illiterate while 3.3% were was literate but had no diploma. More than two-quarters of fathers (61.4%) graduated from elementary school. The percentages of fathers graduated from middle-school, high school and university were 16.6%, 10.8% and 5% respectively. Last of all, only 0.4% of the fathers had post graduate degree.

Table 4.3

Distribution of Parents by Education Level

Education Level	Mothers		Fathers	
	f	%	f	%
Illiterate	34	14.1	6	2.5
Literate but no diploma	13	5.4	8	3.3
Elementary school	157	65.1	148	61.4
Middle school	18	7.5	40	16.6
High school	17	7.1	26	10.8
University	2	.8	12	5.0
Postgraduate	0	0	1	.4
TOTAL	241	100.0	241	100.0

Regarding parents' job results revealed that (see Table 4.4) a great majority of (95.6%) mothers were housewives. As for the fathers job, 39% of the parents reported that the fathers were farmers. Moreover, the percentage of fathers, who were workers, civil-servants and who had self-employment, were 26.1%, 10.4% and 17.8 % respectively.

Table 4.4

Distribution of Parents by Job

Jobs	Mothers		Fathers	
	f	%	f	%
Housewife/Unemployed	231	95.9	4	17
Civil servant	3	1.2	25	10.4
Worker	2	.8	63	26.1
Farmer	1	.4	94	39.0
Tradesman	0	0	2	.8
Self-employed	3	1.2	43	17.8
Retired	1	.4	10	4.1
TOTAL	241	100.0	241	100.0

Regarding the place of residence results revealed that (see Table 4.5) more than three fifth of the parents (68.9%) stated that they lived in village while 17.8% reported that they spent most of their life in Central city (Population below 1 million). The percentage of parents who lived in big city (Population 1 million and above) was

6.2%. Additionally, the percentages of parents reporting that they spent most of their life time in town and district were 2.9% and 4.1% respectively.

Table 4.5

Distribution of Parents by Place of Residence

Place of Residence	***f***	***%***
Village	166	68.9
Town	7	2.9
District	10	4.1
Central City	43	17.8
Big City	15	6.2
TOTAL	241	100.0

Parents were asked to state the number of children they have .As can be seen in Table 4.6., more than one third of the parents (35.7%) reported that they had more than four children while 27% of them stated that they had four. The percentage of parents having three children was 19.5%. Lastly, 15.4% of the parents reported having two children and only 2.5% of the parents stated that they had one child.

Table 4.6

Distribution of Parents by the Number of Children

The number of children	***f***	***%***
1 child	6	2.5
2 children	37	15.4
3 children	47	19.5
4 children	65	27
More than 4 children	86	35.7
TOTAL	241	100.0

Parents were asked to state their average income per month. As can be seen in Table 4.7, 45.6% of the parents had “0-499 TL” average income per month while 30.7 % of them had “500-999 TL”. The percentages of parents who had “1000-1499 TL” and “1500-2000 TL” average income per month were 15.4% and 6.2% respectively. Additionally, only 2.1% of the parents stated that their average income was “2000 TL and above” per month.

Table 4.7

Distribution of Parents by Average Income per Month

Average Income per Month	***f***	***%***
0-499 TL	110	45.6
500-999 TL	74	30.7
1000-1499 TL	37	15.4
1500-1999 TL	15	6.2
2000 TL and above	5	2.1
TOTAL	241	100.0

Last of all, the parent were asked to state to what level of education they want their daughters to attain. More than two-third of the parents (65.6%) expressed that they want their daughter to attain education until they get a job while 12.4% of the parent stated the desired level of girls' educational attainment as elementary school. The percentages decreased to 6.6% for the university education and 5% for the vocational school (See Table 4.8)

Table 4.8

Desired Level of Girls' Educational Attainment

Desired Level of education	***f***	***%***
Elementary school completion	30	12.4
Middle school completion	4	1.7
High school completion	9	3.7
Vocational high school completion	7	2.9
Vocational school /university level completion	12	5.0
University completion	16	6.6
Until she gets a job	158	65.6
Other	5	2.1
TOTAL	241	100.0

4.3. Results concerning the mean differences in the perceived dimensions of GEQ with respect to certain background variables of parents

4.3.1 Results Regarding Perceptions of Parents in Two Dimension of GEQ

A paired samples *t*- test was conducted to compare the perceptions of parents in two dimensions of GEQ. The following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education?

Table 4.9

Means and Standard Deviations for Two Dimensions of GEQ

		M	**N**	**SD**
Pair 1	Benef	4.3643	241	.54716
	Barrier	1.9268	241	.83163

As can be seen in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, a paired samples *t*-test indicated that there was a significant difference in the mean scores for barriers to girls' education (*M*=4.36, *SD*=.54), and benefits of girls' education (*M*= 1.92, *SD*=.83); *t* (240) =34.33, *p*=.000. Results indicated that parents had higher mean score for the benefits of girls' education dimension.

Table 4.10

Results of Paired Samples t-test for Comparing Perceptions of Parents in Two Dimensions of GEQ

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	benef - barier	34.333	240	.000

4.3.2 Results Regarding Being Mother or Father

In order to determine the effect of being mother or father a one-way MANOVA was performed and the following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to being mother or father?

The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was not met for the analysis, F (5, 7.927) = p=.049. Levene's test results are presented in Table 4.11. As can be seen, it was observed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not met for the benefits of girls' education subscale. Pillai's Trace test was preferred since it is, as Olson (1976) stated, more robust than the other three multivariate tests: Wilks's lambda, Hotelling's trace, and Roy's largest root (cited in Liu, 2003, p.54). It was also highlighted by Bray and Maxwell (1985) that as compared to the other tests, its robustness is the most when the assumptions are violated (cited in Field, 2005, p. 594)

Table 4.11

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig.**
Benefits	7.264	1	239	.008
Barriers	1.200	1	239	.274

MANOVA results regarding being mother or father are presented in Table 4.12. Results of MANOVA showed that Pillai's Trace revealed a non significant effect for the gender (Pillai's Trace=.003, F (2, 238) = .306, p= .74, η^2=.003) on the dependent variables. Results indicated that being mother or father did not create a significant mean difference in parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education.

Table 4.12

MANOVA Result for Being Mother or Father

Effect	**Pillai's Trace**	**F**	**Hypothesis df**	**Error df**	***P***	η^2
Being Mother or Father	.003	.306	2.000	238.000	.737	.003

The mean and standard deviations of the dimensions of girls' education with respect to being mother or father were presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Being Mother or Father

Dimensions of Girls Education	Being Mother or Father	M	SD
Benefits	**Mother**	4.3824	.50979
	Father	4.3330	.60851
Barriers	**Mother**	1.9358	.76702
	Father	1.9111	.93787

4.3.3 Results Regarding Education Level of Parents

In order to determine the effect of education level of mother, education level of father, and the interaction of mother and father education level, a two-way MANOVA was performed. The following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of education and barriers to girls' education with respect to father and mother education level?

