DETERMINANTS OF TRANSITION RATE TO SECONDARY EDUCATION AMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL GIRLS IN KENYA: A CASE OF KEIYO DISTRICT

 \mathbf{BY}

KIMITEI J. WINBRODER

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS OF EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND POLICY STUDIES

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION MOI UNIVERSITY

SEPTEMBER 2010

DECLARATION

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree award in this or any other university.

KIMITEI WINBRODER EDU/PGA/1006/07	Date
APPROVAL BY THE SUPERVISORS This research thesis has been submitted	with our approval as the University
Supervisors.	
Dr. Boit J. M.	
Lecturer	 Date
Dr. Boit J. M. Lecturer Department of Educational Management and Policy Studies	Date

Mr. Agui D. K

Date

Lecturer

Department of Educational

Management and Policy Studies

Moi University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the determinants of educational transition rates to secondary school education, among primary school girls in Keiyo District for the year 2004-2008. Specifically, the study sought to: determine the percentage of girls who get access to secondary after primary education, assess social factors that determine transition rate of girls to secondary education, assess economic determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls, identify cultural factors that determine transition rate to secondary education of girls and determine other school related determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls in Kenya: A case of Keiyo District.

The study employed a descriptive survey design. The study was guided by a conceptual framework modified from Sithol (1995)'s gender ideology and welfare concept. Data of this study were collected from a total population of 6421 which comprised primary school head teachers, teachers, PTA members and pupils. One Division was selected through Cluster sampling. Stratified and proportionate sampling techniques were used to select a sample of seven schools out of the population of twenty three primary schools in the Division. The seven head teachers and 264 pupils were purposively included in this study whereas a sample of 58 teachers and PTA members were selected using simple random sampling techniques. In total 329 respondents participated in this study. The research instruments used in collecting data were questionnaires, focus group discussion and document analysis. Collected data was analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques like percentages, frequency tables and means.

The research findings revealed that social, cultural, economic and school related factors are responsible for low transition rate of girls. These factors include: lack of encouragement/care from parents, lack of role models, cultural beliefs and customs, early pregnancies/marriages, gender multiple roles, poverty, gender inequalities in allocation of educational resources by parents in cases of limited resources, long distance walked from home to school, sexual harassment and lack of guidance and counseling in schools. The study concluded that girls are not given equal chances to access secondary education and this is as a result of social, cultural, economic and school related determinants. Arising from these conclusions, the study recommended community mobilization and campaigns to sensitize them against gender inequality in the provision of secondary education. This study further recommends implementation of policies and strategies to reduce poverty levels so that parents who cannot pay school fees can do so. In addition the government should provide full free secondary education and establish bursary schemes for the disadvantaged groups. Lastly, there is need to intensify and strengthen guidance and counseling in schools, use of role models to motivate the girl-child in education. Equally important is the establishment of boarding schools in ASALs region and enforcement of rules and regulations to curb sexual harassment.

It is expected that the findings of this study will provide educational stakeholders, planners and policy makers with a better understanding of the nature, determinants of transition rate and assist in the on-going search for equity and efficiency in education. They will also provide a base for further research on transition rates to other educational levels.

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents Mr. & Mrs. Kimitei Tanui and above all, to God be all the Glory and Honour; this is His doing (Psalms 139:14).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	. vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	ix
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	
CHAPTER ONE	
1.0 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	
1.1 Background of the Study	
1.2 Statement of the Problem	
1.3 The Purpose of the Study	
1.4 Objectives of the Study	
1.5 Research Questions	
1.6 Significance of the Study	
1.7 Assumptions of the Study	
1.8 The Scope of the Study	
1.9 Limitations of the Study	
•	
1.10 Conceptual Framework	
1.11 Operational Definition of Terms and Formulae	
CHAPTER TWO	
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction	
2.2 Importance of Education to Economic Growth and Development	
2.3 Contribution of Women to Economic Growth and Development	
2.4 Gender Bias in Education	
2.5 Transition of Girls	
2.6 Determinants of Transition Rate among Girls	
2.6.1 Social Determinants	
2.6.1.1 Parental Attitudes	
2.6.1.2 Parental Level of Education	. 31
2.6.1.3 Lack of Positive Role Models	
2.6.1.4 HIV/AIDS	
2.6.2 Cultural Determinants	
2.6.2.1 Girls' and Women's Multiple Gender Roles	. 33
2.6.2.2 Pre-marital Pregnancies and Early Marriage	. 33
2.6.2.3 Customs and Beliefs	. 34
2.6.3 Economic Determinants	. 35
2.6.3.1 Poverty, Direct and Indirect Cost of Education.	. 35
2.6.3.2 Inadequate School Places	
2.6.4 School Related Determinants	
2.6.4.1 Gender Insensitive School Environment	. 38
2.6.4.2 School Pedagogical Factors	
2.7 Summary	
CHAPTER THREE	
3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
3.1 Introduction	

	3.2 Study Area	. 43
	3.3 Research Design	. 42
	3.4 Target Population	. 44
	3.5 The Sample and Sampling Procedures	. 44
	3.6 Data Collection Instruments	
	3.6.1 Questionnaire	. 46
	3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion	
	3.7 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments	
	3.7.1 Validity	
	3.7.2 Reliability	
	3.8 Data Collection Procedures	
	3.10 Ethical Issues in Data Collection	
	3.11 Data Analysis Techniques	
C	HAPTER FOUR	
	4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, DISCUSSION AND	
	INTERPRETATION	.51
	4.1 Introduction	
	4.2 Analysis of Questionnaires	
	4.2.1 Background Information	
	4.2.2 Social Determinant of Transition Rate for Girls	
	4.2.3 Cultural Determinants	
	4.2.4.1 Lack of School Fees	
	4.2.4.2 Inadequate Secondary school Places	
	4.2.4.3 Higher Opportunity Cost of Sending Girls to School	
	4.2.4.4 Poor Parents Invest Their Limited Resources in Boys than in Girls	
	4.2.5 School Related Determinants	
	4.2.5.1 School Facilities	
	4.2.5.2 Teachers Attention	
	4.2.5.3 Distance Walked from Home to School	
	4.2.5.4 School Curriculum	
	4.2.5.5 Guidance and Counselling	
	4.2.5.6 Sexual Harassment	
	4.2.5.7 Girls Performance Compared to Boys	
	4.2.6 Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys	
	4.3 Results and Discussion of Qualitative Data	
	4.3.1 Level of Girls Transition Rate	
	4.3.2 Social Determinants	
	4.3.2.1 Lack of Parental Encouragement and Care	
	4.3.2.2 Lack of Role Models	
	4.3.2.3 Social Life.	
	4.3.3 Cultural Determinants	
	4.3.3.1 Cultural beliefs and customs.	
	4.3.3.2 Gender Multiple Roles	
	4.3.3.3 Early Marriages and Pregnancies	
	4.3.4 Economic Determinants	
	4.3.4.1 Poverty	
	4.3.4.2 The Opportunity Cost of Sending Girls to School	
	4.3.5 School Related Determinants	
	4.3.5.1 Guidance and Counseling	

4.3.5.2 Distance Walked From Home to School	
4.3.5.3 Sexual Harassment	80
4.4 Data from Document Analysis	80
CHAPTER FIVE	
5.0SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS	83
5.1 Introduction	83
5.2 Summary of findings	83
5.3 Conclusion	
5.4 Recommendations	89
5.5 Suggestions for Further Research	90
BIBLIOGRAPHY	
APPENDICES	97
APPENDIX I: LETTER TO THE SCHOOL	97
APPENDIX II: HEADTEACHERS, TEACHERS/PTA MEMBERS	
QUESTIONNAIRE	98
APPENDIX III: PUPILS QUESTIONNAIRE	100
APPENDIX IV: TRANSITION RATE FORMULA	
APPENDIX V: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER	103
APPENDIX VI: RESEARCH PERMIT FROM MOHEST	104
APPENDIX VII. KEIYO DISTRICT- ADMINISTRATIVE ROLINDARIES	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Primary to secondary school transition rate by sex in Keiyo District 2002-	-
2008	8
Table 2: Primary school completion rate by sex 1990 – 2001	26
Table 3: Kenyan Transition from Primary To Secondary By Sex 1991-2001	27
Table 4: Sample Population	46
Table 5: Background information of head teachers, teacher and PTA members	52
Table 6: Background information of pupils	53
Table 7: Social Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)	55
Table 8: Social Determinants (Pupils)	55
Table 9: Cultural Determinants (H/T, T &PTA)	58
Table 10: Cultural Determinants (Pupils)	58
Table 11: Economic Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)	62
Table12: Economic Determinants (Pupils)	62
Table 13: School Related Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)	66
Table14: School Related Determinants (Pupils)	67
Table 15: Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys (H/T, T &PTA)	71
Table16: Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys (Pupils)	72
Table 17: Primary to secondary education transition rate by sex from schools under	r
study 2004-2008	81

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual and Analytical Framework	13
Figure 2: Trends in Transition Rate from primary to Secondary Education for Boys	S
and Girls in Keiyo District 2004-2008	82

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- AIDS Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
- ASALs Arid And Semi Arid Lands
- **DEO** District Education Office
- CDF Constituency Development Fund
- **CBO** Community Based Organization
- **EFA** Education For All
- **FGM** Female Genital Mutilation
- **FPE** Free Primary Education
- GER Girl Enrolment Rate
- **G&C** Guidance and Counselling
- GNP Gross National Product
- HIV Human Immunodeficiency Virus
- **H/T,T&PTA** Head teachers, teachers and PTA members
- KCPE Kenya Certificate of Primary School
- **KESSP** Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
- **KNPB** Kenya National Planning Body
- MDGs Millennium Development Goals
- **MOEST** Ministry of Education Science and Technology
- MOE Ministry Of Education
- **NER** Net Enrolment Ratio
- NGO Non Governmental Organization
- PTA Parents Teachers Association
- STIs Sexual Transmitted Infections

- SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Science
- UN United Nations
- UNESCO United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
- UNICEF United Nations International Children's Education Fund
- **UPE** Universal Primary Education

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to acknowledge with sincere thanks the close supervision of Dr. Boit and Mr. Agui, whom I am greatly indebted for the incisive assistance and support offered towards the production of this document.

I owe deep gratitude to Moi University for granting me a chance to pursue a Masters program and Ministry of Education for granting me permission to undertake the study without which this would have remained a pipe dream. Great appreciation to the headteachers, teachers, PTA members and pupils from the seven primary schools in Keiyo District from which I conducted my study. Your cooperation was noted with honour and may God bless you all.

I also recognize the contribution of my fellow colleague students at Moi University:-Paul, Momanyi, Roder and Simeon, whose generosity support, advice and constructive criticism of my various pursuit encouraged me and gave me strength to go through my studies. To my beloved sister Rachael, I say thanks a lot, you have been an encouragement and support throughout my studies.

Lastly, a vote of thanks goes to you, who in one way or another participated, encouraged and contributed towards this work. May God's abundant blessings be upon you all.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, justification and significance of the study, assumptions, the scope and limitations of the study and finally conceptual framework.

1.1 Background of the Study

Since the attainment of political independence in 1963, the government of Kenya has placed emphasis on the role of education in socio- economic and political development. Education has a critical role to play in addressing issues of gender equality and equity in a country. These issues affect individuals, families, communities and society as a whole. The overall goal of the Ministry of Education in Kenya (MOE) is to provide equal access to education for both boys and girls irrespective of their socio-economic status. This is in pursuant to the government's commitment to achieving Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015.

Similarly the Kenyan Government has been formulating policies geared towards social equality and non-discrimination. In the Education sector, considerable efforts have been made to ensure that regional special needs and gender disparities are addressed. The Government of Kenya is also a signatory to major International Conventions and agreements that address human rights and gender equality, these include, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948), Convention of the Elimination of all Discrimination Against Women [CEDAW] (1979), Convention on the Right of the Child [CRC] (1989), Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995), Jomtien World Conference (1990), Dakar Framework of Action on EFA

(2000), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Goals of the African Union. These efforts are aimed at the realization of the Millennium Development Goals and Education For All.

In the Dakar Framework of Action, goal two, four and six (UNESCO, 2003) are explicit in their gender concern, which are; Ensuring 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. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults and eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2015, focusing on quality and achievement. In a clearly complementary way, two of the MDGs set out clear targets for education and gender. These are:- To achieve UPE by ensuring that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary school and to promote gender equality and empower women by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education by 2015.

One of the FAWE objectives in the organizational strategic plan is to transform schools into open door organizations that work with communities in finding solutions to management of girls education and making sure girls stay in school and complete their education (FAWE, 2004). This resulted into considerable expansion and access through opening of more schools. This expansion however, has not been without major challenges, one of which is equity. Although the Kenyan government is committed to equitable provision of education along gender lines, there seem to be

factors that hinder advancement of the girl-child education making attempts by the government futile. Kenya like other countries world over has embraced the Millennium Development Goals, which are vital for development values in the monitoring of the progress of National Socio-economic conditions and also monitoring the UN and the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) mandates.

National education system has been characterized with gender disparities at the national and regional levels in favor of males. The widest gender gaps exist at the highest level of education. Many resent research studies indicate that more girls have enrolled at all levels of education, for instance in the year 2001/2002 female enrolment at primary school level nationally was 49.3 per cent of the whole population, 47.2 per cent at secondary level and 32.2 per cent at tertiary colleges. These findings show that transition rate decreases at each higher level. Eshiwani (1985) found that girls were more represented in central and Nairobi provinces at primary school levels. However there was a low enrolment of girls especially in semi arid and arid areas and poor agricultural regions, regions predominantly pastoralist having strong cultural and religious norms and traditions that depress females for further enrolment in higher education. Keiyo District partly falls under this category. World Bank reports of 1980, 1988, 1990, and 1991, illustrate that enrolment ratio of boys was higher than that of girls especially at higher levels of education. They observed that the gender gap has been seen to widen as one goes up the academic ladder.

There is adequate evidence that educating women is beneficial at the national, community, family and individual levels. With even a basic education, individual women effectively engage in economic activities and thus contribute to greater national productivity. At family levels educated women have reduced fertility rate, brought up healthier, better-educated children and families and reduced infant and maternal mortality rate (FAWE, 2004).

Strategies being pursued to address gender inequalities in the education sector include, provision of school boarding facilities in ASAL areas, affirmative action in admission into public Universities, bursary allocations, Community sensitization and mobilization, continuous curriculum review, assessment and improvement of pedagogy to address gender responsiveness and the formulation of policy guidelines such as re-admission of school age girls who get pregnant while in school. All these strategies aim at reducing the existing gender disparities in access, retention, transition and achievement in education and training (GoK, 2007). Summer (1994) concluded that Investing in the girl education may well be the highest return on investment available in the developing world. Attainment of gender equity in education is therefore a core development issue and goal in its own right towards the accomplishment of the third millennium development goal, promoting gender equity and empowering women.

UNICEF (1992) noted that although the education system aims at removing social injustice and disparities between sexes, regions, social and economic groups, there are gender disparities in the formal education system which indicate that female are disadvantaged and their education completion rates are lower than that of boys. Factors such as parental attitudes towards girl-education, the need for girls to provide

domestic assistance, dropouts from school due to pregnancies and differential performance between boys and girls discourages girls from continuing with education and the preference for investment in education for male children which relates to the concept of partrilineal descent system, (Abagi, 1993). According to these systems, inheritance passes through the male line. Boys retain responsibility for their parents while girls are incorporated in husband's lineages.

GoK (2005b) pointed out that, secondary sub-sector continues to face challenges, particularly the low participation rate, unsatisfactory levels of transition from primary to secondary as well as serious gender and regional disparities. Research studies on gender and education has focused on unearthing the underlying causes of gender disparities and the factors that hinder attempts to reduce and eventually eliminate disparities. Studies revealed that key factors include social, cultural and religious beliefs, attitudes and practices, poverty, child labor, poor learning environments, lack of role models, HIV/Aids, curriculum, pedagogy and learners attitudes just to mention a few. There have been efforts by the Government to increase transition rates among girls. For instance, Joint Admissions Board lowered the admission points for girls by 2 points. However, this has not borne much fruits since evidence shows that the proportion of women is as low as 33% in several public universities (CHE, 2005). A study done by Boit (1998) investigating on who gains access to higher education in Kenya, found out that female students are under-represented in public universities and polytechnics. It should be noted that selection is reinforced at each entry level to secondary and university. Hence there is need to address issues of inequality right from lower levels for the country to be able to address imbalances at secondary and higher education where women are disproportionately represented. In order for the government to realize the objective of providing equal educational opportunities along gender lines; factors that hinder girls advancement in education must be established and efforts made to minimize them and if possible eliminate them. The present study sought to establish the factors that lead to inequality in transition rate from primary to secondary education for both boys and girls in Keiyo district.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

International reports for example the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2003), indicates that at the national level, Kenya has virtually attained gender parity in enrolment at both primary and secondary education levels. However, close scrutiny reveals that serious gender disparities in enrolment exist between regions in favour of males with regard to access, retention, completion, performance and transition. Despite the introduction of FPE and other interventions, gender disparities are observed at all levels of education with a serious impact being experienced in ASAL regions, many rural areas, urban informal settlements and other low potential areas (GoK, 2007). According to GoK (2005b), equal access of girls and boys to primary and secondary education has been identified by International Community as a key measure to progress towards gender equality.

According to the MOE report (2001) Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for primary school level was satisfactory at 91% (near Universalization) with a male to female ratio of 51:49. To the contrary, at secondary level, the GER was at 27% with a male to female ratio of 53:47. It is therefore at the secondary school level where gender inequalities become pronounced mainly due to two basic reasons. First, completion rate for girls are lower at 77% compared to that of boys which stands at 81% and second, girls' performance is lower than that of boys (MOEST 2003). Furthermore studies have

shown that by the time a cohort enters form one, approximately three quarters of girls who entered class one has been eliminated from the formal education system compared to only two third of the boys (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). Additionally Sessional Paper no. 1 of 2005 notes that there are low participation rates in secondary sub-sector as a result of poor transition from primary to secondary. Education Production Function (EPF), attempts to relate input and output in education sector. Education is viewed as an investment, which utilizes inputs (resources from individuals and society) and is expected to yield output (intellectuals). If girls' education therefore uses resources and cannot complete their education and contribute positively to the society, education system is considered inefficient because it wastes resources. Insider encounter at the Keiyo District showed that transition rate among girls from primary to secondary particularly along the Keiyo Valley is very low. Although several efforts have been made, which include bursaries schemes to support girls from poor background, establishment of single sex secondary schools for girls, involvement of NGOs among others, low transition still persists.

Many research findings give reasons such as early marriage, adolescent pregnancy and societal perception of the girl child education among others. However some of these conclusions are not based on first hand information. The task of this study was therefore to establish and document the nature and determinants of transition rate among girls in Keiyo District. Statistics from the District Education office showed that transition rate for girls from primary to secondary for the period 2002-2008 had been far below 50%. The table below shows the transition rate between 2002-2008 by sex, and confirms the disproportionate transition rates between boys and girls in secondary schools in Keiyo.

Table 1: Primary to secondary school transition rate by sex in Keiyo District 2002-2008

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Boys	50.33%	53.10%	52.20%	50.12%	52.52%	48.19%	49.38%
Girls	42.91%	38.23%	33.54%	47.03%	44.09%	31.59%	41.92%

Source: DEO's Office, Keiyo District

It is instructive to note that, the numbers of girls who join secondary education are less than that of boys. The important question to ask therefore is, why these transition rates, what are the factors which contribute to these low transition rates?

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the determinants of educational transition rate from primary to secondary education among girls in Keiyo District for the period 2004-2008.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following specific objectives;

- To determine the percentage of girls who gain access to secondary school education in Keiyo District.
- To assess social factors that affect transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District.
- iii) To determine economic determinants of transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District.
- iv) To identify cultural determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls in Keiyo District.

v) To determine school related determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls in Keiyo District.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the study sought to answer the following questions:

- i) What percent transition rate of girls gain access to secondary education in Keiyo District?
- ii) What social factors determine transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District?
- iii) What are the cultural determinants of transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District?
- iv) What economic factors determine transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District?
- v) What school related factors determine transition rate of girls to secondary education in Keiyo District?

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is a fact that dropout among girls is a problem in most developing countries, Kenya included. Low educational transition rates among girls are evident by the low representation at the secondary education. Low transition rate among girls signifies wastages in education, because it results into loss to the individuals, parents, community, government and other bodies who invest their resources in education. The significance of this study therefore lies in the fact that the study would provide educational stakeholders, planners, policy makers and administrators\practitioners with a better understanding of the nature and determinants of transition rate and assist

in the on going search for equity and efficiency in education, providing a base for further research on transition rates to other educational levels. Furthermore the findings of this study would be a useful source of data and reference material to planners and practitioners in the District and scholars who may be interested in learning more about the District.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made: That both sexes (boys and girls) were given equal chances to access education. The respondents were to cooperate and be honest in answering questions with regard to the determinants of transition rate among primary school girls. The respondents were aware of the determinants of transition rate among primary school girls. And that, the School administration kept up to date and accurate data on transition rate from primary to secondary by sex.

1.8 The Scope of the Study

This study was carried out in Keiyo District, Rift valley province of Kenya. The district had five divisions, these are: Kamaring, Tambach, Metkei, Chepkorio and Soy Divisions. Tambach Division was sampled for the study to be carried out and all the schools in the division were public-rural schools. Thirty percent of the primary schools were chosen from the Division and the statistics at the District and Division educational offices were used. The focus was specifically to investigate the determinants of educational transition rate among girls. The study was carried out between October 2008 and February 2009.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study was carried out in Keiyo District and it involved 264 pupils from class eight and 52 head teachers, teachers and PTA members. Their responses were generalized and conclusions made. However the study was faced with the following limitations; The sample was limited to Kalenjin community and rural set-up, which would affect generalization due to geographical location, cultural differences, economic endowment, and general awareness of the people. And that, there may be other factors that affect transition rate of girls' for instance individual capabilities, parental level of education and occupation, family size and nature of the family (polygamous/monogamous) which were not the concern of this study.

1.10 Conceptual Framework

The gender ideology and the welfare concept as advanced by Sithol (1995) helped in understanding the current position of the girl-child. Gender role traditionally are conditioned by social and cultural expectations, which result in discrimination and injustices when they are reflected in differential access to decision-making, power and provision of education. Assumptions and values about men and women's role and behavior condition society's attitude towards men and women as well as relation between them. Sithol's gender ideology is reinforced by the concept of colonial welfarism, enables the current study to look critically at the changing gender roles and relation among pupils in education.

Gender contrasts in the family relations were rooted in the traditional setup where a man occupied a privileged position of power and authority as a husband, while women remained underprivileged almost oppressed, which emphasized the importance of family needs (men) over the individual needs of women as a category.

In policy implementation, the welfare of the principal wage earner (men) was often given prominence, forcing women to choose their reproductive role over economic mobility. In essence, it supports the system of patriarchy and men's protection of their privileges while compounding women's disadvantages within the gender contract. From these ideas, misconceived gender relations and roles were enshrined in practices which hither to pose serious barrier to women's advancement in economic and social

fields by way of gender bias in the provision of education.

Access to secondary education is primarily a parental decision: However this decision is strongly influenced by factors such as school quality, school availability, cultural and societal attitudes and the actual opportunity cost of sending a girl to secondary school (Juma, 1994). These factors are in turn affected by state of economy and educational policy. The state policy governs areas like the level of school fees, availability of schools, teachers' recruitment and training practices and the attention given to the relevance and appropriateness of curriculum.

The study adopted the following conceptual framework whereby transition rate(dependent variable) was taken to be a function of social, cultural, economic and school related factors(independent variables). That is,

 $T = F(S, C, E, X, \dots)$, where,

S – Social determinants

C – Cultural determinants

E – Economic determinants

X – School related determinants

T- Transition rate

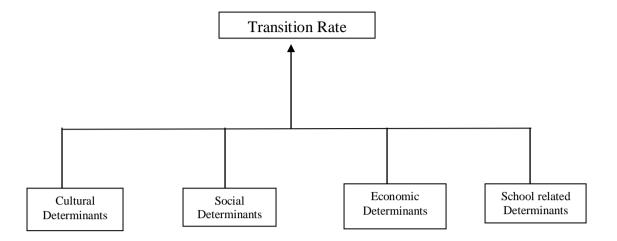


Figure 1: Conceptual and Analytic Framework

Source: Adopted and modified from Ayiga (1997)

- Cultural determinants: these include negative parental attitude, lack of positive role models, religion and the effects of HIV/AIDS.
- 2. Social determinants: these consist of girls multiple gender role, pre-marital pregnancies, early marriages, customs and beliefs e.g. FGM
- Economic determinants: these consist of poverty, inadequate secondary school places, high opportunity cost of sending girls to school and gender bias in case of limited resources.
- 4. School related determinants: these include school facilities, teachers attention, girls performance, distance walked from home to school, biased curriculum, poor teaching and learning methods, lack of guidance and counseling and sexual harassment.

1.11 Operational Definition of Terms and Formulae

- **Access** To open up opportunity to do something for instance opening up educational opportunity for girls to learn.
- **Affirmative Action** Action taken on a temporary basis in favour of disadvantaged group so as to enhance equity.
- **Attitude** Reflection of core values or beliefs and change of attitude results from true reevaluation of ones basic values. In this study attitude refers to feelings of parents and society towards education of girls.
- **Cohort** A group of students with the same characteristics traced from their year of entry/enrolment through the subsequent year to the final year of study.
- **Gender -** All socially given or constructed attributes, roles and attitudes connected to being a male or a female in a given society. It is related to how we are perceived and expect to think and act as women or men.
- **Gender Parity** This is a quantitative term and refers to equal enrolment rate of both boys and girls. It is a numerical concept referring to equal number of girls and boys relative to their respective numbers in the population.
- **Opportunity cost -** The foregone benefits. In this study opportunity cost are earnings and other benefits foregone when girl-child attend secondary education.
- **Participation** A general term used to refer to active involvement in enrolment, retention progression, performance and transition.
- **Transition rate -** The proportion of pupils who progress from the final grade of one level to the first grade of the next level. In this study transition rate is the proportion of girls who progress from primary school (Std 8) to the first grade in secondary education (Form 1), expressed as a percentage of those

who enrolled in the final grade (Std 8 in primary education). This indicates the accessibility of upward movement in the education hierarchy.

Transition rate formula:

$$\boldsymbol{TR} = \, \frac{N_{t\,+1}^{k+1} - R}{t\,+2}^{k+1}$$

$$\mathbf{N}_{t}^{k}$$

 \mathbf{N}_{t}^{k} - The total enrolment in the previous grade, previous year (Primary)

 N_{t+1}^{k+1} -Total enrolment in the subsequent grade in the subsequent year (Form 1)

k+1 **R** t +2-Repeaters in the subsequent grade in the subsequent year (Form 1)

T R- Transition Rate.

The next chapter review the literature, in particular the importance of Education to Economic Growth and Development, Contribution of Women to Economic Growth and Development, Gender Bias in Education, Educational Transition of Girls and Determinants of Transition Rate among Girls.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with a review of information from research studies, journals, newspapers, seminar papers, conferences reports and books on past studies on the role of education in development and particularly the role of girls and women education in development. In addition, gender bias in education, transition of girls in education and its determinants both globally and in Kenya are examined. The strengths and weaknesses of the past studies are highlighted. Therefore, the position of this study was to consolidate in so far as it links and at the same time deviates from these past studies.

2.2 Importance of Education to Economic Growth and Development

Education is clearly an important tool for all aspects of economic and social development, it is through education that people acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for the countries economic growth and development.

Education contributes to aggregate economic growth by: creating more productive labour force and endowing it with increased knowledge and skills; providing widespread employment and income-earning opportunities for teachers, school and construction workers, textbook and paper printers, school uniform manufacturers and related workers; creating a class of educated leaders to fill vacancies left by departing expatriates or otherwise vacant positions in governmental services, public corporations, private businesses and professions; Providing the kind of training and

education that would promote literacy and basic skills while encouraging "modern" attitudes on the part of diverse segments of the population, and providing essential skilled manpower for both the industrialized and informal sector of the economy, provides the means of developing the knowledge, skills and productive capabilities of the labour force and acts as a catalyst in encouraging modern attitudes and aspiration (Psacharapoulos and Woodhall, 1985). In essence education is the roadmap to a country's economic growth and development as research has shown that education is related to income, health and nutrition, productivity, community development, population control, equality, nationalism and culture.

In the 1989-93 development plan the Kenyan government declared that Education is one of the most important influence on the quality of life. Government has therefore been committed to provision of equal opportunities for all through the provision of free primary and secondary education and production of skilled and high level manpower to meet the growing and changing demands of the education. Additionally education contributes to development by providing and developing attitudes necessary for production through the change in attitude towards work. Traditional way of laxity to modern way of being active rather action oriented, this increases occupational mobility with closely prescribed work conditions. Education and skilled manpower too is a necessary condition of sustaining economic growth and development. This is the reason behind the ninth national development plan of Kenya (2002-2008) which recognizes that education is a fundamental strategy for human resource development which in turn mobilizes and manages the other resources for the country to achieve economic growth and development.

According to Ali, (2000), education is perceived as a vehicle not only of promoting socio-political consciousness, but also of providing the quality and quantity of skilled manpower required for economic development based on social demands

2.3 Contribution of Women to Economic Growth and Development

Research has revealed that women play a crucial role in economic development of any country. Eshiwani, back in 1985 argued, that women contribution on a global basis range from 10% to 50% of full household income, cash income, income in kind and the value of labour devoted to unpaid activities carried on by and or its members. His view is supported by Chege and Sifuna, (2006) who opined that women are in charge of dispensing family income, hold relatively greater responsibility in family economies, playing significant role in household level decision making particularly over basic and subsistence resource utilization. Women engage in more total productive time than men, although the amount of time spent in paid activities is less for women. They spend a large amount of time in home production relative to men (Otunga, 1997).

It is true and inevitable that in today's world, no nation can afford to ignore or to undermine the importance of active participation of the female population in all aspects of development. It has been observed that in today's historical epoch of society, the women question has become indisputably an important issue (GoK 2007). Educating women has been shown to be a critical ingredient in breaking the vicious "multigenerational" cycle of poor children health, lower educational performance, low income, high fertility and poor nutrition. Educated women too, lowers infant mortality rate and delays fertility because of the time spent in acquisition of education. This result in healthier children, with greater human capital as parents. All

this translates to reduced fertility rate because educated mothers desire small family size. Furthermore they are accessed to and make greater use of contraceptives than their uneducated counterparts. Statistics show that in Africa 70% of the food is grown by women, in Asia the figure is 50-60% and in Latin America 30%. In Kenya 60% of the rural households are headed by women who do most of the farm work (World Bank, 1990). Education of girls and women has been known to be closely linked to a wide variety of demographic, social, cultural and economic issues that can have far reaching effect on population growth, health, nutrition, fertility, infant mortality not to mention widening possibilities for increasing productivity and earnings. Equally important is the fact that educated mothers tend to value and encourage the schooling of their children, which can produce long-term multiplier effect on future demand for education, level of participation and educational achievement.

By improving educational opportunities for girls and women, world education helps women develop skills that allow them to make decisions and influence community changes in key areas. In turn these programs have a positive impact on some of the most profound issues on times, population growth, HIV/AIDS, peace, security and widening the gap between the rich and the poor, as girls learn how to read and write and do basic mathematics. They learn about basic nutrition, reproductive health, the consequence of early marriage, early pregnancy, unsafe sex and STIs. The level of female participation in education in a country appears to be intricately linked to abroad range of developmental factors. For instance, countries which give special attention to universalization of primary education for girls are often those that have a relatively higher Gross National Product (GNP) per capital as in the case of Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa and Namibia. It has been observed that Sub-

Saharan Africa countries which emphasize female education are mostly the ones that have been able to maintain economic growth in 1980s when GNP per capital actually declined in most parts of Sub-Saharan Africa(Odaga and Henveld, 1995). From a more macro perspective, increasing female education has been shown to have a greater effect on overall labour supply by increasing the amount of time that women work. By contrast, the quantity of work men wish to do seem not to be influenced by their own educational level (Schultz, 2002). Accordingly, strategies to increase women's education relative to that of men will tend to increase overall labour force participation and positive effect both on tax and on economic growth. Female participation in education still leaves much room for improvement in many regions and countries of the world.

According to Mwiria and Ngethe (2002), cited in Chege and Sifuna (2006), there is adequate evidence that educating women is beneficial at the national, community, family and individual levels. With even a basic education, individual woman effectively engage in economic activities and thus contribute to greater national productivity. At the family level, educated women have reduced fertility rates, brought up healthier, better educated children and families and reduced infant and maternal mortality rates. At the society or community level, educated women participate more in development activities as well as in political and economic decision-making process. Furthermore educated women enter the labour market and earn income through engaging in productive economic activities, which enables them attain financial independence, reduce poverty and enhance gender equity and equality. Educated women are also in a better position to protect themselves and their families against HIV and other infections.

2.4 Gender Bias in Education

Young females receive considerably less education than young male in almost every developing country. In 66 out of 108 countries, women's enrolment in primary and secondary education is lower than that of men by at least 10 percent. As per World Bank (1988), in most of the countries with available data gender disparities in favour of boys are less pronounced in pre-primary education than other higher levels of education. Gender disparities in primary enrolment are overwhelmingly to the disadvantage of girls. Sub-Saharan Africa has low girl enrolment rates (GERs) and strong inequalities in enrolments. In one third of the countries shown, female ratios are around three-quarters of the male ratio or less, according to World Bank (1990).