The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was met for the analysis, F (45, 58.802) = p=.47. Levene's test results are presented in Table 4.14. As can be seen, the assumption was observed to have been met. Wilks' Lambda was chosen in order to test the significance as it provides a good and commonly used multivariate under most conditions when assumptions are met (Leech, Barret and Morgan, 2005).

Table 4.14

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Benefits	1.061	26	214	.390
Barriers	.333	26	214	.138

As illustrated in Table 4.15, the analysis indicated a non significant main effect for education level of mother (Wilks' Lambda =.985, F (10, 426) = .322, p= .97, η^2=.007) and for education level of father (Wilks' Lambda =.927, F (12, 426) = 1.380, p= .17, η^2=.037). In the same way, Wilks' Lambda revealed a non significant effect for the combination "father education level x mother education level" (Wilks' Lambda =.880, F (30, 426) = .937, p= .56, η^2=.062). Therefore, educational level of mothers and fathers did not create a significant mean difference in parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education.

Table 4.15

MANOVA Results for Education Level of Parents

Effect	Wilks' Lambda	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	*P*	η^2
Education level of mother	.985	322	10.000	426.000	.975	.007
Education level of father	.927	1.380	12.000	426.000	.172	.037
Education level of mother x Education level of father	.880	.937	30.000	426.000	.564	.062

The means and standard deviations of father and mother education levels are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to the Father and Mother Education Level

Dimensions of Girls' Education	Mother education level	Father education level	M	SD
Benefits of Girls' Education	Illiterate	Not literate	4.70	.424
		Literate but no diploma	4.10	.964
		Elementary school	4.24	.521
		Middle school	3.93	.539
		High school	5.00	.
	Literate but no diploma	Not literate	4.10	.
		Literate but no diploma	4.40	.141
		Elementary school	3.98	.334

		Middle school	4.60	.336
		High school	3.70	.
	Elementary school	Not literate	4.30	.282
		Literate but no diploma	4.33	.577
		Elementary school	4.43	.565
		Middle school	4.15	.585
		High school	4.26	.559
	Middle school	Not literate	4.60	.
		Elementary school	4.30	.793
		Middle school	4.22	.386
		High school	4.68	.311
		University	4.20	.141
	High school	Elementary school	4.46	.472
		Middle school	3.90	.
		High school	4.44	.667
		University	4.70	.291
		Postgraduate	4.20	.
		University	4.70	.424
Barriers to Girls' Education	Not literate	Not literate	1.71	.030
		Literate but no diploma	2.10	.854
		Elementary school	2.25	.778
		Middle school	2.18	.830
		High school	1.91	.
	Literate but no diploma	Not literate	2.39	.
		Literate but no diploma	1.69	.614
		Elementary school	2.12	.835
		Middle school	1.46	.472
		High school	2.08	.
	Elementary school	Not literate	3.13	.860
		Literate but no diploma	2.02	1.03
		Elementary school	1.96	.866
		Middle school	1.99	.832
		High school	1.86	.867
		University	1.59	.690
	Middle school	Not literate	4.60	.
		Elementary school	1.63	.577
		Middle school	1.44	.613
		High school	1.25	.303
		University	1.30	.245
	High school	Elementary school	1.88	1.19
		Middle school	1.39	.
		High school	1.35	.308
		University	1.46	.368
		Postgraduate	1.21	.
	University	University	1.26	.122

4.3.4 Results Regarding the Number of Children

In order to investigate whether the number of children that parents had create a significant difference on their perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education, a one-way MANOVA was performed and the following research

question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to number of the children they have? The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was met for the analysis, F (12, 8.378) = p=.79. Moreover, Levene's test results are presented in Table 4.17. As can be seen, the assumption was observed to have been met.

Table 4.17

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Benefits	1.246	4	236	.292
Barriers	1.708	4	236	.149

As Table 4.18 shows, results of MANOVA indicated that Wilks' Lambda revealed a non significant effect for the number of children the parents had (Wilks' Lambda =.956, F (8, 470) = 1.334, p=.22, η^2=.022). Thus, the number of children the parents had did not create a significant mean difference in parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education.

Table 4.18

The Results of MANOVA for the Effect of the Number of Children on Parent's Perceptions

Effect	**Wilks' Lambda**	**F**	**Hypothesis df**	**Error df**	***P***	η^2
The number of children	.956	1.334	8.000	470.000	.224	.022

The means and standard deviations for the number of children were presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Number of Children

Dimensions of Girls Education	Gender	M	SD
Benefits	1 child	4.38	.430
	2 children	4.55	.448
	3 children	4.38	.514
	4 children	4.29	.590
	More than 4 children	4.32	.568
Barriers	1 child	1.78	.767
	2 children	1.83	.845
	3 children	1.79	.775
	4 children	1.87	.782
	More than 4 children	2.08	.789

4.3.5 Results Regarding the Place of Residence

In order to explore whether the place of residence create a significant difference on their perception of the benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls 'education, a one-way MANOVA was performed and the following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to the place of residence? The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was not met for the analysis, F (12, 36.017) = p=.001. Levene's test results presented in Table 4.20 indicated that the assumption was violated.

Table 4.20

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Benefits	.973	4	236	.423
Barriers	5.177	4	236	.001

MANOVA results regarding the place of residence are presented in Table 4.21. Results of MANOVA indicated that Pillai's Trace revealed a significant effect for the place of residence (Pillai's Trace =.132, F (8, 472) = 4.158, p= .00, η^2=.066) on the dependent variables.

Table 4.21

MANOVA Results for the Place of Residence

Effect	Pillai's Trace	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	*P*	η^2
Place of Residence	.132	4.158	8.000	472.000	.000	.066

Analysis of variance on each dependent variable was conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA (See Table 4.22). The ANOVA results showed that place of residence variable had significant effect on the barriers to girls education dimension [*F (4,236)* = 8.344, p= .00, η^2 =.124]. However, place of residence had no significant effect on the benefits of girls' education dimension [*F (4,236)* = 1.516, p=.198, η^2 =.025].

Table 4.22

Univariate F test Computed for the Two Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Place of Residence

	Dimensions of Girls' Education	Df	F	p	η2
Place of Residence	**Benefits**	236	1.516	.198	.025
	Barriers	236	8.344	.000*	.124

***Significant at .05 level**

Post hoc analysis to univariate ANOVA with Bonferonni test for the two dimensions of GEQ was conducted in order to see whether there were significant mean differences between perceived dimensions of parents with respect to place of residence. According to the results, there was significant mean difference between parents who lived in village, town, central city and big city for barriers to girls' education dimension (See Table 4. 23)

Table 4.23

The Mean Differences in Perceived Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Place of Residence