According to Ademula (1989) cited in Nyamwange (2007) studies carried out among the Sisal tribe of Ghana, girls are given powerful skills of being housewives yet denied that part of education that will make them compete favourably in other sectors as opposed to their counter parts. In that, girls shy off and hence develop some depended attitude. Nyanamba (2004) indicated that through the socialization process in the home and community, girls and boys learn gender stereotypical role attitude, values and norms. Girls for instance learn that women are not good in science, mathematics and technical subjects. Women's role among pastoral communities had over the years changed from reproductive and productive sectors to communal roles. The culture of polygamous marriage, poverty, female genital mutilation, wife sharing and rape expose many women to HIV/AIDs. In most circumstances, reported rape case involves girls at the time they are supposed to be in class.

GoK (2005a), noted that while there have been dramatic increases in enrolment of children since the introduction of FPE in 2003, gender disparities are still observed, particularly in rural areas and urban slums, and generally in performance and transition rates. Disparities are also evident in secondary and higher levels of education. The girls and women empowerment through education has been impeded by a number of factors such as cultural and religion attitude and practices, infrastructural limitations, inadequate policy guidelines, HIV/AIDs, lack of community awareness as well as lack of adequate female role models in rural areas. According to Campbell (2004), people still continue to value activities traditionally done by men more than they value those done by women.

The disparity between boys and girls in secondary school education will be explained by several factors to be discussed later in this chapter. For example in Kenya, in 1975, there were almost three times the numbers of government secondary schools for boys than for girls. Boys seem to have a major advantage over them. Girls from less economically developed regions and less affluent families have little chances of receiving secondary education. The Central Bureau of statistics and UNICEF (1984) noted that because of limited availability of places in maintained schools, majority of girls who have completed primary school and passed exams depend on the initiative, resources and self-help priorities of their local communities to have even a possibility of continuing their education. In 1992, participation of girls in secondary education amounted to less than 30 percent of the corresponding school age population according to "National Structure" in the great majority of countries in Sub-Saharan, Abagi e tal (1997).

Although gender disparity between goys and girls in schools in Africa is not particularly pronounced at primary school, girls account for only 34 per cent and 21 per cent of secondary and university education enrolment respectively (Abagi et al, 1997).

2.5 Educational Transition of Girls

Transition is the key indicator of the degree of access to education. It is the ratio of new entrants to the first grade of each level of educational system, excluding repeaters to the number of pupils enrolled in the final grade of the previous level. In case of lack of data on the number of repeaters, transition rate could only be derived using enrolment in the first grade of general level of that education system which includes repeaters. According to Kinyanjui (1978), cited in Chege and Sifuna (2006), as girls ascend from one level of education to another, their proportion of the total enrolment decrease by 10 percent. In 1986, women comprised 49 percent of primary pupils, 41 percent of secondary students but only 30 percent of university students. Even within one level there are a lot of wastages. For example, in all secondary schools, the proportionate loss between each successive year of schooling is greater for girls than for boys. It is only slightly more than half the female secondary school entrants that proceed to form four. The Kenyan Ministry of Education estimated that between 1987 and 2000 the secondary completion rate declined from 86.4 percent for the 1987-1990 cohort to 79.0 percent for the 1997-2000 cohort. (GoK, 2007).

KESSP target is to achieve a transition rate of 70% from primary to secondary school from the current rate of 47%, paying more attention to girls (TSC, 2007). The transition rates from primary to secondary education have been reported to be always above 95% in industrialized and transition economies and almost always above 50%

in other regions except for Sub-Saharan Africa where much lower rates are often found. Moreover the statistical annex data show that in all regions female students in vocational and technical training programmes represent less than half of the total in most countries with the exception of Latin America and the Caribbean where about half of countries have more female than male student. Thus, women appear to be roughly at parity with men in terms of participation in post-secondary education. (World Bank, 1990). A number of issues have been advanced to explain the low enrolment of women in higher education. For instance, the low gross enrolment ratio (GER) of girls in secondary education was 10 percent or less in at least 15 countries.

As in the case of tertiary college, throughout Sub-Saharan Africa women are dramatically under-represented in higher education despite its rapid expansion. Their access to higher education is certainly a reflection of factors that limit their education at the lower levels. Although the participation gap narrowed slowly in the 1970s, the 1980s produced no changes since 1981 roughly 30% percent of university students have been female. The situation is even worse with those studying overseas. Of the 9,000 Kenyan studying abroad in early 1980s data showed that about 11% were female (Maliyamkono et al, 1982). These rates are strongly affected by the retention of women at lower levels of education. Back in 1973, only 15 percent of students in the university of Nairobi were women.

It is worth noting that educational gender gap is the greatest in the poorest countries and regionally in the Middle East and North Africa. For all developing countries, female literacy rate was 29% lower than male literacy, women's mean year of schooling were 45% lower than men's and females' enrolment rate at primary,

secondary and post-secondary school were 9%, 28% and 49% lower respectively than the corresponding male rates (Todaro, 1985).

All these has called for initiatives in bringing the gender gaps in the provision of education and identifies special measures that the government and other educational stakeholders should stake to redress the identified gender inequities and inequalities. Secondary school enrolment greatly reduces the scope for progress in higher education and coupled with low secondary school enrolment is the high dropout rate of girls. These rates are estimated to be so high as to result in only a small pool of completers eligible for entry into higher education. Poor examination results in the former and current education system further affect the number of female entrants into higher education. At the universities, there are other sets of factors that make university education rather unattractive for women. One particular, is the high failure rate in keratin fields like medicine and engineering. A high level of sexual harassment of women students has also been cited by some studies.

An analysis of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute of Statistics databases on Sub-Sahara Africa, suggest that Transition rates to secondary school has been static over the past decades in many Sub-Sahara African countries and appear to have fallen where primary growth has been fast, (World Bank, 2008). In Kenya primary education completion rate have remained steady and low throughout. However MOEST data seems to suggest the completion rate shot up in the 21st century. Table 2 shows the data of percentages of pupils completing class eight in 1990 – 2001. Chege and Sifuna (2006).

Table 2: Primary school completion rate by sex 1990 – 2001.

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Boys	45.7	46.4	44.7	44.5	44.6	43.0	45.1	46.3	46.4	47.7	48.3	52.5
Girls	40.5	41.6	48.2	42.2	43.0	42.1	43.5	45.8	48.1	47.8	49.5	52.6

Source: Ministry of education, science and technology.

For primary school pupils to proceed to secondary school it involves completing class eight and obtaining good scores at the KCPE examination, and having resources to pay for the costs involved in secondary education. GoK (2005a), asserts that, the decline in secondary school enrolment is caused by the following factors;

- i) High cost of secondary education which leads to a 30 percent dropout rate.
- ii) High levels of poverty among many households.
- iii) Extra levies for private tuition, unfriendly school environment especially for children from poor households.
- iv) Negative effect of HIV/AIDs pandemic.
- v) Rising repetition rates.
- vi) Low expansion of public secondary schools in urban areas.

Table 3: Kenyan Transition from Primary To Secondary By Sex 1991-2001

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Boys	45.4	46.9	41.8	43.2	45.4	46.0	45.3	45.6	40.5	40.9	50.9
Girls	43.7	45.5	35.0	42.1	43.9	44.3	44.5	44.3	39.1	39.2	46.8
Average	44.6	46.0	38.4	42.7	44.7	45.3	44.9	45.0	39.9	40.1	48.9

Source: MOEST Statistics section(figures in percentage)

Table 3 shows that transition rate have generally been lower than 50 percent, except in 2001 when boys hit the 50.9 percent mark. The gender disparity is evident with boys recording the higher rates than girls. It has been revealed that public universities have the lowest enrolment rate of females. However in private universities, they registered well above 50 percent and that could be due to the fact that most of the women who attend private universities come from proportionately more advantaged background. This apparently has been the characteristic of Kenya's higher education over years. For example Van den Berghe (1965) in his study of 130 African students attending the then university of East Africa, found that 40 percent of the women in the sample had fathers who had completed secondary education compared to only 7.8 percent of the male students. In general the transition of girls from one educational level has been shown to be low relative to boys in many developing countries, Kenya included. Transition rate varied in Sub-Saharan African countries between 40-100% for some 15 countries. For instance, Guinea 44%, Mauritius 54%, Swaziland 79% and South Africa 92%. However more than twenty other Sub-Saharan African countries had less than 40% of the girls who were able to find a place in general secondary education in the years around 1992.

Gender disparities in transition rate have been generally low in countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. It may be noted that as of 1992, the proportion of girls in final grade of primary education who have gained access to general secondary education was higher than that of boys in at least 12 Sub-Saharan African countries. During the period from 1980 to 1992, the gender gap in transition rate has reduced in most for which data were available.

2.6 Determinants of Transition Rate among Girls

Globally, girls make up 70% of children not enrolled in primary school. In Kenya, despite the FPE, gender inequalities still persists at Secondary and tertiary levels where only 35% of University students are female, (MOEST 2003). Studies done by Abagi et al (1997) on Household based factors as determinants of school participation of Girls in Kenya: The case of Nairobi and Siaya District revealed that several sociocultural and economic factors are responsible for gender gap in education. The factors were categorized as demand and supply factors.

The demand factors included;

- Socio-cultural variables such as negative parental attitudes to girls' education, initiation ceremonies, traditional institutions and practices like early marriages, pride prize and gender socialization.
- Socio-economic factors including poverty, direct schooling cost, opportunity cost of schooling, level of parental education and economic value of education.

The supply factors involved:

- The micro level political and institutional factors for example, the level of national wealth, fiscal policies, gender policies, political stability and commitment to gender equality and public spending in education.
- ii. Education system and school related factors, including limited number of schools, irrelevant curriculum, gender biased learning environment, gender insensitive teaching-learning resources, sexual harassment, high level of repetition and failure.

The study concluded that the interaction between supply and demand factors jointly determines girls' educational participation. The degrees to which these factors exert the most influence on girls' educational participation vary from one environment to the other and from country to country.

According to Koech Report (1999), tremendous efforts made by the government to improve girls education includes, the affirmative action, expansion of facilities to enable girls to study Science and Technical subjects and a policy to allow girls who drop out of school due to pregnancy to continue with education. These and other efforts have yielded benefits with girls' participation rate increasing from 41% in 1988 to 46% in 1995 at the secondary school level. These efforts are commendable. However, the girls from ASALs and those with special needs have remained disadvantaged in accessing education despite those impressive figures.

Among the constraints facing girls as presented to the commission led by Koech were:

 Poverty at the household level, which force parents to make choice as to which children to enroll in school.

- ii) Socio-cultural attitudes which favour boys and disadvantage girls.
- iii) Socio-cultural practices such as early marriages and initiation rites.
- iv) Parental perception of the value of investing in girls education.
- v) Teenage pregnancies and lack of policy implementation on the re-admission of girls who drop out of school for this reason.
- vi) Poor teaching and lack of a conducive environment which lead to lack of motivation.
- vii) Teachers' attitudes, behaviour and teaching practices which disadvantage girls.
- viii) Lack of role models especially in rural areas, the ASALs and in higher levels of education.
- ix) High demand of girls' labour, which increases the opportunity costs of sending them to school.
 - x) Gender stereotyping in instructional resources were said to be responsible for limited girls expectations and reinforcing negative self-perception.

Many determinants of transition rate among girls lack empirical data to support them. These causes could be cultural, social, economic and school related, just to mention a few. All these vary from school to school and region to region.

2.6.1 Social Determinants

2.6.1.1 Parental Attitudes

Some parents consider educating girls as a worthless investment and fear that sending girls to school would disrupt their pattern of traditional life. Some parents regard girls as intrinsically inferior to boys and where there exists a belief that education is purchasable commodity and a better investment in a boy than a girl, girls become the

first offering to the family budget when resources are scarce. A World Bank study (1988) revealed that the important social benefits derived from female education are not likely to have much impact on a family's private investment decision. In patrilineal society, the opportunity cost of a daughter's time when she is attending school and such other costs as school fees are borne by her parents, whereas the benefits of her education are thought to accrue principally to her future husbands' family. Some parents justify the denial of girls of their right to education to prevent them from bringing shame to the family through early pregnancy. Yet others believed that women who are at the same level of education as the men are a disgrace to the community because more often than not, they will not get married and if they do, it will be to a foreigner. For such parents early marriage is the best way to prevent this and at the same time preserve tradition.

Abdulai (2005) reported cases affecting girls in Maasai land. He noted that fathers do not wish to pay fees for their daughters, instead they would rather have them married off.

2.6.1.2 Parental Level of Education

Educated parents are more motivated to seek and more able to afford education for their children than uneducated (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). Some study done on the causes of low enrolment and high dropout rate in primary education among female children in North Uganda showed that children whose parents are not educated experienced higher dropout rates and this was noted to be higher for female children whose mothers had no education (Ayiga, 1997).

Okojie (2001) in a study among the people of Benin noted that many parents especially illiterate ones have low academic expectations for their daughters. Some

believe that higher education is for boys only. In his study Okojie reported that gender gap is more pronounced in the rural and less economically developed areas where sacrifices for education are not easy to achieve. Poor families discriminate against girls especially that the secondary is paid for. Sacrificing for the sake of education of the girl-child especially if she comes from polygamous family was not easy but Kenya National Commission on Human Right (KNCHR, 2005) on funding education investment asserts that "education must be viewed as an investment into a collective future rather than simply as an individual consumption for personal success". Education instills conscious awareness that plays a key role in empowering women and safeguarding children from exploitative and hazardous labour, which in most cases affect the girl-child. KNCHR continues to note that if education has to be meaningful, it must aim at equipping people with certain levels and quality training. Therefore conducive environment, affordability and availability of places for secondary education constitute key factor for over coming this challenge.

2.6.1.3 Lack of Positive Role Models

According to MOEST, girls lack role models. Statistics from the Ministry of Education show that female teachers account for only about 30 per cent of the teaching staff. Most of these are to be found in the urban areas, leaving very few teachers in the rural areas (G.o.K, 2007).

2.6.1.4 HIV/AIDS

In a number of communities, it is girls who spend more time on household chores than boys, leaving them with very little time to study at home. In case a family member falls sick, girls drop out of school to look after the sick relative and the situation gets worse when a mother dies, forcing the girls to take over her responsibilities. This situation has been exacerbated by the HIV/AIDS pandemic which has forced children out of school to take up odd jobs in order to play the role of their parents. The World Bank, 2008 pointed out that, the disease increases morbidity and mortality among teachers, creates unprecedented numbers of orphans in and out of school, undermines regular school attendance especially among girls and suppresses economic growth through its impact on labour force productivity.

2.6.2 Cultural Determinants

2.6.2.1 Girls' and Women's Multiple Gender Roles

Studies have revealed that girls and women have by far more gender roles to play than boys and men, which leaves them with little time for active participation in education. In most developing countries parents keep their daughters at home to help with household chores. Ali(2000), pointed out that they cook, clean the house, fetch water and firewood, help their mother care for young children especially when a mother dies, fall ill, overworked or infected by HIV/AIDS, girls are the most affected. With all these, girls cannot concentrate on their studies at school leading to poor

performance hence low transition. Simmons (1980) asserts that children of rural poor, unlike most upper and middle income children have responsibilities beyond doing well in school. They have errands to run, animals to tend and siblings to look after. By the time they reach 12 years they mostly do the work of adults.

2.6.2.2 Pre-marital Pregnancies and Early Marriage

Low transitional rate among girls are attributed to pre-marital pregnancies and early marriage, it is generally acknowledged that sexual harassment and pregnancy cause a significant number of girls to terminate their education. Adolescent pregnancy (Coombs, 1985 and UNESCO 1975) a study in Botswana, Lesotho, Tanzania and

Zimbabwe showed that common reasons for the high incidence of dropout among girls is pregnancy. Early marriage, according to (Nkoma, 1979) in a study of truancy and dropout of school, showed that their parents may receive dowry. Among the pastoral Burogoro or Bagamoyo of Tanzania for example, girls means wealth to their parents in terms of cattle the girl can fetch (Meme, 1987). In Kenya except where deliberate efforts are made, few girls and parents take advantage of the policy "The return-to-school" for mothers to secure a second chance in school because there are no mechanisms to monitor policy implementation.

2.6.2.3 Customs and Beliefs

Customs and beliefs that influence decision for girls non-enrolment in school equally influence decision to withdraw them from school. A good example is initiation ceremonies which are still common in some Kenyan communities. Evidence shows that initiation ceremonies create several dilemmas for girls thus affecting their school attendance and academic performance and even leading to dropout.

First and foremost, the scheduling of initiation ceremonies quite often conflict with the school calendar, leading to absenteeism from school. Secondly, although initiation marks the passage from childhood to adulthood, school authorities continue to treat initiated girls who return to school as children. They expect them to participate in certain activities and punish them in a manner that is considered inappropriate for adults especially for the circumcised girls who perceive themselves as adults following the initiation ceremonies. Furthermore, these girls not only have a negative influence on their uncircumcised peers but they are also rude towards uncircumcised teachers, especially female ones. They become indiscipline and consequently their academic performance declines sharply and they begin playing truant, eventually dropping out. Many initiated girls also find it difficult to return to

formal school or concentrate on their studies because their next expectation is marriage (Krystal, 1979).

One survey on KCPE examination and the repetition process in primary schools found that, the proportion of girls enrolled in class eight dropped dramatically because of a large number of male repeaters. The low enrolment was explained by the fact that nationally, when a child failed to get good marks to secure a secondary school place, parents tended to encourage their sons to repeat class seven but was less willing to give their daughters a second chance. This suggests greater parental concern for their sons to advance to higher education levels. This concern may translate itself in a lowered sense of competence or more limited aspirations among the girls also expresses itself in a greater willingness to excuse boys from household responsibilities so they can study. Kariuki (2005), asserts that old habits and outdated cultural beliefs that bug down women and girls. In many communities die hard. He concluded that students are yet to accept the changing sex role in school. Many still doubt that women cannot teach science subjects.

2.6.3 Economic Determinants

2.6.3.1 Poverty, Direct and Indirect Cost of Education.

Poverty is widely spread in Kenya, with over 58 percent of the population living below the poverty line. Consequently, the inability of the poor to meet educational cost for their children becomes a barrier to the education of girl-child. A world Bank study (1990) supported this view and noted that in all countries, children from poor families are less apt to enroll in school and more apt to dropout than children from better off families. The poor families will choose to send their boys rather than girls to school. Wamahiu (1992) concur with this by noting that hard economic situations

in the poor homes make girls easy prey for men who ensnare them with cash or gifts.

These gifts may be followed by abuse of the girls by these men, leading to pregnancy and dropout.

The cost of education is closely related to dropout. In Kenya provision of Free Primary Education in 2003 was not only followed by rapid expansion in enrolment at this level of education but dropout because of opportunity cost foregone because parents meet part of costs at secondary and tertiary colleges. This study therefore sought to establish if the cost of education contribute to the low transition rate. Indirect cost of education plays a role in transition among girls. These costs include the earnings foregone by the family when their children attend school. Atkinson, (1983) asserts that, when the child enters secondary school, she is old enough to contribute to family income by seeking employment or working in the family farm. Further, parents feel the girls are foregoing important child care, household and craft training at home if they go to school. Therefore patterns of secondary school enrolment are heavily skewed by household income.

In situations where parents are not in a position to pay for education of their children, girls are the obvious sacrifice; boys are allowed to proceed while girls dropout. Girls who therefore go to school and proceed through school unimpeded are a select group determined not only by economic status of the family but also by prevailing sexist attitudes regarding the perceived costs and benefits of girls' education (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). They further noted that when a choice must be made between educating a son or a daughter, African parents usually pick the boy because not only do sons have potential of a greater economic pay-off for the family, but also the

opportunity costs of removing a daughter from critical child-care and household responsibilities can be devastating.

Abagi and Sheila in their study (1995), made major assumption that household income was a key determinant of social participation. Data available from Nairobi Province support this, as findings showed that 64% of the girls studied dropped out of school due to household failure to meet school expenses. There are marked preferences by parents to educate boys at the expense of girls during times of economic hardship. According to Kasente (1995), in her study on the processes influencing Gender differences in Access to post secondary institutions in Uganda, a focus group participant noted that:

"When and if financial difficulties are encountered, i will prefer to educate my boys than the girls. These boys are the ones to take over from us and they will be the ones to remain at home. The girls will establish their homes in their husbands' clan not here."

2.6.3.2 Inadequate School Places

Studies conducted on secondary school places for boys and girls in 2001-2003 showed that girls are generally allocated about a third of secondary school places while boys are allocated two thirds, as the ratio of girls' secondary schools to those for boys is 3:1. This implies that, the allocation mechanism at the end of primary education tend to reinforce the inequality of opportunities for girls and boys at the primary school level factors which originally increased the likelihood of a primary school education for girls, now boast them over the potential barrier to a secondary education (Wamahiu et al, 1992). According to Kasente (1995), the secondary level of education in Kenya is not co-educational like the primary, and yet there are fewer girls' secondary schools than boys' thus whereas there is no significant differences

between the number of girls and boys at primary level, the statistics at secondary level show significant differences.

2.6.4 School Related Determinants

2.6.4.1 Gender Insensitive School Environment

Mason (1970) observed that some teachers are unable to establish a friendly relationship with their pupils. Pupils do not feel free and cannot bring their difficulties to their teacher for solutions. Many incidents for sexual harassment and gender-based biases have been reported. Kasente (1995), asserts that during classroom interactions, some male teachers practiced sexual harassment towards their female students through victimization, provocative examples, intonations and body language. Other aspects of the school environment that can be gender insensitive includes school infrastructure and amenities such as water and sanitation, availability of sanitary towels for girls, curriculum and teaching learning materials such as textbooks, pedagogy, school management and guidance and counseling.

Lack of these leads to poor performance culminating to low transition rate. The implementation of FPE in 2003 has been characterized by over-crowding classrooms and over-stretched facilities, particularly sanitation. In 2003 there were 3,661 public secondary schools and about 400 registered private secondary schools compared to 18,081 public primary schools. This imbalance was expected to worsen following implementation and the strengthening of FPE. This may not be conducive to the retention of girls in school, especially those from ASALs, and the urban and rural poor background (GoK, 2007).

2.6.4.2 School Pedagogical Factors

Studies have established the existence of "a hidden curriculum" which encourages girls to be servile and to have little or no pride in schooling. By and large this has been found to be related to these expectations which are different for pupils of different sexes, and a sexual division of labor in work and play activities in the classroom and the school. These factors coupled with different student expectations for their future position in society could contribute to withdrawal from school. The structure and selected interaction process with pupils shape girls' and boys' participation and persistence in school. This is particularly the case with the predominant mode of teaching in primary schools which relies heavily on learning by rote and voluntary pupil participation in classroom activities. Since boys have been socialized from birth to be assertive and girls to be submissive and quiet it is often the case that boys dominate classroom activities. This too applies to the content of curriculum materials, which are male – dominated and persistently signal to the girls that they have little or no business in school. Study also examined school related factors which includes distance from home to the nearest school.

Most rural district do not have good roads and vehicles hence children have to walk for long distances through difficult terrain and hazardous surrounding to get to school which consequently affect their academic performance. Moreover teacher attitude often exacerbate the biases in teaching materials favouring boys in class and discouraging girls from taking part in certain subjects. Most teachers lack knowledge and skills in gender related matter.

According to Nyamwange (2007), preliminary data for (2000) by KNPB suggests that the gender gap is starting to widen again at the primary and secondary levels in the

drought affected areas, as parents choose to invest their depleted resources into the education of boys. Gender inequalities are reinforced by the lack of adequate water, sanitary facilities and the classroom space. She further revealed that sanitation affect girls enrolment more than that of boys. Aduda (2001) asserts that, the attitude of teachers, pupils and the society is the essential issue that needs to be addressed. The education system has itself to blame for not providing the appropriate required skills. One of the education roles is to liberate one from ignorance and enslavement. Further studies by Aduda and Muito (2003), confirm that there is great awareness among educators and policy makers that gender related interventions should focus more closely on school related factors in order to achieve gender equity in provision of education.

Reynolds (2001) argued that, learning environment is powerful arena for viewing negotiation on autonomy and dependence. Within the critical pedagogy, it is important to acknowledge socially constructed and reinforced differences within references to race, gender and the inequalities of power. It is worth noting that socioeconomic and cultural determinants that constrain girls' education at household and community levels are closely interwoven.

2.7 Summary

This chapter reviewed literature on the determinants of transition rate among girls. The literature has shown that women play a crucial role in the economic growth and development of any country. It has also revealed that there is a wide gender gap in provision of education not only in Kenya but in most developing countries. Besides, the literature has highlighted the determinants of transition among girls. A gap in

literature has however been noted as regard the low transition rate among girls in education.

The next chapter describes the research design and methodology that was adopted for the purpose of this study.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section describes the design and methodology that was adopted for this study. It highlights the study area, research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of data, ethical issues in data collection and finally the data analysis techniques used.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is a basic arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose. This study employed descriptive survey design. Survey research deals with the incidence, distribution and interrelations of educational variables. It gathers data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of the existing conditions, identifying the standards against which existing conditions can be compared and determining the relationship that exists between specific events (Orodho, 2005; Kothari,2004; Kerlinger,1983).

The design was adopted because the population studied was too large to be observed directly and thus useful because of the economy both in time and money of taking a sample of population to generalize results for the whole population, resulting to wider coverage, rich and meaningful research findings.

3.3 Study Area

The study was conducted in Keiyo District, Rift valley province of Kenya. The District extends from latitude 0^0 10' to 0^0 52' to the north and longitude 35^0 25' to 35^0 45' to the east. It borders Marakwet District to the north, Eldoret East District to the west, Baringo District to the east and Koibatek District to the south-east. The District is divided into five Divisions namely: Kamaring, Tambach, Metkei, Chepkorio and Soy Division from which Tambach Division was selected using cluster sampling.

Information available at the District Education Office indicated that the District had one hundred and eighty one primary schools. Keiyo District measures a total surface area of 1439.3Km square of which 330.8Km square is covered by Tambach Division. The Keiyo and Tugen of Kalenjin community, whose main economic activities were livestock keeping and farming, predominate the District. The climate of the area of study is hot and humid. This makes the area suitable for only a limited agricultural production. However in the recent past drought has impacted negatively on productivity of farming activities in this area.

Tambach Division is threatened with frequent cattle rustling and livestock keeping has become a risky business. Insufficient infrastructure such as access roads, electricity, and telecommunication services increases production and distribution costs. Rainfall is not reliable most of the year, which undermines agricultural production. The division has seasonal rivers that are far apart. These, coupled with the cultural practices of marrying out young girls, have culminated into high rates of school dropouts, particularly at primary school level.

It is therefore believed that the study area gave a wide and varied view of the problem under study. However, it should be observed that the choice of the area of study did not render other parts of the country less significant.

3.4 Target Population

Population refers to an entire group of individuals, events or objects having a common observable characteristic (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The study targeted primary school head teachers, teachers, PTA members and pupils, these groups were considered to have information regarding educational transition among girl pupils from primary to secondary in the District. The study targeted a total population of 6421 comprising 23 head teachers, 195 teachers, 60 PTA members and 6143 pupils.

3.5 The Sample and Sampling Procedures

The study ensured a high degree of correspondence between a sampling frame and the sample population as the accuracy of the sample depends on the sampling frame. Noting that the degree of generalization of any study depends on the accuracy of the sampling frame from which the sample was selected. Pattern (2002) argues that the sample size depends on what one wants to know; the purpose of the inquiry at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility and what can be done with available time and resource.

The researcher therefore, divided the total population (district) into small subdivisions/clusters of smaller units, and then one cluster (division) was randomly selected for inclusion in the overall sample. This was done because the total area of study was too large to be involved in the study. Cluster sampling reduces the cost by concentrating the surveys in the selected cluster. The division was then stratified according to their administrative zones to ensure that there was equitable

representation in the sample. The technique was preferred for the study because it ensured that all schools were proportionately represented and account for the difference in school characteristic. The strata were more homogeneous than the total population. Therefore the study yielded more precise estimates from each stratum by estimating more accurately each of the component parts.

There were 23 registered primary schools all of which are public schools in the division as reflected by DEOs office records. Proportionate sampling was used to select seven schools which represent 30% of the total number of schools in the Division. Kerlinger (1983) recommended that the sample should be between 10-30% of the study population as a rule of the thumb. Practice has shown that sample collected in this manner were representative of the population from which they were drawn from and gives information similar or closely reflection of the characteristics of the targeted population without significant variation.

Purposive sampling was used to select the seven head teachers and standard eight pupils from the selected schools. This technique was used since it is useful to collect focused information, to select typical and useful cases only and make sample quite representative. In addition, unnecessary variables were dropped out and considerable time and money saved.

Simple random sampling was used to select 30% of teachers and PTA members from the selected schools. This ensured that each teacher and PTA member had an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample; it was also free from bias and prejudice. The focus group discussion each with nine participants from each school was conducted with a purposively selected sample of standard eight pupils in the seven primary schools.

The summary of the sample population used is presented in the table below.

Table 4: Sample Population

Category	Total number	No. of selected	Percentage	No. of
	of schools	schools		Headteachers
				selected
Zone 1A	9	3	13	3
Zone1B	2	1	4	1
Zone 2A	8	2	9	2
Zone 2B	4	1	4	1
Total	23	7	30	7

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

This study used questionnaires, focused group discussions and document analysis to collect the relevant data for the study.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was the main instrument used in collecting data for this study. It took the form of structured or closed ended style and unstructured/open ended questions, which were administered to the head teachers, teachers, PTA members and pupils. The questionnaires utilized a five point Likert scale namely Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) which were assigned scores of between 1 and 5. This allowed the researcher to draw conclusions based on comparisons made from the responses. The advantage of the questionnaire is that it generates a considerable amount of questionnaire data and enables the researcher to obtain a wider coverage of description data at a comparatively low cost in terms of time, money and effort.

Since it is a standard research instruments it allows for uniformity in the manner in which questions are asked and makes it possible to be compared across respondents (Cohen and Manion, 2003). The limitation of the instrument is that it does not allow face to face, two-way communication with the researcher. The researcher is not in a position to clarify the meaning of responses of inadequately and incorrectly understood questions. To solve this problem, focused group discussion and document analysis were used to compensate for the weakness of the questionnaire.

3.6.2 Document Analysis

Document analysis was used to collect data on the rate of transition in the schools under study. All schools had the necessary records on the required data. Such as KCPE results and form one selection and enrolment.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussion was mainly used because of its ability to obtain in-depth understanding of normative and attitude issues concerning determinants of transition rate among girls to secondary education. However this data collection instrument was time consuming in terms of organizing the participants and analyzing the recorded data.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

3.7.1 Validity

Validity is concerned with whether the instrument measure what it is supposed to measure or it is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Mugenda (1999) points that validity

has to do with how accurate the data obtained in the study represents the variables of the study and is a true reflection of the variables; it is only then that inferences based in such data would be accurate and meaningful. To ascertain validity of the questionnaire the researcher consulted experts and experienced personnel in the research methodology from the department of Educational Management and Policy Studies to make criticism and comments on the format of the instruments. The experts suggested that the vocabulary used were not familiar to the pupils who were the respondents and the framing of the items in the research instruments were not in order. The comments were incorporated in the questionnaires before the final administration of the instruments on the participants of the study.

3.7.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which score obtained with an instrument are consistent measure. It is the consistency that an instrument demonstrates when applied repeatedly under similar conditions (Kerlinger, 1983). Reliability is the measure of the degree to which a research yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. It is the degree of consistency that the research instruments or procedures demonstrate. It is the reproducibility of a measurement. It is qualified by taking several measurements on the same subjects. Poor reliability degrades the precision of a single measurement and reduces the ability to track changes in measurement in a study (Mislevy, 2004). To establish the reliability of the research instruments, pilot study was conducted in four schools in the neighbouring district believed to have the same characteristics as the research respondents. The purpose of the pilot study was to establish if the research instruments would provide the needed data and was done in Baringo district to avoid the participants influencing each other and therefore interfering with the findings. The research instruments were administered to the pilot

group twice at an interval of two weeks in line with the test-retested method of determining reliability. The results were organized and coded for analysis. Correlation coefficient was determined using SPSS program. The coefficients of reliability computed were 0.67 and 0.71 for head teachers, teachers/PTA members and pupils respectively. The coefficients were large enough to consider the instruments reliable.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

Before data was collected from the respondents in the study area permission was requested from the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology who granted a research permit. The permit was presented to the District Commissioner and District Education Officer, Keiyo District, who gave the researcher an introductory letter to the head teachers of the participating schools. The researcher then proceeded to schools with these documents (permit, letters from DC and DEO and the cover letter) which were given to the heads of the schools who arranged for the researcher exercise to be conducted. The data collected for the study was both quantitative by use of questionnaires and document analysis and qualitative using focus group discussion. Secondary data was additionally collected using document analysis.

3.10 Ethical Issues in Data Collection

The study considered ethical issues that were important in the study. First, the respondents were assured that the responses they gave would be used in complete confidentiality and for the purpose of the research study only. Second, the researcher took individual responsibility for the conduct and consequences of the research by adhering to the time schedule agreed upon with the offices and schools administration. And last the researcher was open and honest when dealing with other researchers and respondents.

3.11 Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis refers to examining what has been collected in a survey, experiment and making deduction and inferences (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Data collected in this study were analyzed using descriptive statistical techniques, by the use of percentages, frequency distribution tables and graphical presentation with the help of the statistical package for the social science (SPSS) program. Percentages and frequencies distribution tables provided a clear visual impression of the total values and one could easily read the highest and the lowest totals at a glance. On the other hand graphical presentation shows clear trends of transition rates in the five year period. Moreover data from document analysis were used to calculate transition rate using the UNESCO formula shown in Appendix IV.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION, ANALYSIS AND

DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the data collected from head teachers', teachers, PTA members, pupils, focus group discussion and document analysis. Out of 65 questionnaires given to head teachers, teachers and PTA members only 52 were returned. These represented 80.0% and therefore considered valid. All questionnaires for the pupils 201 were returned.