Dependent Variable	(I) place	(J) place	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Benefits of Girls' Education	Village	Town	.2575	.21022	1.000
		District	-.1311	.17740	1.000
		Central City	-.1362	.09323	1.000
		Big City	-.2111	.14689	1.000
	Town	Village	-.2575	.21022	1.000
		District	-.3886	.26849	1.000
		Central City	-.3937	.22205	.775
		Big City	-.4686	.24939	.615
	District	Village	.1311	.17740	1.000
		Town	.3886	.26849	1.000
		Central City	-.0051	.19128	1.000
		Big City	-.0800	.22242	1.000
	Central City	Village	.1362	.09323	1.000
		Town	.3937	.22205	.775
		District	.0051	.19128	1.000
		Big City	-.0749	.16338	1.000
	Big City	Village	.2111	.14689	1.000
		Town	.4686	.24939	.615
		District	.0800	.22242	1.000
		Central City	.0749	.16338	1.000
Barriers to Girls' Education	Village	Town	-.4136	.30288	1.000
		District	.3094	.25560	1.000
		Central City	.6617(*)	.13432	.000
		Big City	.6050(*)	.21164	.046
	Town	Village	.4136	.30288	1.000
		District	.7230	.38684	.629
		Central City	1.0753(*)	.31993	.009
		Big City	1.0186(*)	.35931	.050
	District	Village	-.3094	.25560	1.000
		Town	-.7230	.38684	.629
		Central City	.3523	.27559	1.000
		Big City	.2957	.32046	1.000
	Central City	Village	-.6617(*)	.13432	.000
		Town	-1.0753(*)	.31993	.009
		District	-.3523	.27559	1.000
		Big City	-.0566	.23539	1.000
	Big City	Village	-.6050(*)	.21164	.046
		Town	-1.0186(*)	.35931	.050
		District	-.2957	.32046	1.000
		Central City	.0566	.23539	1.000

The mean and standard deviations of the dimensions of girls' education with respect to place of residence were presented in table 4.24. As can be seen on the table parents who live in village (*M*=2.08, *SD*=.85) and in town (*M*=2.49, *SD*=1.07) had higher mean score for "barriers to girls' education" compared to the other groups.

Table 4.24

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of Girls' Education with Respect to Place of Residence

Dimensions of Girls Education	Place of Residence	M	SD
Benefits	Village	4.32	.559
	Town	4.07	.708
	District	4.46	.432
	Central City	4.46	.507
	Big City	4.54	.459
Barriers	Village	2.08	.853
	Town	2.49	1.07
	District	1.77	.414
	Central City	1.42	.472
	Big City	1.47	.727

4.3.6 Results Regarding Average Income

In order to explore whether the average income that the parents had create a significant difference on their perception of the benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education, a one-way MANOVA was performed and the following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to their average income?

The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was not met for the analysis, F (12, 21.547) = p=.068. Levene's test results are presented in Table 4.25. As can be seen on the table, Levene's test is not significant for the benefits of girls' education subscale and the assumption was violated.

Table 4.25

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Benefits	.435	4	236	.783
Barriers	3.693	4	236	.006

MANOVA results regarding the average income are presented in Table 4.26. Results of MANOVA indicated that Pillai's Trace revealed a significant effect for the average income (Pillai's Trace =.086, F (8, 472) = 2.654, p= .007, η^2=.043) on the dependent variables.

Table 4.26

MANOVA Results for the Average Income

Effect	Pillai's Trace	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	*P*	η^2
Average Income	.086	2.654	8.000	472.000	.007	.043

Follow-up analyses of variances on each dependent variable are presented in Table 4.27. The univariate ANOVA for average income was significant for the barriers to girls' education dimension [F *(4,236)* = 4.170, p= .003, η^2 =.066]. On the other hand, results indicated that average income variable had no significant effect for the benefits of girls' education dimension [F *(4,236)* = .643, p=.632, η^2 =.011].

Table 4.27

Univariate F test Computed for the Two Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Place of Residence

	Dimensions of Girls' Education	Df	F	P	η2
Average Income	**Benefits**	4	.643	.632	.011
	Barriers	4	4.170	.003*	.066

***Significant at .05 level**

Post hoc analysis to univariate ANOVA with Bonferonni test for the two dimensions of GEQ was conducted in order to see whether there were significant mean differences between perceived dimensions of parents with respect to average income. According to the results, there was significant mean difference between parents who had 0-499 TL and 1000-1499 TL average income for barriers to girls' education dimension (See Table 4. 28).

Table 4.28

The Mean Differences in Perceived Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Income

Dependent Variable	(I) income	(J) income	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Benefits of Girls' Education	0-499 TL	500-999 TL	.0434	.08251	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	.0015	.10430	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	-.1430	.15105	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.2564	.25095	1.000
	500-999 TL	0-499 T L	-.0434	.08251	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	-.0419	.11050	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	-.1864	.15540	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.2997	.25359	1.000
	1000-1499 TL	0-499 TL	-.0015	.10430	1.000
		500-999 TL	.0419	.11050	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	-.1445	.16798	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.2578	.26149	1.000
	1500-1999 TL	0-499 TL	.1430	.15105	1.000
		500-999 TL	.1864	.15540	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	.1445	.16798	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.1133	.28340	1.000
	2000 TL and above	0-499 TL	.2564	.25095	1.000
		500-999 TL	.2997	.25359	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	.2578	.26149	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	.1133	.28340	1.000
Bariers to Girls' Education	0-499 TL	500-999 TL	.3195	.12186	.093
		1000-1499 TL	.5522(*)	.15403	.004
		1500-1999 TL	.2200	.22308	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.2292	.37061	1.000
	500-999 TL	0-499 TL	-.3195	.12186	.093
		1000-1499 TL	.2327	.16319	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	-.0995	.22950	1.000
		2000 and above	-.5488	.37451	1.000
	1000-1499 TL	0-499 TL	-.5522(*)	.15403	.004
		500-999 TL	-.2327	.16319	1.000
		1500-1999 TL	-.3322	.24809	1.000
		2000 TL and above	-.7814	.38618	.441
	1500-1999 TL	0-499 TL	-.2200	.22308	1.000
		500-999 TL	.0995	.22950	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	.3322	.24809	1.000

		2000 TL and above	-.4493	.41854	1.000
	2000 TL and above	0-499 TL	.2292	.37061	1.000
		500-999 TL	.5488	.37451	1.000
		1000-1499 TL	.7814	.38618	.441
		1500-1999 TL	.4493	.41854	1.000

***Significant at .05 level**

The mean and standard deviations of the dimensions of girls' education with respect to average income were presented in table 4.29. Compared to the other groups, parents who have 2000 TL and above average income had higher mean score for both "the benefits of girls' education" (*M*=4.62, *SD*=.35) and for "the barriers to girls' education" (*M*=2.34, *SD*=1.35).

Table 4.29

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Average Income

Dimensions of Girls Education	Average Income	M	SD
Benefits	0-499 TL	4.36	.518
	500-999 TL	4.32	.577
	1000-1499 TL	4.36	.588
	1500-1999 TL	4.50	.563
	2000 TL and above	4.62	.356
Barriers	0-499 TL	2.11	.870
	500-999 TL	1.79	.670
	1000-1499 TL	1.56	.694
	1500-1999 TL	1.89	1.03
	2000 TL and above	2.34	1.35

4.3.7 Results Regarding Parents' Occupation

In order to determine the effect of mother's job, father's job and the interaction of mother's and father's job, a two-way MANOVA was performed. The following research question was investigated: Is there any significant mean difference between parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education with respect to the job they have? The result of the Box's M test indicated that homogeneity of variance covariance matrix assumption was not met for the analysis F (15, 32.436) = p=.021. Levene's test results are presented in Table 4.30. As can be seen, it was observed that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not met for the benefits of girls' education subscale.