The data yielded from the questionnaires were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. Data from focus group discussion were summarized and directly reported, while data from document analysis were analysed using the transition rate formula stated in chapter one section 1.11.

4.2 Analysis of Questionnaires

The questionnaires had three sections. Section one, covered general information of the respondents, section two dealt with determinants of transition rate namely social, economic and school related determinants where five points scale ranging from strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SD) were used to show the respondents' responses. Section three had two open-ended questions where respondents were requested to comment on the determinants of transition rate and suggest solutions for the same. Except for very little variation in the formulation and the number of items, the contents of questionnaires were more or less the same for the head teachers, teachers, PTA members and the pupils.

4.2.1 Background Information

Table 5 shows gender, school position and professional qualifications of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members. While table 6 presents pupils' gender, age and years spend in the current school. Background information of the respondents was considered important because generalization and conclusions are largely drawn on the basis of characteristics of the respondents, their attitudes and experiences.

Table 5: Background information of head teachers, teacher and PTA members

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	37	71.2
Female	15	28.8
Total	52	100.0
School position		
Head teacher	7	13.5
Teacher	28	53.8
PTA member	17	32.7
Total	52	100.0
Professional qualification		
Certificate	29	55.8
Diploma	8	15.4
Degree	4	7.7
Unprofessional	11	21.2
Total	52	100.0

Majority 37(71.2%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members were males and the rest 15(38.8%) were females. This is an indication of gender imbalance in the teaching force and in the selection of PTA members' in schools. There were seven head teachers from the seven sampled schools representing 13.5% of the respondents. Majority 28(53.8%) of the respondents were teachers and PTA members were approximately 17(32.7%). This is attributed to the fact that PTA members who availed themselves for the research study were less compared to teachers who were more available at school.

Majority 29(55.8%) of the respondents were certificate holders and comprised mainly teachers. A further 8(15.4%) of the respondents were diploma holders whereas only 4(7.7%) were degree holders. This means that teachers in the area of study were trained and professionally qualified to handle pupils well. Eleven(21.1%) respondents did not have any qualification; this group was mainly the PTA members. There were no respondents among the head teachers, teachers and PTA members who had postgraduate qualifications, a reflection of general low levels of education in the community under study.

Table 6: Background information of pupils

Gender	Frequency	Percent	
Boys	103	51.2	
Girl	98	48.8	
Total	201	100.0	
Age			
13-14 years	119	59.2	
15-16 years	76	37.8	
Above 16 years	6	3.0	
Total	201	100.0	
Years in school			
1-3 years	43	21.4	
4-7 years	22	10.9	
Above 7 years	136	67.7	
Total	201	100.0	

As can be observed from table 6, boys constituted 51.2% and girls 48.8%. The age structure of the pupils revealed that 119(59.2%) were between ages 13-14 years which means, this group may not have repeated any class after enrolling in class one at the age of 5-6 years. A total of 76(37.8%) pupils were aged 15-16 years and whereas those above 16 years were the minority forming only 3.0% of the pupils. This group most likely may have repeated more than two classes because they had spent more than ten years in primary education or enrolled as older students. Age is an important factor in variation in attitude and feelings.

A total of 136(67.7%) pupils had been in their current school for more than seven years. This means they were enrolled in class one in the current school. Only 22(10.9%) had stayed in their current school for 4-6 years and 43(21.4%) for 1-3 years. This group is likely to be those who joined the current school in class seven and eight. The number of years spend in one school by a pupil is an important factor in identifying the perception and understanding of the underlying determinants of transition rate of girls in the particular school.

4.2.2 Social Determinant of Transition Rate for Girls

Social factors refer to parental and community perception of the utility of schooling by the girl-child and their rating of the investment potential. Socio-cultural factors such as customs and beliefs are considered to influence decisions for girls' non-enrolment in school and equally decisions to withdraw them from school. The societal influences examined in this study include; parental attitude, role models, religion, and HIV/AIDS.

According to Chege and Fatuma (2006), gender is a socially ascribed characteristic and behaviour associated to being female or male. It plays a major role in structuring every aspect of social life thus constituting one of the most basic and often unquestionable framework by which society locate women vi-avis men. Tables 7 and 8 below present respondents' responses to social determinants of transition rate of girls to secondary education.

Table 7: Social Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)

	SA		A		U		D		SD		TOTAL	
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Negative parental attitude	14	26.9	32	61.5	1	1.9	3	5.8	2	3.8	52	100.0
Lack of positive role models	27	51.9	20	38.5	4	7.7	1	1.9	0	0	52	100.0
Religion	0	0	2	3.8	5	9.6	25	48.1	20	38.5	52	100.0
The effects of HIV/AIDS	6	11.5	19	36.5	5	9.6	16	30.8	6	11.5	52	100.0

Table 8: Social Determinants (Pupils)

	SA		A		U		D		SD		TOTAL	
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Lack of parents encouragement	107	53.2	54	26.9	15	7.5	14	7.0	11	5.5	201	100
Lack of role models	89	44.3	69	34.3	7	3.5	20	10.0	16	8.0	201	100
Religion	10	5.0	14	7.0	9	4.5	59	29.4	109	54.2	201	100
HIV/Aids effect	39	19.4	64	31.8	9	4.5	48	48	23.9	41	201	100

From table 7, 46(88.4%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed that parents have negative attitude whereas only 5(9.6%) of them disagreed with this statement. According to table 8, 107 (53.2%) strongly agreed that girls lack parental encouragement, and only 25 (12.5%) of the pupils disagreed. These findings concur with previous findings which indicate that some parents regard their daughters as academically less able compared to their sons. This is particularly true of patrilineal societies which discriminate their children on the basis of sex (World Bank, 1988). It is noteworthy that apart from the teachers, pupils ordinarily depend on their parents for direction and guidance. When this is not forthcoming from the parents, pupils especially girls loose hope in their academic progress, perform poorly and fail to

obtain cut marks that will enable them enroll in secondary education. Parents should therefore be educated on the crucial role they play as counselors, motivators and good examples/role models in the lives of their children.

It can also be observed that the majority of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members 47(90.4%) agreed that there was lack of role models to encourage girls to pursue further their education. Four (7.7%) respondents were undecided as to whether or not role models played a significant role in determining transition rate of girls. Only one respondent (1.9%) disagreed.

A total of 158 pupils (78.6%) agreed (44.3% strongly agreed and 34.3% agreed), that girls lack role models to encourage them in their education, 7 (3.5%) pupils were undecided and 36 (18.0%) disagreed (10.0% disagreed and 8.0% strongly disagreed). According to MOE, most role models are found in the urban areas leaving few in rural areas, (GoK 2007). It should be underscored that role models play a significant role in setting a good example to the girls and providing advice to them. Affirmative action need to be applied in the appointment of qualified female educational managers at school and administrative levels to act as role models. Equally important gender should be a consideration during intake of teacher trainees and in deployment to ensure that all schools have adequate female teachers to act as role models.

In table 7, 2(3.8%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed that religion can determine girls' transition rate to secondary education and 45(86.6%) respondents disagreed. Religion was not seen by pupils' respondents as a major cause of low transition rate of girls, where 109 (54.2%) respondents strongly disagreed. As low as 24(12%) of the total pupils agreed that religion was indeed a factor in low

transition. This is because the prevailing religion (Christianity) encourages rather than discourages schooling of girl-child. Unlike Islamic religion which is associated with low female participation in school (Ayiga ,1997), UNICEF's (1989)&Ali, (2000).

On the effect of HIV/AIDS on transition to secondary education, close to half (45%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed, 5(9.6%) were undecided and 22(42.3%) disagreed that HIV/AIDS contributed to low transition rate of girls to secondary education. About 103(51.2%) of pupils agreed that HIV/AIDs effect determined girls transition rate, 9(4.5%) were undecided and (44.3%) disagreed with the statement. This could be as a result of low cases of HIV/AIDs in the study area. However campaigns should be carried out to create awareness of the devastating consequences of HIV/AIDs on economic and social life of families and community.

4.2.3 Cultural Determinants

Cultural determinants according to Abagi et al (1997), involves the customs and beliefs of the society which influences the decision to enroll girls in school. It also includes the community's norms about the preferred age of marriage and appropriate behaviour for girls. Cultural expectations and values play an important role in influencing decisions of girls' participation in formal education. According to Chege and Sifuna (2006), there are regions where parents wish to protect their daughters from contact with foreign culture. For instant there is a fear that if a girl is highly educated, she will have difficulties in finding a husband or being a good wife. Some cultural determinants include girls multiple gender roles, premarital pregnancies, early marriages and cultural beliefs and customs. Tables 9 and 10 below present respondents' responses on cultural determinants likely to influence transition rates of girls from primary to secondary.

Table 9: Cultural Determinants (H/T, T &PTA)

	SA		A		U		D		SD		TOTAL	
Statement	Freq	%	Freq.	%								
Girls multiple gender roles	35	67.3	13	25.0	0	0	3	3.8	1	1.9	52	100
Pre marital pregnancies	11	21.2	39	75.0	0	0	2	3.8	0	0	52	100
Early marriage	6	11.5	39	75.5	3	5.8	4	7.7	0	0	52	100
Customs and belief (FGM)	5	9.6	16	30.8	8	15.4	17	32.7	6	11.5	52	100

Table10: Cultural Determinants (Pupils)

	SA		A	\mathbf{A}		U		D		SD		TOTAL	
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Many	80	39.8	93	46.3	7	3.5	17	8.5	4	2.0	201	100	
household													
chores													
Girls get	105	52.2	82	40.8	2	1.0	7	3.5	5	2.5	201	100	
pregnant													
Girls get	71	35.3	62	30.8	13	6.5	29	14.4	26	12.9	201	100	
married													
Cultural	6	3.0	26	12.9	12	6.0	74	36.8	83	41.3	201	100	
beliefs/customs													

A total of 48(92.3%) head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed to this statement and only 4(7.7%) respondents out of 52 disagreed that gives multiple gender roles was a factor in transition rates. This indicates that girls are assigned a lot of gender related roles includes cooking, cleaning, fetching water and firewood and helping their mothers to care for the younger siblings. This therefore means girls either fail to get time to concentrate on their studies or over-look academic excellence by putting more efforts on non academic activities which reduces their chances of enrolling in secondary school education. Similarly Table10 shows that many household chores mainly domestic activities were a strong factor which determined the rate of transition to secondary schools education, with 80(39.8%) pupils strongly agreeing and 93(46.3%)

agreeing giving a total of 173 respondents (86.1%) who agreed that girls cannot join secondary school education because they were involved in many household activities. Seven (3.5%) pupils were undecided and 21 (10.5%) disagreed. Abagi, (1993) noted that girls are expected by African tradition or culture to learn to be motherly by helping their mothers to take care of the home, to cook, to take care of the family members (kitchen specialists) and since gender roles for girls are many and continuous. They have to learn to work long hours as their mothers where as boys tend to have few gender related roles. Such practices have direct effect on girl-child participation in education and hence transition to secondary school education. Similarly previous study by Nyamwange(2007) showed that boys will be boys as a fact of nature and girls will always grow up to be future mothers and domestic co-curriculum is their only option. They therefore end up performing poorly in schools thus lowering their chances of scoring good marks to enable them to enroll in secondary schools. The parents and the society as a whole should thus be educated on equity in the assignment household duties to both boys and girls, to enable all children grow up to be independent and responsible individuals.

Pre-marital pregnancies was also viewed as a major cause of low transition rate, only 2(3.0%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members disagreed with no respondent who strongly disagreed while the rest of the respondents, 50(96.2%) agreed that pregnancies is a major factor of low transition rate. Equally table 11 revealed that girls' pregnancy is a factor in transition rate where 105 (52.2%) pupils strongly agreed and 82(40.8%) agreed. This means a total of 187(93.0%) agreed that low transition rate was attributed to pre-marital pregnancies and the remaining 12(7.0%) were undecided or disagreed.

This shows that pre-marital pregnancies was a major concern in the study area. The 1994 National Symposium on education of girls held in Machakos led to the formation of guidelines for re-admission into the mainstream of formal education of adolescent mothers who had dropped out of school due to pregnancy. However the school re-entry policy which could increase the number of girls' enrollment in secondary schools, to date lacks clear and effective directions or mechanism for implementation (Chege and Sifuna, 2006). The government needs therefore to recast this policy and take urgent action to enhance the re-admission of the school girls- mothers currently out of school in order to enhance their educational opportunities. Similarly the government should collaborate with other NGOs for example FAWE who drafted the policy to ensure that girls who fall pregnant go back to school.

Additionally, early marriage was considered as one of the cultural factors where 45(86.5%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed that early marriages contribute to low transition rate of girls to secondary school education. Three(5.8%) of them were undecided and only 4(7.7%) disagreed. Approximately 133(66.1%) of the pupils agreed that girls get married instead of proceeding to secondary school education. In most cases it is reinforced by circumstances such as lack of school fees, other necessities, furthermore failure of parents to encourage them to further their studies. About 13 (6.5%) were undecided and 55 (27.3%) disagreed. There is need for policies and strategies to ensure girls of school going age are in school and are not withdrawn from school and married off before completing their education. At the same time men responsible for marrying or making school girls pregnant should be severed punished so as to serve as a lesson to others.

Head teachers, teachers and PTA members' perception on customs and beliefs were spread out from agreeing to disagreeing with 8(15.4%) respondents being undecided, 21(40.4%) agreed whereas 44.2% disagreed. Therefore respondents did not consider customs and beliefs as a strong or important cause of low transition rate of girls to secondary education. Equally pupils pointed out that cultural beliefs and customs were not major factors which determine transition rate of girls in the study area. Almost five times more respondents disagreed that cultural beliefs and customs for example FGM limits the chances of girls joining secondary education, that is 157(78.1%) (41.3%) strongly disagreed and 36.8% disagreed) whereas only 32(15.9%) agreed to this statement. Normally, initiation ceremonies are held over the school vacation and many initiated girls find it difficult to return to school and concentrate on studies after initiation. This is because they are expected to get married soon after. The findings of this study however showed that the cases of FGM have drastically dropped in the study area as a result of concerted efforts by the government and NGOs. But these campaigns should be strengthened to totally eliminate the negative cultural customs and beliefs in areas where they are still practiced.

4.2.4 Economic Determinants

Economic determinants are both direct cost (for instance school fees, transport among other expenses) and indirect cost (which is the opportunity cost, that is the pay offs to alternate activities). Tables 11 and 12 below present respondents' responses on economic determinants.

Table 11: Economic Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)

	S	A	A	1	U		Ι)	S	D	TOT	AL
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%
Lack of school fees	30	57.7	20	38.5	0	0	2	3.8	0	0	52	100
Inadequate school places	1	1.9	12	23.1	1	1.9	22	42.3	16	30.8	52	100
Higher opportunity cost of sending girls to schools	3	5.8	18	34.6	4	7.7	19	36.5	8	15.4	52	100
Poor parents invest their limited resources in boys	17	32.7	25	48.1	4	7.7	6	11.5	0	0	52	100

Table12: Economic Determinants (Pupils)

	S	4	A	1	U		L)	S	D	TOT	ΊΑL
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Parents are poor	98	48.8	95	47.3	1	0.5	4	2.0	3	1.5	201	100
Inadequate secondary school places	17	8.5	20	10.0	4	2.0	65	32.3	95	47.3	201	100
Girls are involved in income generating activities	43	21.4	85	42.3	16	8.0	41	20.4	16	8.0	201	100
Parents prefer to pay fees for boys than girls	45	22.4	57	28.4	8	4.0	52	25.9	39	19.4	201	100

4.2.4.1 Lack of School Fees

The results from table 11 shows that, twenty five times 50(86.2%) as many head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed (57.7% strongly agreed and 38.5% agreed) that lack of school fees is a cause to low transition rate of girls to secondary education compared to only 2 respondents (3.8%) who disagreed.

From table 12, it can be observed that parental financial background is also a major bottleneck to transition rate among the girls. Overwhelmingly 96.1% of the total pupils agreed 98(48.8%) strongly agreed and 95(47.3%) agreed to the fact that poorer parents cannot pay school fees for their children, only 7(3.5%) disagreed. Though there are bursaries and free secondary education, many parents argued that the escalating secondary school fees un-affordable considering their meager income from farming. It was found that children of farmers were more likely to be affected than those whose parents were employed in formal sector. One PTA member retorted:

"The main reason why most parents cannot take their children to secondary schools is because, the school fees are very high and majority of the parents are unemployed and do not have regular or reliable income.

Major emphasize should however, be placed on diversification of income generating activities and not only on traditional farming such as livestock keeping in the study area Adoption of modern methods/techniques of farming could provide an opportunity for poverty alleviation. More importantly household economy should be revived by opening new and reliable sources of income to supplement traditional ones in agriculture, so that parents can be able to meet costs of secondary education considering that farming is unpredictable. In addition the government should remain committed in the delivery of recently introduced free secondary education.