Table 4.30

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Benefits	2.090	15	225	.011
Barriers	1.563	15	225	.085

MANOVA results regarding the place of residence are presented in Table 4.31. Results of MANOVA indicated that Pillai's Trace revealed a non significant effect for the mother's job (Pillai's Trace =.033, F (10, 450) =.755, p= .672, η^2=.017) and for the combination of "mother's job x father's job" (Pillai's Trace =.045, F (8, 450) = 1.295, p= .224, η^2=.023). However, the analysis indicated a significant main effect for the father's job (Pillai's Trace =.105, F (12, 450) = 2.080, p= .017, η^2=.053)

Table 4.31

MANOVA Results for the Parents' Jobs

Effect	Pillai's Trace	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	*P*	η^2
Mother's Job	.033	.755	10.000	450.000	.672	.017
Father's Job	.105	2.080	12.000	450.000	.017	.053
Mother's Job x Father's Job	.045	1.295	8.000	450.000	.244	.023

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on each dependent variable was conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA. The ANOVA results showed that father's job had significant effect on the barriers to girls' education dimension [F *(6,225)* = 3.5828, p= .002, η2 =.087].The test failed to reveal significant effect of mother's job on each of the dimensions. Similarly the interaction between mother's job and father's job did not have significant effect on each of the dimensions (See Table 4.32).

Table 4.32

Univariate F test Computed for the Two Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Parents' Jobs

	Dimensions of Girls' Education	Df	F	P	η2
Mother's Job	**Benefits**	5	.740	.595	.016
	Barriers	5	.768	.574	.017
Father's Job	**Benefits**	6	.665	.678	.017
	Barriers	6	3.582	.002*	.087
Mother's Job x Father's Job	**Benefits**	4	.989	.414	.017
	Barriers	4	1.269	.283	.022

- **Significant at p<.05**

Post hoc analysis to univariate ANOVA with Bonferonni test for the two dimensions of GEQ was conducted in order to see whether there were significant mean differences between perceived dimensions of parents with respect to father's job. According to the results, there was significant mean difference between tradesman and civil servant fathers for barriers to girls' education dimension (See Table 4. 33).

Table 4.33

The Mean Differences in Perceived Dimensions of GEQ with Respect to Mother and Father Job

Dependent Variable	(I) fjob	(J) fjob	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Benefits of Girls' Education	Unemployed	Civil servant	-.2590	.29890	1.000
		Worker	-.2258	.28620	1.000
		Farmer	-.2356	.28337	1.000
		Tradesman	-.1250	.48068	1.000
		Self Employed	-.2471	.29014	1.000
		Retired	-.3950	.32837	1.000
	Civil Servant	Unemployed	.2590	.29890	1.000
		Worker	.0332	.13120	1.000
		Farmer	.0234	.12490	1.000
		Tradesman	.1340	.40787	1.000
		Self Employed	.0119	.13960	1.000
		Retired	-.1360	.20768	1.000
	Worker	Unemployed	.2258	.28620	1.000
		Civil Servant	-.0332	.13120	1.000
		Farmer	-.0098	.09037	1.000
		Tradesman	.1008	.39866	1.000
		Self Employed	-.0213	.10979	1.000
		Retired	-.1692	.18894	1.000

	Farmer	Unemployed	.2356	.28337	1.000
		Civil servant	-.0234	.12490	1.000
		Worker	.0098	.09037	1.000
		Tradesman	.1106	.39663	1.000
		Self Employed	-.0115	.10219	1.000
		Retired	-.1594	.18462	1.000
	Tradesman	Unemployed	.1250	.48068	1.000
		Civil Servant	-.1340	.40787	1.000
		Worker	-.1008	.39866	1000
		Farmer	-.1106	.39663	1.000
		Self Employed	-.1221	.40150	1.000
		Retired	-.2700	.42994	1.000
	Self Employed	Unemployed	.2471	.29014	1.000
		Civil Servant	-.0119	.13960	1.000
		Worker	.0213	.10979	1.000
		Farmer	.0115	.10219	1.000
		Tradesman	.1221	.40150	1.000
		Retired	-.1479	.19486	1.000
	Retired	Unemployed	.3950	.32837	1.000
		Civil servant	.1360	.20768	1.000
		Worker	.1692	.18894	1.000
		Farmer	.1594	.18462	1.000
		Tradesman	.2700	.42994	1.000
		Self Employed	.1479	.19486	1.000
Barriers to Girls' Education	Unemployed	Civil servant	1.3009	.43292	.062
		Worker	1.0718	.41452	.217
		Farmer	.8534	.41042	.813
		Tradesman	-.6087	.69620	1.000
		Self Employed	1.0849	.42023	.220
		Retired	1.2000	.47560	.259
	Civil Servant	Unemployed	-1.3009	.43292	.062
		Worker	-.2291	.19002	1.000
		Farmer	-.4475	.18090	.296
		Tradesman	-1.9096(*)	.59075	.030
		Self Employed	-.2159	.20219	1.000
		Retired	-.1009	.30079	1.000
	Worker	Unemployed	-1.0718	.41452	.217
		Civil Servant	.2291	.19002	1.000
		Farmer	-.2184	.13089	1.000
		Tradesman	-1.6805	.57740	.083
		Self Employed	.0132	.15902	1.000
		Retired	.1282	.27365	1.000
	Farmer	Unemployed	-.8534	.41042	.813
		Civil Servant	.4475	.18090	.296
		Worker	.2184	.13089	1.000
		Tradesman	-1.4621	.57446	.243
		Self Employed	.2316	.14800	1.000
		Retired	.3466	.26740	1.000
	Tradesman	Unemployed	.6087	.69620	1.000
		Civil Servant	1.9096(*)	.59075	.030
		Worker	1.6805	.57740	.083
		Farmer	1.4621	.57446	.243
		Self Employed	1.6936	.58152	.083
		Retired	1.8087	.62270	.085
	Self Employed	Unemployed	-1.0849	.42023	.220
		Civil Servant	.2159	.20219	1.000

		Worker	-.0132	.15902	1.000
		Farmer	-.2316	.14800	1.000
		Tradesman	-1.6936	.58152	.083
		Retired	.1151	.28223	1.000
	Retired	Unemployed	-1.2000	.47560	.259
		Civil Servant	.1009	.30079	1.000
		Worker	-.1282	.27365	1.000
		Farmer	-.3466	.26740	1.000
		Tradesman	-1.8087	.62270	.085
		Self Employed	-.1151	.28223	1.000

**Significant at .05 level*

The means and standard deviations of father and mother jobs are presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Dimensions of Girls' Education with Respect to the Mother and Father Job

Dimensions of Girls' Education	Mother's Job	Father's Job	M	SD
Benefits of Girls' Education	Housewife	Unemployed	3.96	.115
		Civil servant	4.35	.501
		Worker	4.34	.492
		Farmer	4.35	.582
		Tradesman	4.25	.212
		Self-employed	4.38	.621
		Retired	4.52	.370
	Civil Servant	Worker	5.00	. .
		Farmer	3.90	.
	Farmer	Farmer	5.00	.
	Self Employed	Civil servant	4.80	.
		Self-employed	4.00	1.41
	Retired	Civil servant	4.50	.
Barriers to Girls' Education	Housewife	Unemployed	2.36	.276
		Civil servant	1.65	.551
		Worker	1.84	.789
		Farmer	2.07	.835
		Tradesman	3.52	.000
		Self-employed	1,84	.814
		Retired	1.71	1.11
	Civil Servant	Unemployed	4.56	.
		Civil servant	1.34	.
		Self-employed	1.65	.
	Worker	Worker	1.34	.
		Farmer	1.39	.
	Farmer	Farmer	1.00	.
	Self Employed	Civil Servant	1.30	.
		Self-employed	1.52	.491
	Retired	Civil Servant	1.17	.

4.4 Parents' Responses to the Open-ended Part of the GEQ

In addition to the Likert-scale items, the parents were asked to express their further views and comments in the open-ended part of the GEQ. Fifteen of the parents stated that they believed the importance and necessity of girls' education and they would support the girls' schooling as long as they had financial resources. Five of the parents who lived in villages expressed that in order to send their daughters to the high school they needed financial support from the government for the accommodation and transportation fees. Moreover, two parents reported that they spare money for boys' education if they cannot finance all their children's education. They said even if they wanted their daughters to attain education they felt obliged to choose between their children and they thought it was more important for boys to have a job in the future. In addition to financial matters, some of the parents stated that because of security concerns they refrain from sending their daughter to the school (N=12). They stated that as they did not trust the boarding schools and services, they did not want their daughters to go school if the school is far from their homes. Besides, three other parents expressed they would not want their daughters to attend school after primary school as the girls were not allowed to wear headscarf at school.

4.5 Summary of the Findings

In this chapter the results of the study were presented in three sections. In the first section the results obtained by principal component analysis which was conducted to investigate the dimensions of the instrument were presented. According to the results, parents perceived girls' education with respect to benefits to girls' education and barriers to girls' education. In the second section demographic information of the parents analyzed through descriptive statistics were presented. In the third section the results of paired samples *t*-test and MANOVA which was carried out to analyze the mean differences in the perceptions of parents with respect to certain background variables were presented. According to the results, parents gave more importance to benefits of girls' education. MANOVA results indicated that gender, education level of mothers and fathers and the number of children the parents had did not create sisnificant mean difference in parents' perceptions of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education. Moreover, the place of residence was found to have

significant effect on perceived dimensions of girls' education. According to the results, place of residence variable was found to have significant effect on the barriers to girls' education dimension. Similarly, the average income of parents was found to have a significant effect on their perceptions of girls' education. The results indicated that average income was significant for the barriers to girls' education dimension. According to the findings, father's job had significant effect on the barriers to girls' education dimension. However, mother's job was found to be no significant effect on each dimension of girls' education.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to identify the perceptions of the parents regarding the girls' education in Sivas and to explore whether their perceptions show significant differences with respect to certain background variables. More specifically, it was aimed to examine parents' perception of benefits of girls' education and barriers to girls' education. In this chapter, findings of the study will be summarized and conclusions drawn from those findings; implications and suggestions for practice and future research will be presented.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

This study aimed to explore which dimension of girls' education was given more importance by parents. A paired samples *t*- test was conducted to compare the perceptions of parents in two dimensions of GEQ. It was found out that parents had higher mean score for the benefits of girls' education dimension. Thus, it can be said that parents gave more importance to the benefits of girls' education even if they perceived some barriers for the girls' education. This result illustrated that there have been improvements in girls' education in recent years and parents have become more conscious about the returns of female education in general. More specifically, parents valued girls' education as they believed education would provide future benefits for girls at individual and communal level. Descriptive results indicated that, parents believed girls should be provided with equal educational opportunities as boys *(M*= 4.72, *SD*= .69) and they can be as successful as boys at school (*M*=4.75, *SD*= .68) (See Appendix B).

One of the aims of this study was to investigate whether there were significant differences in the dimensions of girls' education with respect to certain background variables of parents. MANOVA tests were conducted to investigate the effect of each variable on parents' perception in two dimensions of girls' education.

The study aimed to figure out the effect of parental education level on their perception of girls' education. The results indicated being mother or father, education level of parents had no significant effect on the dimensions of girls' education. However, results of some other studies conducted to explore the perceptions of parents regarding education of boys and girls revealed contradictory results. For example, Rankin and Aytac (2006) asserted that family resources, especially parental education are important determinants of education for both boys and girls. In the same way, Dilli (2006) stated that mothers' education level is an important determiner of children's educational attainment and opportunities. More specifically, mother's level of education impacts the quality of girls' education as revealed by the international studies. Roudi Fahimi and Moghadam (2003) asserted that girls have higher level of enrollment and attainment when mothers are educated. The result of the present study regarding the effect of parental education on their perceptions of girl's education is inconsistent with the results in the literature. It can be because of the fact that majority of the parents were elementary school graduates and the number of parents from higher level of education stands to be low. Thus, the results reflect the views of parents who graduated from elementary school. Moreover, even if parents had low level of education, and it was expected that they hold negative views of girls' education, informing activities for the parents executed as a part of girls' education campaigns in Turkey could have influenced the perceptions of parents positively. As a last notion, although not identified to be significant, as a result of inferential analysis, descriptive results indicated that illiterate mothers had higher mean scores for the benefits of girls' education than the other groups. They also had higher mean score for the barriers to girls' education compared to the other groups. Thus, it can be concluded that even if they believe the importance and necessity of girls' education, mothers with lower level of education perceived greater number of barriers for girls' education. It can be because of the fact that mothers with lower level of education came from the regions where social and economical factors hindering girls' educational attainment are most outstanding.

One of the aims of this study was to examine whether the number of children the parents had an effect on their perceptions of girls' education. Contrary to the studies in the literature, the results of the present study indicated that the number of children the parents had was found to have no significant effect on two dimensions of girls'

education. Studies displayed that economic factors and cultural division of labor, which hinder girls' education, are associated with the number of the children in the family. Lewis and Lockheed (2006) noted the presence and number of young siblings as a barrier for girls' education because of increased amount of excessive household labor assigned to girls in the household. Similarly, Dreze and Kingdon (1999) indicate that the responsibility of taking care of younger siblings affects girls' education negatively. In their study Hannuma, Kong and Zhang (2009) investigated the gender gap in education in rural northwest China. In their study, parental perceptions of abilities and appropriate roles for girls and boys; parental concerns about old-age support; and parental perceptions of different labor market outcomes for girls' and boys' education were examined. Additionally, gender disparities in investments in children, children's performance at school, and children's subsequent attainment were examined. The findings of the study illustrated that there were no noteworthy gender differences for economic investments in children. However, girls experienced lower maternal educational expectations and a greater likelihood of being called for household chores. In their research study Gönenç, Ayhan and Bakır (2002) examined the factors limiting girls' education. They found that responsibilities of girls in domestic sphere such as household duties and taking care of younger siblings were among the factors inhibiting girls' education. Therefore, the findings of previous studies are not parallel with the results of the present study. The need for girls' help in the housework stemming from high number of children in the family did not affect the perceptions of parents regarding girls' education in general. It can be because of the fact that when the number of children is high which increases the domestic responsibilities of girls in the family, girls are allowed to continue their education but they do not attend the school regularly.