4.2.4.2 Inadequate Secondary school Places

A total of 38 (73.1%) head teachers, teachers and PTA members disagreed that inadequate secondary school places was a determinant to transition rate of girls and 13(25%) agreed. Table 12 indicates that 160(79.6%) of the pupils disagreed that inadequate secondary school places was the reason for low transition rate while 4(2.0%) were undecided and 37(18.5%) agreed that the girls missed places in secondary

school education. These contradicts Kasente (1995), findings in Uganda who found out that boys secondary school places were more than that of girls.

The observation is that the Kenyan government has done a commendable work especially with the introduction of Constituency Development Fund which has seen establishment of several day- secondary schools and additional facilities in existing schools. However with the introduction FPE, the government should ensure that the numbers of secondary schools places are increased to match the increased population of primary school pupils to avoid shortages of secondary school places.

4.2.4.3 Higher Opportunity Cost of Sending Girls to School

Head teachers, teachers and PTA members were divided on whether higher opportunity cost of sending girls to school was a factor which influenced girls' access to secondary education. A total of 21 (40.4%) agreed, 4 (7.7%) were undecided and 27 (51.9%) disagreed. On the other hand pupils viewed opportunity cost of sending girls to the secondary education to be higher because from table 12, 128(63.7%) agreed (21.4% strongly agreed and 42.3% agreed) that girls get involved in income generating activities and 57(28.4%) disagreed. These findings are in agreement with Chege and Sifuna (2006) who argued that, girls tend to be victims of dropping out as opposed to boys in families with low socio-economic status, especially domestic and child care chores. There is need for community to be empowered, mobilized and sensitized on inhibitive cultural practices to girls' education especially on child labour. In addition child labour laws should be enforced.

4.2.4.4 Poor Parents Invest Their Limited Resources in Boys than in Girls

Majority 42(80.8%) of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed that poor parents were likely to invest their limited resources in boys education than in girls'

education. Four(7.7%) of them were undecided and only six (11.5%) disagreed. Over a half (50.8%) of pupils agreed that parents prefered to pay fees for boys than girls particularly in cases of limited resources while 8(4%) of the respondents were undecided and 91(45.3%) disagreed. It appears that when money is scarce parents prefer to invest in their sons' education because of the anticipated economic returns. Seemingly many households prefer to "use" girls as a source of income instead of sending them to secondary schools; hence child labour is common especially in households with economic hardships. These finding concurs with Wamahiu (1991) who pointed out that, hard economic situations in poor homes make girls easy prey for men who ensnare them with cash and gifts Parents should be made aware of the benefits that the economy of a country derives from investiment in women education, which among others include lower infant mortality rate and raising healthy families, (GoK, 2007).

4.2.5 School Related Determinants

School related factors consist of such factors as the effectiveness of teaching, attitude of the teachers, school policy, and the quality of the physical environment and the relevance of the curriculum. According to the Government document on 'Gender Policy on Education' of 2007, (GoK, 2007) school environment that is gender insensitive includes school infrastructure and amenities such as water and sanitation, curriculum, teaching and learning materials which include textbooks, pedagogy, school management and guidance and counseling.

The factors considered to influence transition rate of girls to secondary education in this study were, school facilities/environment, attitude from teachers, academic performance, school distance from home, curriculum, guidance and counseling and sexual harassment. Tables 14 and 15 show respondents' response on school related determinants to transition rates.

Table 13: School Related Determinants (H/T, T&PTA)

	SA		A		1	U		D		SD		TOTAL	
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq.	%	
Poor school facilities	2	3.8	16	30.8	4	7.7	21	40.8	9	17.3	52	100	
Less attention from teachers	2	3.8	4	7.7	1	1.9	18	34.6	27	51.9	52	100	
Girls perform poorly	1	1.9	18	34.6	1	1.9	18	34.6	14	26.9	52	100	
Long distance from home	1	1.9	22	42.3	3	5.8	18	34.6	8	15.4	52	100	
Biased curriculum	0	0	7	13.5	7	13.5	17	32.7	21	40.5	52	100	
Poor teaching/learn ing	0	0	11	21.2	6	11.5	21	40.4	14	26.9	52	100	
Lack of guidance and counseling	23	44. 2	26	50.0	0	0	3	5.8	0	0	52	100	
Sexual harassment	4	7.7	34	65.4	3	5.8	8	15.4	3	5.8	52	100	

Table14: School Related Determinants (Pupils)

	SA A U			Γ)	SI	D	TOT	ΆL			
Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Girls received	7	3.5	15	7.5	6	3.0	85	42.3	88	43.8	201	100
less												
attention from												
teachers												
Poor school	19	9.5	36	17.9	4	2.0	82	40.8	60	29.9	201	100
facilities												
Girls	16	8.0	40	19.9	10	5.0	79	39.3	56	27.9	201	100
performed												
Poorly												
Long distance	34	16.9	84	41.8	5	2.5	50	24.9	28	13.9	201	100
from home to												
school												
Sexual	35	17.4	88	43.8	8	4.0	36	17.9	34	16.9	201	100
harassment												
Lack of	83	41.3	84	41.8	1	0.5	28	13.9	5	2.5	201	100
guidance												
and												
counselling												

4.2.5.1 School Facilities

The implication from table 13 is that, school facilities were not a major factor in transition rate of girls; 30(57.7%) respondents disagreed and 18 (34.6%) agreed. Similarly from the point of view of pupils, school facilities did not inhibit girls from proceeding to secondary school, whereas 142(70.7%) disagreed, 55(27.4%) agreed. Respondents did not see it to be a problem perhaps because of the current state of facilities which were seen to be fairly good.

4.2.5.2 Teachers Attention

On teachers' individual attention to pupils, majority of the head teachers, teachers and PTA members, 45 (86.5%) disagreed that girls received less attention from their teachers than boys whereas 6(11.5%) agreed and 1(2%) respondent was undecided. As indicated in Table14, a majority 173(86.1%) of the pupils asserted that teachers give equal attention to all students irrespective of their gender.

4.2.5.3 Distance Walked from Home to School

Close to half of head teachers, teachers and PTA members 23 (44.2%) thought that long distance walked from home to school was a determinant to low transition rate of girls, 3 (5.8%) were undecided and 26 (50%) disagreed. Moreover table 14 reveals that more than half (58.7%) of the pupils agreed that long distances walked from home to school determined the transition rate of girls, whereas 5 (2.5%) of them were undecided and 78 (38.8%) disagreed. These results are in line with the findings by Ayiga (1997) who found that dropout was higher for female children who walked five or more kilometers to school.

Long distance from home to school means that pupils arrive school late and tired, therefore they are not able to concentrate in class or spend time doing punishment because of coming to school late. In addition they arrive home late and do not have enough time to do school homework bearing in mind that girls too have multiple chores to do before the day ends. All these contribute to poor performance in school and thus low transition to secondary education.

There is need to target support to boarding schools for girls in ASALs, and needy areas. Implementation of affirmative action in secondary education to address the needs of the marginalized and/or those in difficult circumstances becomes imperative.

4.2.5.4 School Curriculum

Head teachers, teachers and PTA members did not view curriculum as an important factor that determined the rate of transition of girls. A total of 38 (73.1%) disagreed and only 7(13.5%) agreed. Equally majority of them saw that low transition rate was not as a result of poor teaching and learning methods, 35(67.3%) respondents

disagreed 6 (11.5%) were undecided and 11 (21.2%) agreed. Perhaps this is a result of the frequent review of curriculum to ensure they are gender responsive (GoK, 2007). In-service and pre-service of teachers should incorporate gender awareness courses. In addition teachers could be empowered to take up the responsibility of implementing the relevant changes in classroom, school and communities in order to promote gender equity and quality. Moreover the government could partner with the private sector, for example FAWE, which organizes program to equip teachers with pedagogical skills that help them to take cognizance of girls, specialized needs and to train them in gender responsive management.

4.2.5.5 Guidance and Counseling

Overwhelmingly, a total of 49(94.2%) respondents out of 52 agreed that lack of guidance and counseling was the cause of low transition rate and only 3(5.8%) of the respondents disagreed. As can be discerned from table 14, the majority of the pupils were of the view that guidance and counseling was a significant determinant of transition rate 167(83.1%) compared to only 33(15.5%) who disagreed. According to Chege and Fatuma, (2006), the Kenyan government does not provide effective guidance to ensure that schools are not only learner friendly but also that they are gender responsive to ensure that girls are made to feel safe at school. They further pointed out that in cases where resources were available to the girls, career information and counseling remained wanting. There is need therefore to build a strong institutional framework on guidance and counseling in schools and capacity building among the key actors. Furthermore there is need to prepare and disseminate training modules in guidance and counseling to schools and strengthen guidance and counseling in pre-service and in-service training of teachers. In particular there is need to document and disseminate timely information on how to cope with maturation

process, emerging issues (HIV/AIDS and effects of drugs) and the role of peer counseling. Most importantly the government should put in place mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating Guidance and Counseling programs for corrective measures.

4.2.5.6 Sexual Harassment

Similarly a great majority of head teachers, teachers and PTA members agreed that girls were being sexually harassed by boys/teachers hence lowering their transition rate. A total of 38(73.1%) respondents agreed, 3 (5.8%) were undecided and 11,(21.2%) disagreed. Close to twice the number of pupils agreed that girls were being sexually harassed by boys/ teachers and therefore could not proceed with their education. A total of 123(61.2%) respondents agreed that girls are being sexually harassed compared to 70(34.8%) who disagreed. This calls for the need to strengthen, intensify and improve guidance and counseling in schools so as to help girls cope with social challenges. Further, there should be strict enforcement of sex education rules governing teacher and pupils relationship.

4.2.5.7 Girls Performance Compared to Boys

Head teachers, teachers and PTA members opined that boys and girls were equally likely to perform well in school. Approximately 32(61.5%) of them disagreed that girls' poor performance contributed to low transition while 19(36.5%) disagreed. In addition more than twice of the pupils disagreed that girls perform poorly compared to boys that is 135(67.2%) and 56(27.9%) of the pupils disagreed and agreed respectively. This contradicts the stereotype view that boys are more intelligent than girls. Boys and girls can perform equally well academically if only other factors such

as sexual harassment were checked, provision of the required facilities for girls such as sanitation and guidance/counseling were adequately addressed.

4.2.6 Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys

According to World Bank, (2008), Transition in education describes the flow of students between different stages in the school system from one level to the next, between grades within a given level. It is the proportion of school leavers from one level that are enrolled at the next level. The tables below present respondents' responses on the perceived level of transition rate of girls.

Level is taken as the relative position or degree of girls (quantity) who proceed to secondary as compared to boys from each primary school.

Table 15: Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys (H/T, T &PTA)

Level	Frequency	Percent
Low	32	61.5
Average	20	38.5
High	0	0
Total	52	100.0

It is apparent from table 15 that majority of the respondents 32(61.5%) noted that the rate of transition of girls compared to boys was low and 20(38.5%) considered it average.

Table16: Level of Transition Rate of Girls Compared to Boys (Pupils)

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Low	131	65.2
Average	61	30.3
High	9	4.5
Total	201	100

It can be observed from table 16 that the majority of the pupils responded that girls transition rate in their school was low. Out of 201 respondents more than half 131 (65.2%) said there was low transition rate of girls to secondary education, 61(30.3%) of them were of the opinion that it was average and 9(4.5%) viewed it to be high. There is no doubt therefore that there is inequality in transition rate between boys and girls. As already noted, boys were given more chances than girls to access secondary education. Low transition rates means pupils either dropout of the education system or repeat. Repetition means that pupils have to go over the same course twice.

The pupils may thus get depressed and dropout of school leading to wastage. This contradicts World Bank(2008), finding in Lesotho where more girls completed primary school because they repeat grades less often and less likely to drop out of school and therefore their transition to secondary education was higher than that of boys.

4.3 Results and Discussion of Qualitative Data

Focus group discussion is a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perception on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non threatening environment. The discussion is often relaxed, comfortable and enjoyable as the participants share

their ideas and perceptions. In this study, focus group discussion was carried out in seven schools where groups of pupils were asked questions related to girls' transition rate. The participants freely presented their views which were recorded using a tape recorder and later transcribed, summarized and reported. The focus group discussion centered around three main items, namely: Level of girls' transition rate, determinants of transition rate among girls and measures to increase the current transition rate of girls.

4.3.1 Level of Girls Transition Rate

According to World Bank, (2008), transition from primary to secondary school conveys the degree of access or transition between the two levels. Completing primary education is a prerequisite for participating in secondary school. Therefore, primary education completion rate is an indicator and measures the educational outcome at the primary level.

In all group discussions held, the participants said that the level of transition rate for girls in their respective schools were low. One respondent reported:

"There have been low transition rate of girls in my school for the last five years I have been here. There are always fewer girls going to form one compared to boys".

The number of boys who successfully complete primary education and enroll in form one is more than that of girls. Although most girls said they wish to join form one and further their education, there was fear in them that they might not achieve their dreams. One girl noted:

"I wish to be a doctor or a pilot in future, but I fear because right now very few women can go that far. Even if I work hard as a girl I will only manage to be a teacher, social worker or a nurse."

This reflects the influence of largely service oriented socialization girl child receive at home. It was also found that career aspiration among girls was limited compared to that of the boys. There is need to strengthen career departments in schools to enable pupils to have a foresight in their education. Furthermore the ministry of education should review students' promotion policy to enable ease transition of students from one level to another. It is noteworthy that a low transition rate signals such problems as an inadequate examination and promotion system or insufficient secondary capacity (World Bank, 2008).

4.3.2 Social Determinants

There were two main social determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls. They included: lack of parental encouragement and care; and, lack of role models.

4.3.2.1 Lack of Parental Encouragement and Care

Lack of parental encouragement and care among parents discourages girls from proceeding in their education. Some pupils noted that their parents were irresponsible and alcoholic hence setting bad example to their children. One pupil said:

"My father does not care about us at all, every day he leaves home early in the morning and comes back late at night totally drunk. He leaves all the responsibilities to my mother and more worse a time he beats mum and us at night and throws us out of the home state."

These findings agrees with Abdulai (2005) studies in Maasai land who found out that fathers do not wish to pay fees for their daughters instead they marry them off.

4.3.2.2 Lack of Role Models

Lack of role models too, came out as a factor where most female adults in some areas were poorly educated and could not motivate girls. A boy said:

"In my village, there are no learned women. All teachers and other civil servants are men. This therefore discourages girls to further their education because the girls think that they will end up being housewives just like their mothers."

4.3.2.3 Social Life

It emerged that social life in the study area fails to motivate and encourage the girl-child to further their education; consequently girls had no clear vision about the importance of education. Parents should therefore be encouraged to set good examples to their children, be responsible, caring and able to motivate their children to work hard in school. In addition gender equity should be considered especially when providing teaching staff to schools in ASAL areas, so that all schools have at least one female teacher to act as role model and also provide the necessary guidance and counseling to the girls.

4.3.3 Cultural Determinants

4.3.3.1 Cultural beliefs and customs

Cultural beliefs and customs were noted as factors contributing to low transition by discouraging the girls from pursuing education. According to one respondent:

"When the girls go for circumcision they are taught how to be good wives and after this parents tell them to get married so that they can get animals in form of dowry."

It appears from this phrase that initiation ceremonies act as obstacles to the education of the girl-child. It instills negative attitudes to the girls about education. The circumcised girls are expected to get married and raise a family immediately after initiation, instead of going back to school.

4.3.3.2 Gender Multiple Roles

Another cultural determinant that contributed to low transition rate of girls was gender multiple roles. One girl had this to say:

"We girls have a lot to do at home, first when I wake up in the morning, I have to prepare breakfast for the whole family and wash utensils before I leave for school. While at school we clean classrooms and boys just go to the field to play. Later in the evening we fetch firewood, water, do cleaning, prepare supper and even milk the cows. More often we go to bed late and tired.

The general picture is that most girls do a lot of work while at home. When they get home after school they are assigned a lot of domestic activities including preparing food for the family while the boys get time to do home work and study. It is more likely that girls under these conditions hardly get time to do homework in the evening and were unlikely to concentrate in class the following day. According to Ali, (2000), in most developing countries, parents keep their daughters at home to help with household chores. The girls cook, clean the house, fetch water and help their mothers care for young children especially when a mother dies, fall ill or is overworked.

4.3.3.3 Early Marriages and Pregnancies

Early marriages and pregnancies also adversely affect girls' prospects of joining secondary schools. A girl from the one discussion group pointed out that:

"My friend passed her KCPE very well but she was not able to join form one because she was pregnant. She is now at home taking care of her child and there is very little to be done to avert the situation since the harm is already done."