Results of this study indicated that parents preferred not to send their daughters to school when they are needed at home. Parents' mean score for the item 27, "Even if my daughter is enrolled at school, she may not attend the lessons if she is needed at home" (M=2.30, SD=1.43) was higher than the overall mean score for the barriers to girls' education dimension (M=1.92, SD=.83) (See Appendix B). Although not identified to be significant, descriptive results of the present study indicated that parents who had more than four children had higher mean score for the barriers to girls' education than the other groups *(*M=2.08, SD=.78). On the other hand, parents

who had one child (*M*=4.38, *SD*=.43) and two children (*M*=4.55, *SD*=.44) had higher mean score for the benefits of girls' education compared to the other groups.

When the number of children in the family is high, family's financial resources becomes insufficient for the school expense. Under this condition, the girl's education is charged off (Ka-Der, 2003). Mehran (1997) states that poverty becomes a hindering factor when educational expenses for girls are concerned. More specifically, it is not education in general but education of girls that is not considered as a priority, so what is stated as an economic factor is also a cultural one. In order to find out the causes of gender inequality in primary education, Colclough et al, (2000) conducted case studies in Ethiopia and Guinea. The results of their study revealed that poverty and a wide variety of cultural practices had a negative impact on girls' education compared to boys. In the present study, poverty was considered as a hindering factor for girls' education by the parents. Parents expressed that they preferred to spare money for boys' education as they could not meet the educational expenses of all their children.

The study aimed to investigate whether the place of residence had a significant effect on parents' perception of girls' education. Results indicated that the place of residence had significant effect on perceived dimensions of girls' education. According to the results, place of residence variable was found to have significant effect on the barriers to girls' education dimension. However, place of residence was found to have no significant effect on the benefits of girls' education dimension Descriptive results revealed that parents who live in village (*M*=2.08, *SD*=.85) and in town (*M*=2.49, *SD*=1.07) had higher mean score for "barriers to girls' education" compared to the other groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that geographical and environmental factors hinder girls' education in rural areas. Similar results exist in the literature (Dilli, 2003; Levine, 2005). Rankin and Aytac (2006) assert that residence in urban area increases the likelihood of post primary education for girls. Thus, the level of urbanization is among the most important factors in explaining gender differences at the macro structural level.

Parents would like their daughters to attend a school in close proximity. However, especially in rural areas only primary schools exist and attending to school after primary education becomes a problem for the girls. Therefore, the distance the

students must travel to school and the remote location of rural communities restrict the retention of girls more than the boys. Because of infrastructural and cultural impediments free busing and boarding facilities provided at the primary level are not attractive enough for rural girls' families. Additionally, discontinuation of the boarding and busing facilities at the secondary level constitute one of the main obstacles in rural girls' retention (Tan, 2004). In order to find out the factors affecting female participation in education Brock and Cammish (1998) conducted a study in seven developing countries. The findings of their study showed that geographical location of the school might adversely affect girls' access more than boys. In his study Mendy (2007) investigated the political, social, economic, and structural factors that limit girls' education in Sub-Saharan Africa. The results of the interview with the parents indicated that parents were concerned about security affairs. In rural areas of Turkey, bussing is used in order to transport the children from dispersed villages to schools in more populated areas. Even so, bussing system contributed to a high drop-out rate for girls as parents do not let them share the same bus with boys and keep puberty age daughters at home (UNICEF, 2007). The results of this study were in line with the findings in the literature. The parents expressed that they refrain from sending their daughter to the school because of security concerns. They stated that as they did not trust the boarding schools and services, they did not want their daughters to go school if the school is far from their homes. Similarly, mean score for item 24 "It is not appropriate for girls to go to another place for education" was also high (M= 2.18, SD=1.39). Thus, parents would not like their daughters to leave their hometown for education. It is another indicator of parents' consideration of security.

Rankin and Aytac (2006) noted that the major barrier to gender equality in Turkish education is how patriarchal family beliefs and practices discourage the education of girls. Girls who live in household that practice sex segregation or whose fathers espouse traditional gender views are much less likely to go beyond primary school. The findings of the present study portrayed the same situation. The difference between the perception of parents who lived in village and city might be a result of traditional family structure and cultural practices. Especially, in rural areas patriarchal family structure and cultural beliefs prioritize the needs of men and boys over girls and women- even amongst women and girls themselves (UNICEF, 2007).

According to traditional gender roles, it is it is mainly men's responsibility to maintain the family. Thus, it is considered unnecessary for girls to go to school. Similarly, conservative families would not like their girls to go to school as they believe it is not appropriate for girls to share the same environment with boys. The mean score for item 30 "It is not right to send girls to school as they will be in the same environment with boys" was also high (*M*= 2.12, *SD*=1.35). Therefore, it can be said that because of their traditional beliefs and practices parents who live in rural areas perceived higher number of barriers to girls' education.

Another purpose of this research was to investigate the effects of average income of parents on their perceptions of girls' education. The average income of parents was found to have a significant effect on their perceptions of girls' education. The results indicated that average income was significant for the barriers to girls' education dimension. This finding is parallel to the literature (Dilli, 2006; Gönenç, Ayhan and Bakır, 2002). Parental socioeconomic status as measured by household income and parental education are among the determining factors of children's education (Tansel 2002; Tunalı 1996). The preference of covering family expenses instead of the cost of education influences girls' educational attainment negatively. Parents consider survival as the main priority as a result of poverty. Thus, families with low income had difficulties about affording their children's education and when they had to make a decision about this issue, they preferred to make girls to help household chores rather than going to school. Even if education is free, families must pay for uniforms and materials. Moreover, transportation, boarding schools or renting house for their children constitute extra cost for families. For many families suffering severe economic hardship the contribution from the household budget makes it difficult to support their children's education (Fazlıoğlu and Dersan, 2004; KSGM, 2008b; UNICEF, 2007). Families' low income was found to be the most outstanding factors hindering girls' education as revealed by the literature. As they experience economic hardship, for many families investment in girls' education is a waste of time and money. The present study revealed consistent results as well. Parents mean score for item 33 "I will send my daughter to school if the expenses are met by the government" was the highest (*M*= 2.82, *SD*= 1.57). In spite of the returns of girls' education, for the families with low income, economic hardship was an important barrier for girls' education in the present study. Therefore, it can be concluded that

families would not resist letting their daughters attain education if they are provided with financial means.

The study aimed to investigate whether parents' jobs had a significant effect on their perception of girls' education. Results indicated that father's job had significant effect on the barriers to girls' education dimension. However, mother's job was found to be no significant effect on each dimension of girls' education. It can be because of the fact that in Turkish families fathers' job determines the socioeconomic status of the family. According to the descriptive results 95.9% of the mothers were housewives so with those families fathers' job is a determiner of the factors affecting parents' perception of girls' education. Fathers' job affect parents' perception of girls' education for diverging reasons. First of all, average income and economic status of the family is determined by the father's job especially when the mother is housewife. On the other hand, in peasant families, family structure and resources are affected by the agricultural labor. Mehran (1994) investigated the internal and external factors leading to the phenomenon of out-of-school girls in Iran. The family's need for the economic activities of girls was found to be a hindering factor for girls' being out of school. The young girls 'assistance in house-keeping affairs, and income generating activities such as producing goods for sale in the market, agriculture, carpet viewing and gardening are crucial for families. The young girls' labour as the mother's aid and as an economic asset leaves no time for schooling (Mehran, 1994). Somuncu (2006) asserts that families tend to increase family income by making their children work at home or perform agricultural labor. In most Turkish peasant families the use of child in the household is a common feature. Children are interfered with their schooling or they have lower attainment as they often work in the fields. More specifically, the daughters of farming families have a tendency to have lower attendance and they are more frequently absent. Thus, they attain less education relative to boys (Rankin and Aytac, 2006). In the present study, %39 of fathers were farmers and %26 were workers with low income. Thus, parents' views of girls' education may have affected by the economic concerns and need for girls' help and economic activities resulting from fathers' job and peasant lifestyle.

5.2 Implications for Practice

In recent years, there have been positive improvements regarding girls' education as a result of the campaigns, programs and projects executed to increase the schooling ratio of girls. However, educational attainment of girls after primary education still constitutes a problem especially in certain areas. Even though family structure, resources and culture practices influence the education of both genders, girls are less advantaged because of patriarchal family structure and gender based division of labor in the society. Parents think that girls' education will not provide them better conditions in future. These traditional practices and patriarchal value judgment of the society inhibit the girls' education at great deal (Ka-Der, 2003). The problem of girls' education is one of the biggest barriers to social development because of the serious outcomes of girls' being out of school. This phenomenon will affect the upcoming generations as the future mothers are deprived of education (Fazlıoğlu and Dersan, 2004).

With the extension of the compulsory period of primary education from 5 to 8 years in 1997, Turkey marked improvement in relation to universal primary education. There was a general increase in enrolment rates but girls' enrolment rates remained lower than that of boys. It is more striking in the poorer, rural Eastern and Southeastern provinces (UNICEF, 2005). The present study was carried out in rural areas of Sivas, where people with lower socio-economic status resided. It was aimed to portray the situation of girls' education in those particular areas by revealing the parents' views concerning benefits of female education and barriers to girls' education. Girls' education is mainly influenced by home setting as they spend most of their time with the family members at home. Without parents' involvement and collaboration, the efforts and actions of school will be useless. For that reason, positive parental attitudes towards girls' education, collaboration and support will lead to positive results concerning girls' education. Based on the findings of the current study, it was seen that parents had positive thoughts and beliefs concerning girls' education. Overall, parents' ideas regarding benefits of girls' education were positive regardless of their social and educational background. Thus, it can be inferred that awareness raising activities of girls' education campaigns executed by MONE and NGOs had positive impacts on parents' thoughts of female education.

However, the effects of cultural value judgments and traditional practices were also marked in parents' responses. The changes and improvements in social structure require long-term commitment and planned endeavor concerning the issue in question. Unless the women's position in society is bettered, improvements in the area of girls' education will not be achieved. Thus, gender inequalities in the society should be eliminated in order to reach gender equality in education. For this aim, government policies should address programs dealing with factors negatively affecting girls' education such as gendered division of labor, gender discrimination in education system. Public education and awareness programs should be executed by addressing the specific problems of girls' education at local level. Teachers and religious leaders (imams) have a crucial role of raising the awareness in parents as they have close relationships with parents especially in villages. Therefore, teachers and religious leaders should be trained in order to inform parents about the negative consequences of girls' being out of school. Especially in conservative regions, religious leaders serve key role to change parents' negative views of female education which are deeply rooted in religious norms and values. Additionally, it is important to introduce successful women role models to both the parents and girls in order to change prejudices concerning girls' education.

As for the barriers to girls' education, economic concerns and security affairs were noteworthy in parents' responses. How a family assesses the costs and benefits of schooling mainly depends on its financial resources. The findings of the study pointed out that parents' were mostly concerned about financial difficulties while making decision about girls' education. The cost of education is a hindering factor especially for families which have lower income and greater number of children. As they needed economic activities and help families preferred to make girls work on the farms, in the household. As a solution, scholarship opportunities and parental cash incentives should be expanded so that families with lower income will have the financial means to support girls' education. The restrictions including lack of safety, transportation, deficiency in infrastructure and discriminatory attitudes should be removed at the basic education level. Moreover, boarding facilities and school buildings should be improved for the benefit of girls from remote regions. Therefore, NGOs, government and local organizations should improve strategies in order to ensure accessible and quality education for girls.

5.3. Implications for Further Research

Since this study is one of the first studies conducted about girls' education in Sivas the results of this study will lead to further researches in this field. In the present study the perceptions of parents regarding girls education were investigated. In addition to questionnaire, interviews could be conducted so that the results were supported and the findings would be validated. Families who held negative views concerning girls education could be assessed so that the underlying reasons of their views was found out. Especially, the families who do not send their daughters to school could be conducted so that the barriers of girls education could be better examined.

Moreover, girls need to be included in further resarch so that their thoughts and perceptions could be investigated as well. Likewiese, the same questionnaire could be adapted in order to investigate parental perception of boys education so that the results could be compared. Therefore, the issue of gender equality could be highlighted in a more detailed way.

Last of all, this study was limited to the parents residing in the province of Sivas. Further research could be carried out in several other provinces and metropolitans with random and large samples so that the generalizability of the study could be achieved.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

KIZ ÇOCUKLARININ EĞİTİMİNE İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLER ANKETİ

Bu anket anne babaların kız çocuklarının okutulmasına yönelik görüşlerini belirlemek amacı ile hazırlanmıştır. Anket iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Her bölümü o bölümde verilen yönergelere göre doldurunuz. Elde edilen veriler sadece araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır. İlgi ve katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim

Pınar Mercan
ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

I- GENEL BİLGİLER
Aşağıda sizinle ilgili genel bilgilere yönelik sorular yer almaktadır. Lütfen her soruyu dikkatlice okuyup cevap veriniz ya da verilen ifade ile ilgili size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Anketi dolduran: Anne ☐ Baba ☐ Başka (Belirtiniz):.....