The implication is that once a girl gets pregnant or married the chances of her getting back to school are very low since it is considered a waste of resources on the already "spoilt child". This is a reflection that the return-to school policy for adolescent mothers has had little if any effect in the Kenyan schools. Campaigns and sensitization programs should be intesified in communities on the negative effects of early marriages and pregnancies and cultural beliefs such as FGMs on the education of girls.

4.3.4 Economic Determinants

4.3.4.1 Poverty

Poverty among the parents was found to be a very common factor mentioned in all the group discussions. Poor parents are not able to send their children to secondary school because of their economic circumstances. Parents will struggle to provide the very basic needs such as food and overlook education of girls. This reluctance lies in their inability to pay the relatively exorbitant school fees and to meet other related costs. One boy asserted:-

"With these climatic conditions, our parents cannot afford to send us to secondary school. For example, last year my parents had planted about three acres of millet but when the rains failed to come, the plants wilted and in the end we did not harvest anything. Animals too were not spared, the prolonged drought saw my parents lose twenty herds of cattle and ten goats."

Though the area of study was a potential land for agriculture, its potentiality is largely limited by the limited rainfall that is received in some areas. Otherwise under irrigation and when there is adequate rainfall, the farms provide higher yields resulting in higher income which can be used to educate their children. It was pointed out that although the government had introduced free education in primary and secondary levels, their benefits had been realized due to levies headteachers had introduced. These levies included building funds, boarding fees among others, which are usually exaggerated by school administration. As one girl put it:

"I had to stay at home for three weeks because my parents could not buy me school uniform and exercise books which we were not given when school opened, the teachers said the government has not released the free education funds."

The government should therefore demonstrate its commitment on FPE and FSE by disbursing the monies on time. In addition it should provide guidelines on levies school can charge to curb the arbitrary increase in school fees especially in boarding secondary schools. It also emerged that allocation of bursaries is mired with corrupt practices where needy students failed to benefit from the funds. The government

through the Local administration and the Ministry of Education should provide clear guidelines for identifying needy and deserving students for bursary allocation. More attention should also be given to the orphans and those from poor background. It is through such intervention measures that more girls can get access to secondary education hence increased transition rate. One girl had this to say on options available when fees were not available:

"When your parents cannot raise school fees to send you to secondary school, they tell you to go to town to be a housemaid so that you can provide for the family up keep or get you married to get animals in-form of dowry" (Focus group).

4.3.4.2 The Opportunity Cost of Sending Girls to School

The opportunity cost of sending girls to school is perceived by many parents to be high. More often, parents will prefer to pay school fees for their sons to go to school than their daughter. The focus group discussion indicated a high opportunity cost of girls education. This is because in many communities child labour is critical for their survival. Schooling therefore represents a higher opportunity cost; poor families would rather send their girls into domestic labour market in exchange of regular cash income and in such situations the girls have little or no opportunity to return to school. Strategies to alleviate poverty could provide solution to this problem. A boy said:

"My sister had passed her KCPE examination well but my dad paid school fees for my younger brother. This is because parents believe boys are important. They think if they educate the girl, the wealth will be taken to her future family but the boy will remain in the homestead."

The study findings showed that decision making on educational investment are often gender related. Some parents believe that boys are more intelligent and therefore a better educational investment than girls. This is a reflection of patrilineal inheritance system where boys are favoured in human capital investment as parents perceive girls education as a waste of money since they will be married off and benefits transferred

to another family. There is need to create awareness in the communities on the importance of education of girls and enhance education for all children regardless of the gender.

4.3.5 School Related Determinants

4.3.5.1 Guidance and Counseling

Lack of guidance and counseling appeared to have more influence on transition rate of girls. According to one girl:

"No one gives us direction on what we should do, at school female teachers rarely get time to talk or assist us when we face challenges. Particularly those relating to body development. Still at home our parents are very busy with other things and do not bother to find out how we are fairing on. In the end we use trial and error methods and this leads to early marriages and pregnancies."

It featured that many schools do not have proper guidance and counselling section for the developing pupils. Most pupils were undergoing adolescent stage at a critical time in their development when they needed to be guided on different changes they go through. Lack of advice has increased drop out of girls because most of them ended up being cheated into early sex, resulting to pregnancy and early marriage.

4.3.5.2 Distance Walked From Home to School

Long distance from home to school too emerged to be a challenge especially in cases where pupils attended evening preps in school and needed to walk long distances late at night in sparsely populated regions on difficult terrain. More often they are not safe particularly from young men and boys. A girl had this to say:

"My home is about five kilometers from school; therefore I wake up very early in the morning to walk for one hour. At times I get permission to leave school earlier than other pupils; this means I do not attend evening preps/studies. To make matters worse it is not safe for me to walk late in the evening, I can meet a stranger who can harm me."

Affirmative action programs such as establishment of boarding facilities in ASALs could enhance increased education participation and transition rates of girls.

4.3.5.3 Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment was mentioned in all discussions. A girl pointed out that:

"Some teachers and boys really bother us, when they do this especially if he is a class teacher or a boy in your class you fail to concentrate in class this often result to poor performance and even pregnancies."

It was noted that boys and teachers take advantage of the young growing girls. Sexual harassment either verbal harassment or physical abuse often leads to withdrawal from school, unwanted pregnancies and poor performance. It was suggested that school administration should strengthen guidance and counseling programs, including counseling by peers, teachers and parents. Moreover role models could be invited to give talks to the pupils. Guidance and counseling should be stepped up and professional training provided to guidance and counseling teachers by MOE so as to equip them with relevant knowledge and skills to enable them counsel pupils faced with social and academic challenges.

More importantly heavy penalties should be applied to those who employ school-going girls and those who harass girls sexually. According to (FAWE, 2004), solution to gender parity is in sex education because girls are highly vulnerable to sexual abuse at puberty. The time they display signs of sexual maturation, girls are at risk of getting pregnant as early as at nine years of age. It therefore follows that sex education should be introduced in upper primary education to enlighten girls on sex related issues in order to reduce incidences of dropout due to pregnancies and early marriages.

4.4 Data from Document Analysis

The researcher perused various school records such as KCPE results and admission documents to get the information on the number of pupils who sat for KCPE examinations and those who joined form one from 2004 to 2008 by gender. This data

was used to calculate transition rate of the schools under study using the formula marked Appendix IV.

Table 17: Primary to secondary education transition rate by sex from schools under study 2004-2008

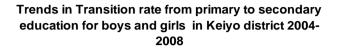
Year	2004		2005		2006		2007		2008	
	Boys	Girls								
Class 8 enrolment	129	101	142	97	126	119	145	123	140	147
Form 1 enrolment	71	36	79	41	63	46	87	48	80	53
Transition rate	55.04	35.64	55.62	42.27	50.00	38.60	60.00	39.24	57.14	36.05

The rates are rounded off to 2 decimal places.

This shows the percentage of girls and boys who got access to secondary education after successfully completing primary education and sat for the KCPE examinations. World Bank, (2008), define transition rate to secondary school as, the number of new entrants to the first grade of secondary school in a given year as a percentage of the number of students enrolled in the final grade of primary school in the previous year.

Table 5, Shows that transition rate of boys for the five years between 2004-2008 was slightly above 50% and of girls remained below 50%. The lowest rate was in 2004 when 35.64% was achieved compared to 55.04 for boys. The highest girls' transition rate was in 2005 at 42.27. However this rate dropped in the subsequent years down to 36.05 in 2008. It can also be discerned from the table that transition rate for girls was always less than that for boys. These rates are relatively lower than the Sessional

Paper No. 1 of 2005(GoK, 2005b) that targeted transition rate of girls of 70 percent by 2008.



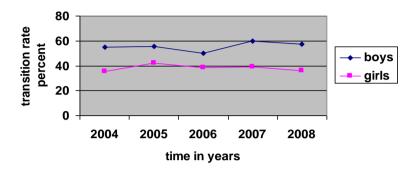


Figure 2: Trends in Transition Rates from Primary to Secondary Education in Keiyo-2004-2008

These figures on average are far below the current national transition rate of 47%, relatively low compared to 95% in industrialized countries and 50% for African countries (excluding Sub-Saharan Africa which includes Kenya). This confirms findings which show that transition to secondary education in Sub-Saharan Africa has rather been static over the past decades (World Bank, 2008).

The next chapter presents summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents discussions of the findings of the study together with the conclusions from the findings. Recommendations from the study are also provided. Suggestions for further research too are included in this chapter.

The study was designed to examine determinants of transition rate of girls in Keiyo District. The guiding research question was; what are the determinants of transition rates among girls from primary to secondary education? The study combined two approaches to data analysis: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative aspects focused on responses from sample selected from schools. Focus group discussion was organized to supplement quantitative data and to gain an insight into the various determinants of transition rate.

5.2 Summary of findings

The essential findings and the results of the study revealed that inequality still exist, that is girls transition rate from primary to secondary was lower compared to that of boys. The possibilities for making better the profitability of education, is through elimination of biases in the transition rate attributed to social, cultural, economic and school related factors.

The first objective was to determine the percentage of girls who gain access to secondary education. The study revealed that, for the five years 2004-2008, the percentage of girls who proceeded to secondary school were 35.64%, 42.27%, 38.60%, 39,24% and 36.05% respectively. This shows that transition rate for girls was below 50%. It was further revealed that these rates were less than that of boys for the five years and below government targeted rates of 70% and that of industrialized countries of 95%. The educational stakeholders therefore must plan and strategize carefully so as to increase the current rates otherwise the attainment of the goal of education for all by 2015 and the attainment of Vision 2030 will be a mere dream.

The second objective of the study was to assess social factors that determine transition rate of girls from primary to secondary education. The findings of the study showed that parents did not always encourage their daughters in academic matters. Girls were often given fewer opportunities to go to and remain in school as compared to boys. Majority (90%) of the respondents were in agreement that parents have negative attitudes towards the education of their daughters. These findings agree with Okojie(2001) who found out that parental attitude on gender contribution had significant influence on the provision of education. Okojie further noted that parental attitude was a good predictor in the provision of education especially in the secondary school level. The study findings further revealed that lack of role models was another social factor in the transition rate of girls. It was found out that some schools especially in ASAL, (which predominate the study area) did not have female teachers. (MOEST 2007) asserts that the government should make deliberate efforts to deploy female teachers to rural areas and particularly ASALs to be role models for girls.

The third objective was, to assess economic determinants of transition rate to secondary education among girls. The study revealed that the main cause of low transition rate was the prevailing poverty conditions, in which parents were unable to raise school fees to send their children to school.

Out of the respondents studied over 90% agreed that lack of school fees contributed to low transition rate of girls and gender inequalities in provision of education in cases where parents were faced with limited resources. These findings concur with the findings of Nyamwage (2007) in her studies in Kisii Kenya in which she noted that resources availed by parents to boys and girls were unequally given in favour of the boy child. These findings are more alike to Otunga(1997)studies in Kenya on provision of resources by parents and those of Okojie(2001) in his study in Benin on persisting inequalities in education. They all found that girls from poor households were more likely to be withdrawn from school because of inability of parents to pay school fees or buy other school requirements. Parents tended to discriminate against girls when a choice has to be made between educating a boy or a girl. Girls were often withdrawn from school in times of economic hardships in the family. This agrees with findings of Yungungu(2005) on the perception of girl- child education in Kenya, who found out that the case of limited resources and preferences for boys education to girls education by the parents was common.

In respect of the fourth objective to identify cultural factors that determine transition rate to secondary education, it was found out that almost all pupils 187(93%) considered early pregnancies/ marriage as a challenge which affected transition rate of girls to secondary education. However the head teachers, teachers and PTA members did not view it as a significant factor. Multiple gender roles was a contributing factor

to poor academic performance of girls hence low transition rate, to which 48(92.3%) of head teachers, teachers and PTA member and 173(86.1%) of pupils agreed. The findings also revealed that families tend to heap domestic chores on school going girls each day they return from school.

This burden lowers the standard of performance of girls, therefore denying them a chance for upward mobility in education. These findings are in line with the findings of Abagi(1997) on household based factors as determinants of school participation of girls in Kenya, which showed that division of labour and social relations on gender lines where boys have separate gender roles from girls, had impacted on how girls and boys participate in education.

The fifth objective was to establish school related determinants of transition among girls. The findings showed no significant difference in attention by teachers and school administration between boys and girls at school. As low as 6(11.5%) head teachers, teachers and PTA members and 22(11.0%) pupils agreed that girls get less attention from their teachers. This contradicts what Cole (1989) and Mukhongo (2003) found out in their studies in Kenya. They argued that the head teacher was central to the development of education for equality and had great influence in the provision of education. In the present study attention given to pupils in the school did not seem to be a major issue. Majority of the pupils 173(86.1%) indicated that the attention in the school was favorable to both boys and girls and this factor was not significant in the overall transition of girls. This may be due to changes of attitude among teachers due to the model of training or as a result of external influence.

The findings of this study showed that lack of guidance and counseling was a contributing factor in transition. However long distance from home to school seemed not to be as significant a factor, with 23(44.2%) head teachers, teachers and PTA members and 118(58.7%) pupils agreeing that schools were far from home. Sexual harassment was considered a factor in transition rates of which 38(73.1%) head teachers, teachers and PTA members and 123(61.2%) of the respondents agreed that girls' sexual harassment contributed to lower rate of transition. It was found that, in schools where guidance and counseling department exist, they were ineffective and unoperational. Infact one of the participants in the focus group discussion noted that they only had one session of guidance and counseling per term, whereas this should be a continuous programs.

The findings of the study indicated that education stakeholders should be serious in addressing the persistent gender disparities in education and demonstrate commitment in responding actively and positively to the underlying challenges. These includes social, economic, cultural and school related factors gender biased in order to increase girls chances of joining secondary education. Since all social, cultural, economic and school related factors contribute to low transition rate of girls, all educational stakeholders need to embrace approaches that are multi-dimensional, holistic and participatory. Further, the use of well-designed intervention strategies that increase access of girls to secondary education should be given priority in national and local education planning. Parents and society as a whole should help guide their daughters about school performance while demonstrating good examples by being responsible.

In addition community mobilization and campaigns should be used to sensitize comments on the impact of gender inequalities in the provision of education. To make positive changes in school environment, in-service as well as pre-service training of teachers should incorporate courses that make gender awareness and responsiveness a central focus in education, particularly to strengthen guidance and counseling in schools. Lastly, the role of research in equipping policy makers and planners with information on pertinent issues that retard the education for all should be emphasized when it comes to education policy planning and implementation.

5.3 Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it could be concluded that transition rate of girls in Keiyo district is still characterized by gender inequalities. This signifies educational bias against the girl-child and a general educational wastage which has a negative result to the achievement of National educational objectives/goals and Vision 2030 and growth and development of rural communities. Lack of parental encouragement and lack of role model were two main social factors which limited the chances of girls joining secondary education; poverty was found to be a major bottleneck to girls' transition to secondary education. In addition gender inequality in resource allocation in education and high opportunity cost of sending girls to school were economic determinants of transition rate among girls to secondary education, cultural beliefs /customs, gender multiple roles and early marriage/pregnancies were cultural factors which determined transition rate of girls to secondary education; and majority of the school related factors included in the study were not considered significant transitional factors.

5.4 Recommendations

In order to address the problem of low transition rate there is need to locate gender within broader policy concerns and in the context of global focus on Education For All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and other international conventions and treaties that advocate equal education for every person. It appears that the problem of low transition rate in Keiyo is pervasive in spite of social and economic changes that have been taking place in the community. It would be expected that with the opening up of the community where there are constant interactions with the outside world including deliberate government and NGOs programs it would result to an enlightened society. On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are put forward as road map to increase the current transition rate of girls in Keiyo district;

- 1. All school stakeholders need to work towards eliminating the existing inequalities in provision of secondary education. There is need to factor in gender issues in all education campaigns. So as to meet with the 21st Centuary Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), EFA and the economic survey of 2004 where inequality of opportunity is a major issue should be gender sensitive. This will ensure that by 2015 all children particularly girls and children in difficult circumstances have access to a complete free and compulsory primary/secondary education of good quality.
- 2. There is need to sensitize parents, teachers, school management and the entire community/society on the need for gender parity in Secondary school education and other levels. Similarly there is need to have more long term educational strategies that address the underlying social and cultural structures that sustain gender inequalities.

- Poverty reduction strategies need to be adopted through introduction of reliable sources of income to supplement agriculture; in addition policies should be reviewed to increase credit facilities for the poor.
- 4. Peer and individual guidance and counseling to be encouraged and be established where they are not in schools. Generally, this will greatly help to curb girls' social and developmental challenges. In addition there need to establish modalities for dealing with sexual harassment in schools. Government too should collaborate with other stakeholders in establishing and improve boarding facilities in schools in ASAL areas and provide effective guidance on how to ensure that schools are gender-responsive for instance recasting policies to address sexual maturation, and all reforms should be followed with palpable strategies and actions to ensure they are implemented.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

For proper conclusions to be made on whether social, cultural, economic, or school related factors contribute to low transition rate among girls to secondary education. It is suggested that the following investigations be conducted.