Annenin mesleği (yazınız):_____

Babanın mesleği:_____

Annenin eğitim düzeyi:
- ☐Okuryazar değil
- ☐Okuryazar ama bir okulu bitirmedi
- ☐İlkokul mezunu (5 yıllık)
- ☐Ortaokul mezunu
- ☐Lise mezunu
- ☐Üniversite mezunu
- ☐Üniversite üstü (Yüksek lisans veya doktora)

Babanın eğitim düzeyi:
- ☐Okuryazar değil
- ☐Okuryazar ama bir okulu bitirmedi
- ☐İlkokul mezunu (5 yıllık)
- ☐Ortaokul mezunu
- ☐Lise mezunu
- ☐Üniversite mezunu
- ☐Üniversite üstü (Yüksek lisans veya doktora)

Kaç çocuğunuz var?_____

Kız çocuk sayısı:_____ **Erkek çocuk sayısı:_____**

Yaşınız:

☐ 20–29 ☐ 30–39 ☐ 40–49 ☐ 50–59 ☐ 60–69 ☐ 70 ve üstü

Yaklaşık aylık geliriniz:

☐0 – 499 TL ☐500 – 999 TL ☐ 1000 – 1499 TL
☐1500 – 1999 TL ☐2000 ve üzeri TL

Şu ana kadar hayatınızın büyük bölümünü nerede geçirdiniz?

☐ Köy ☐ Kasaba ☐ İlçe

☐ Küçük şehir (nüfusu 1 milyon altı) ☐Büyük şehir (nüfusu 1 milyon ve üstü)

Evinizde çocuklarınızın ders kitapları dışında yaklaşık olarak kaç adet kitap vardır?

☐ 1-15 ☐16-30 ☐ 31-45 ☐ 46-60 ☐ 61 ve üzeri

Evinizde bilgisayar var mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evinizde internet var mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Çocuğunuzun durumu ile ilgili bilgi almak için ne sıklıkta okula giderisiniz?

☐ Ayda 1–2 kez ☐ Dönemde 3–4 kez ☐ Dönemde 1–2 kez ☐ Hiç gitmem

Kızınızın hangi düzeye kadar okumasını istersiniz?

☐ İlköğretim okulu bitene kadar
☐ Çıraklık okulunu bitirene kadar
☐ Lise bitirene kadar
☐ Meslek lisesini bitirene kadar
☐ İki yıllık meslek yüksekokulunu bitirene kadar
☐ Üniversite bitirene kadar
☐ Bir meslek sahibi olana kadar
☐ Diğer (belirtiniz) .....

II- Aşağıda verilen ifadelere ilişkin görüşlerinizi Kesinlikle Katılıyorum(5), Katılıyorum(4), Kararsızım(3), Katılmıyorum(2) ve Kesinlikle katılmıyorum(1) şeklinde belirtebilirsiniz. Cevaplar sadece görüş yansıttığı için doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur.

Maddeler	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1. Aileler kızlarının okutulmasını desteklemelidir.	5	4	3	2	1
2. Kız çocuklarına erkek çocuklarla eşit eğitim fırsatı sunulmalıdır.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Kızlar da okulda erkekler kadar başarılı olabilirler.	5	4	3	2	1
4. Eğitim kızların ileride iyi bir ev hanımı olmasını sağlar.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Okuyan kızlar kendileri için daha uygun hayat arkadaşı bulabilir.	5	4	3	2	1

Maddeler	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
6. Okumuş kızlar kendilerini ilgilendiren konularda bağımsız olarak karar alabilirler.	5	4	3	2	1
7. Okuyan kızlar gelecekte çocuk yetiştirme konusunda daha bilinçli (bilgili) olur.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Kız çocuklarının eğitimi uzun vadede ülke ekonomisine katkı sağlar.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Okumuş kızlar ailesini gelir ve geçim bakımından destekler.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Kızların okutulması toplumsal gelişime katkı sağlar.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Kızlar okulda erkekler kadar başarılı olamaz.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Eğer hayırlı bir kısmeti çıkarsa, kızların okuldan ayrılıp evlenmesi uygundur.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Bizim örf ve adetlerimize göre kızların okuması uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Öğretmenleri kadın olmadığı takdirde kızları okula göndermek uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
15. Kızların okula gidip bir iş sahibi olması önem taşımaz çünkü ailenin geçiminden birinci derecede erkekler sorumludur.	5	4	3	2	1
16. Kız çocukları evlenip evden ayrılacakları için onları okula göndermek gereksizdir.	5	4	3	2	1
17. Belirli bir yaşın üstündeki kız çocuklarının okula gitmesi ahlaki bakımdan doğru değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
18. Kızlar için evde ev işlerini öğrenmek okula gitmekten daha önemlidir.	5	4	3	2	1
19. Evlendikleri zaman kocaları onlara bakacağı için kız çocuklarının okumasına gerek yoktur.	5	4	3	2	1

Maddeler	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
20. Erkek çocuklarının okumasına para ayırmak daha önemlidir.	5	4	3	2	1
21. Kızlar için evde çocuk bakımını öğrenmek okula gitmekten daha önemlidir.	5	4	3	2	1
22. Kızların okutulması dinimizce uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
23. Büyüyüp ergenlik çağına girdiğinde kızımın okula gitmesini istemem.	5	4	3	2	1
24. Kız çocuklarının okumak için başka bir yere gitmesi uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
25. Kızlar okutulursa aileye karşı asi olurlar.	5	4	3	2	1
26. Ders programlarında kızlara göre iş/beceri eğitimleri artarsa kızımı daha uzun süre okuturum.	5	4	3	2	1
27. Kızım okula kayıt olsa da, evde ona ihtiyaç olduğu zaman okula gitmeyebilir.	5	4	3	2	1
28. Okulda yanlış arkadaşlıklar kurabilecekleri için kız çocuklarını okutmak uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
29. Okulda sigara, uyuşturucu gibi zararlı alışkanlıklar edinebilecekleri için kız çocuklarını okula göndermek sakıncalıdır.	5	4	3	2	1
30. Okuyan kızlar okulda erkeklerle aynı ortamda olacağı için kızları okutmak doğru değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Okuyan kızlar sonradan ailelerini ve yasadıkları koşulları beğenmeyeceği için kızları okutmak uygun değildir.	5	4	3	2	1
32. Okul evimizden uzaktaysa kızımın okula gitmesini istemem.	5	4	3	2	1
33. Okul masrafları devlet tarafından karşılanırsa kızımı okuturum.	5	4	3	2	1

Bu konuda başka belirtmek istedikleriniz (yazınız) …….....

Appendix B

Descriptive Statistics

	N	*M*	*SD*
item1	241	4.72	.75
item2	241	4.72	.69
item3	241	4.75	.68
item4	241	3.76	1.42
item5	241	4.08	1.21
item6	241	4.15	1.18
item7	241	4.42	.91
item8	241	4.31	.90
item9	241	4.35	.91
item10	241	4.34	1.09
item11	241	1.75	1.35
item12	241	1.64	1.11
item13	241	1.77	1.27
item14	241	1.53	1.04
item15	241	2.02	1.36
item16	241	1.62	1.13
item17	241	1.84	1.25
item18	241	1.72	1.15
item19	241	1.59	1.07
item20	241	1.90	1.27
item21	241	1.54	.99
item22	241	1.43	.95
item23	241	1.73	1.15
item24	241	2.18	1.39
item25	241	2.06	1.33
item26	241	3.21	1.49
item27	241	2.30	1.43
item28	241	1.95	1.26
item29	241	2.12	1.35
item30	241	1.90	1.20
item31	241	1.82	1.20
item32	241	1.76	1.16
item33	241	2.82	1.57