- 1. A similar study can be done in other Districts to check whether or not the findings documented in this study can be generalized for the entire Kenyan Schools.
- 2. A study on the effect of Free Primary Education on Transition rate to secondary education among primary school girls should be undertaken.

REFERENCES

- Abagi, J. O. (1993). Education For All in Kenya: Improving access and retention of marginalized grouped within the school system in Basic Education for All, Vol. 111. Basic Education Resource Centre for Eastern and South Africa.
- Abagi, J. O. and Sheila, W. (1995) Gender Equity as a challenge for implementation of Education For All (EFA). A research paper prepared for a workshop. Basic Education Form 6: 35-42.
- Abagi, O. Wamahiu, S. and Owino, W. (1997). Houses Based factors as Determinants of School Participation of Girls in Kenya; The case of Nairobi and Siaya. Nairobi: Academic Science Publishers.
- Aduda, D. (2001 July 2 pp11). *Kenya News Agency*, Daily Nation, Nairobi: Nation Media Group.
- Aduda, D. and Muito, M. (2003). Evaluation of Child friendly: Gender Responsive and Stimulating class strategy. Nairobi: UNICEF, KCO.
- Abdulai, A. (2005, July 12). *Lack of Fees affecting girls in Maasai*, Daily Nation, Nairobi: Nation Media Group.
- Ali, C.G. (2000) Wastage in primary school Education and their Implication for Curriculum Development In Central Division of Marsabit District-Kenya. Unpublished M.Phil.Thesis, Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.
- Atkinson, G.B.J. (1983). Economics of Education, London: Hodder and Stoughtun.
- Ayiga, N. (1997). Causes of Low Enrolment and High Dropout rate in Primary Education Among Female Children. Kampala: Academic Science Publishers.
- Boit, J.M (1998). "Financing of Higher Education in Kenya: The Case for Selective Loan Programme". Unpublished Thesis, University of Bristol: Bristol.
- Cammish, N. K. and Brock, C.(1994). "State, Status and Status Quo; Factors affecting the Education Of Girls in Cameroon." International Journal of Education Development.
- Chege, A. N. (1983). *Education for Maasai Girls; Socio-Economic Background*, Unpublished M. A. Education thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Chege, F.N. and Sifuna, N.D. (2006) Girls' and women's Education in Kenya, Gender perspective and trends, UNESCO Nairobi.

- Cole, M. (1989). *Equality of Education London*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Cohen, L. and Manion, C (2003), *Research Methods in Education*, London: Croom Helm Ltd.
- Commission of Higher Education (2005), *Universities coordination of post secondary school instituitions*. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Deabster K. (1995). Seen but not heart, Girls Educational Barrier in secondary school in Western Kenya, Kenya University Bureau of Educational Research.
- Campbell, B.P. (2004). *The Gender wars in Education, Wesley Centre for women*, Groton, M.A: Wesley and Campell- Kibler Associates.
- Donald, K. K. and Delno, L.O.T.(2006) *Proposal and Thesis Writing An Introduction*, Nairobi: PaulinesPublications Africa.
- Eshiwani G.S. (1985); *The education of women in Kenya 1975 -1984* Bureau of Education Research. Nairobi: Kenyatta University.
- Forum for African Women Educationalist. [FAWE](2004). Review of National Education Policies and plans for potential for scaling up Good practices in Girls Education. Nairobi: FAWE
- GoK. (2002). National Development Plan 2002-2008, Nairobi: Government Printers.
- GoK. (2005a). Kenya Education Sector Support Programme2005-2010. Delivering Quality Education and Training to all Kenyans. Nairobi. Office of the President and Ministry of Home Affairs.
- GoK. (2005b). Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on A policy Framework for Education Training and Research. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- GoK. (2007). Gender Policy in Education, Nairobi: Government Printers.
- http://www.cse.standard/gender-gap -in education.
- Juma, N. M. (1994). Determinants of Female participation in Primary Education; A study of Kwale and Taita Taveta District. Kenya, Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Kasente, D. H. (1995). Processes Influencing Gender Differences In Access to Post Secondary Institution in Uganda, Nairobi: Academic Science Publishers.
- Kariuki, J. (The Standard, 2005 June 23rd pp 6). *Old Habit Die Hard. A Survey Report.* The Standard. Nairobi: The Standard Group.

- Kenya National Commission of Human Rights.(2005). The state of Human Rights Report 2003-2004 Deficit, Critique and Recommendation. Nairobi: KNCHR.
- Kenya National Union of Teachers KNUT. (2006), *Education Policy Document*, KNUT Head Office Nairobi Kenya.
- Kerlinger F. N. (1973) *Faundation of Behaviour Research* 2nd *Ed.* New Delhi: Subject Publication.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1983). Foundations of Behavioural Research 2nd Edition. New York: Rinehart and Winston Inc.
- Koech, D. (1999). *Total Integrated Quality Education and Training*, Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Kothari C.R. (2004). *Research Methodology, Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd.
- Krystall, A. (1978). *The Education of Women in Kenya Since Independence*, Bureau of Education Research, University of Nairobi.
- Lucia, S. H. (1997). *Philosophy of meaning, knowledge and value in the* 20th *Century.* London: Fout Ledler.
- Maundu, P. M. and Mathu, G.(1984). Secondary School Dropouts, Cultural casual Factors and other Related problem: A case of Pastoral Communities.

 A Bureau Of Education Research Paper, Kenyatta University.
- Meme, N.N. (1987) "The factors contributing to dropout problem of girls in Primary school in Ithima Location, Igembe Division of Meru District.
- Ministry of Education. (2003). Draft Policy on Gender and Education. A Ministry of Education Report. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Mislery, R (2004). Can there be Reliability without Reliability? Journal of Educational and Behavioural Statistics, Vol.29: 241-244.
- Muganda, B.M. (1998) "Effects of Dropping out of Secondary Education Among Girls in Kenya: A case study of Shinyalu Division, Kakamega District." Unpublished M.Phil. Thesis, Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.
- Mugenda, O. M. and Mugenda, A.G. (1999). Research Methods, Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches. Africa Centre for Technology Studies, Nairobi. Kenya.

- Mukhongo, T.(2003). *Effect of circumcision on Education*. Unpublished Masters, Thesis, Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Namundu, K. (1995). Gender Perspectives in the transformation of Africa: Challenges to the Africa University in women's Higher Education in Africa; Dakar.
- Nkinyangi, J. A. (1980). Socio-Economic Determinants of Repetition and Early School withdrawal at the primary school and their implications for Educational Planning in Kenya: Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis, Stanford University.
- Ntabo, M. M. (1993). Gender Inequalities among the Kisii in relation to land ownership and livestock. Unpublished Master of Education Thesis, Nairobi University of Nairobi. Kenya.
- Nyamwange C.B.(2007)Determination of whether GENDER stereotyping, Parental attitudes and Some school related factors contribute to gender inequalities in the provision of education of Secondary School Education. Unpublished Masers Thesis Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya.
- Nyanamba, T. (2004), July 12th). *Gender and Higher Education*. File:\Document and settings.
- Okojie, C.E.E. (2001) Female-Under Schooling In Africa as assessed by the African, Academiy Of Sciences Research Programme Session 6.1 2001 Niger; University of Benin City.
- Odaga, A. and Henveld, W. (1995). *Girls and Schools in Sub-Saharan Africa: From Analysis To Action*, Washington D.C: The World Ban.
- Opata G. P. (2001); *Negotiating Social Space*. East Africa Micro enterprises Africa World press.
- Orodha A.J. and Kombo D.K. (2000) *Research Methods*, Nairobi, Kenyatta University Institute of Open Learning.
- Otunga R. N. (1997); School participation in Kenya, implication for occupation activities in Kenya and in African development Vol.22 No. 1 Darkar Codesria.
- Pattern M.Q. (2002) *Qualitative research and Evaluation methods* (3rd Edition) London: Sage publication.
- Psacharapoulos, G. and Woodhall, M. (1985). *Education for Development: An Analysis Of Investment Choices*, New York: Oxford University Press.

- Reynolds, L. (2001). Kenya Women, Higher Education and the labour market comparative Education.25(1) 179-195.
- Simmons, J. (1980). An Overview of the Policy Issues in the 1980s in J. Simmon (ed.) The Education Dilemma; Policy Issues for Developing Countries in the 1980s. Oxford: Pergamom Press.
- Sithole Fundire (1995); Gender Research on urbanization planning and everyday life. Harare, Zimbambwe women's Resource centre and Network.
- Summer Lawrance H. (1994); *Investing in all the people educating women in developing countries*, Washington D.C: World Bank.
- Teachers Service Commisssion, *Teachers'* IMAGE vol.14, 2007, Education Policies.
- The World Bank(2008). World Bank Working Paper No. 125 Africa. Human Development Series-Transition in Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Equity and Efficiency issues, Washington DC: World Bank
- Todaro, P. (1985). Economics for a Developing World. An Introduction to principles, Problems and policies for Development. London, Longman.
- Ume-laila(2006). *Impact of Socio-cultural Factors on the Personality Development of Adolescents:* Unpublished D. Phil. Thesis, University of Agriculture Faisalabad, Pakistan.
- UNESCO (1995); Female Participation in Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, UNESCO Division of statistic Paris, France.
- UNESCO (2003) *Gender and Education for ALL, the leap to equality*, The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural organization France.
- UNICEF (1992) *Children and Women in Kenya*. A situational Analysis. Nairobi: Regional Press Ltd.
- Wamahiu, S.P. (1992). 'Educational situation of the Kenyan Girl-Child'. Report submitted to UNICEF Regional office, Nairobi: ERNIKE.
- Wamahiu, S.P., Opondo, F. A. and Nyaka, G. (1992). *Educational Situation of the Kenyan Girl-child*, Nairobi, African Medical and Research Faundation.
- Wamahiu, S.P.(1997) Adolescect Pregnancy and school dropout: Dealing with the Problem, Maputo: Ministry of Education /FAWE.
- Willis Y.O. and Onen D. (2008). A General Guide to writing Research Proposal and Report. Kampala: Makerere University Printers.

- World Bank, (1988). Education in Sub-sahara Africa, Policies for Adjustment Revitalization and Expansion: Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- World Bank (1990) *A World Bank Policy Paper; Primary Education*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2001). World development indicators. Washington DC. USA
- World Bank, (2008), *World Development Indicators*, the International Bank for Reconstruction And Development. Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- <u>www.</u>mychildcostody.org.girl-child.education remain elusive, News from Africa 2004 April.
- Yungungu M. Alice, (2005). The Perception of Society Towards Girl-child Education in Kenya; A case of Secondary Schools in Ainabkoi Division of Uasin Gishu District, Unpublished M.Phil. Thesis, Eldoret: Moi University. Kenya.

97

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER TO THE SCHOOL

KIMITEI J.WINBRODER, EDU/PGA/1006/07,

MOI UNIVERSITY,

P.O. BOX 3900,

ELDORET.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

I am a student in Moi University pursuing a Master of Philosophy Degree course in

Economics of Education. As part of my course, I am carrying out a research on

Determinants of Transition rate to Secondary Education among Primary school girls; A

case of Keiyo District.

Your school has been selected to be among several others, which will participate in

the study. I kindly request you to allow me to carry out a research in your school. By

giving your comments, views, information and opinion, you will be helping a lot in

assisting to promote transition rate of our girls. You are kindly requested to read and

answer the items in the questionnaire at your earliest convenient time. Information

provided will be treated with confidentiality and will only be used for the purpose of

this study.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours faithfully.

KIMITEI W. J

APPENDIX II: HEADTEACHERS, TEACHERS/PTA MEMBERS QUESTIONNAIRE

A. GENERAL INFORMATION						
Fill in by ticking ($\sqrt{\ }$) where appropri	iate					
1. Gender? Male() Female ()					
2. What position do you hold in you	r school?					
Head teacher () Teacher ()	PTA Me	mber ()			
3. Professional qualifications						
Certificate () Diploma () Degree	ee ()Po	stgradu	ate ()	Unpro	fessional	()
4. How many years have you been in	n the teach	ning pro	fession'	?1-10 () 11-20	()
Over 20 ()						
4. When was the first t examination?	ime yo	our s	chool	did	KCPE/	CPE
B. DETERMINANTS OF GIRLS T The following are determinants/rea				ered to	affect g	girls'
transition rate from primary to secon	ndary sch	ool. Pi	ıt a tick	(√) agains	t the
reason that is closely approximate t	o your ar	iswer, i	f you S	trongly	Agree (SA),
Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree	(D) or Str	ongly [Disagree	(SD)		
6. Social determinants						
	SA	A	U	D	SD	
(i) Negative parental attitude	()	()	()	()	()	
(ii) Lack of positive role models	()	()	()	()	()	
(iii) Religion	()	()	()	()	()	
(iv) The effects of HIV/AIDS	()	()	()	()	()	

7. Cultural determinants					
	SA	A	U	D	SD
(i) Girls multiple gender roles					
(Involvement in household chores)	()	()	()	()	()
(ii) Pre-marital pregnancies	()	()	()	()	()
(iii) Early marriages	()	()	()	()	()
(iv) Customs and beliefs for example FGM	()	()	()	()	()
8. Economic determinants					
	SA	A	U	D	SD
(i) Poverty (Lack of school fees)	()	()	()	()	()
(ii) Inadequate secondary school places	() ()	()	()	()
(iii) Higher opportunity cost of sending girls to scho	ool () ()	()	()	()
(iv) Parents prefer to invest their limited resources					
in boy-education than girl-education	() ()	()	()	()
9. School related determinants					
	SA	A	U	D	SD
(i) Insensitive school environment(facilities)	()	()	()	()	()
(ii) Girls receive less attention from their teachers	()	()	()	()	()
(iii) Girls perform poorly compared to boys	()	()	()	()	()
(iv) Long distance from home to school	()	()	()	()	()
(v) Biased curriculum	()	()	()	()	()
(vi) School policy	()	()	()	()	()
(vii) Poor teaching and learning methods	()	()	()	()	()
(viii) Lack of guidance and counseling	()	()	()	()	()
(ix) Sexual harassment by boys/teachers		()			
10. Comment on the causes of transition rate of gir	rls in y	our sch	ool?		
11. What is the level of transition rate of girls con	npare	d to boy	s in you	r schoo	1?
Low () Average () High ()					

12. What can be done to increase this transition rate?

APPENDIX III: PUPILS QUESTIONNAIRE

A. GENERAL INFORMATION					
Fill in by ticking ($\sqrt{\ }$) where appropriate					
1. Gender Boy () Girl ()					
2. Age (Years) 13-14 () 15-16 () Above	e 16 ()		
3. How many years have you been in this school?		••••			
B. DETERMINANTS OF GIRLS TRANSIT	ION RA	TE			
The following are factors considered to limit	girls fro	m proc	eeding	to seco	ndary
education. Tick where appropriate to show the		-	_		_
following statements. Whether you Strongly Agr				_	
Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD)	, , ,		, , ,		, , ,
4. Social factors					
4. Social factors					
4. Social factors	SA	A	U	D	SD
4. Social factors(i) Lack of parents encouragement				D ()	
	()	()	()		()
(i) Lack of parents encouragement	()	()	()	()	()
(i) Lack of parents encouragement(ii) Lack of role models	()	()	() ()	()	()
(i) Lack of parents encouragement(ii) Lack of role models(iii) Religion	()	()	() ()	()	()
(i) Lack of parents encouragement(ii) Lack of role models(iii) Religion(iv) HIV/AIDS Effects	()	()	() ()	()	()
(i) Lack of parents encouragement(ii) Lack of role models(iii) Religion(iv) HIV/AIDS Effects	() () () ()	() () () ()	() () ()	() () () ()	() () ()
 (i) Lack of parents encouragement (ii) Lack of role models (iii) Religion (iv) HIV/AIDS Effects 5. Cultural factors 	() () () ()	() () () () A ()	() () () () U	() () () () D	() () () ()
 (i) Lack of parents encouragement (ii) Lack of role models (iii) Religion (iv) HIV/AIDS Effects 5. Cultural factors (i) Cultural beliefs and customs for example (F.G. 	() () () () SA	() () () () A ()	() () () U () ()	() () () () D ()	() () () SD ()

6. Economic factors					
	SA	A	U	D	SD
(i) Parents are poor (cannot pay school fees)	()	()	()	()	()
(ii) Inadequate secondary school places	()	()	()	()	()
(iii)Girls get involved in income generating activiti	les ()	()	()	()	()
(iv) Parents prefer to pay boy school fees than girls	;				
incase of limited resources	()	()	()	()	()
7. School related factors					
	SA	A	U	D	SD
(i) School policy	()	()	()	()	()
(ii) Poor school facilities	()	()	()	()	()
(iii) Girls receive less attention from their teachers	()	()	()	()	()
(iv) Girls perform poorly compared to boys	()	()	()	()	()
(v) Long distance from home to school	()	()	()	()	()
(vi) Sexual harassment by boys/teachers	()	()	()	()	()
(vii) Lack of guidance and counseling	()	()	()	()	()
8. Compared to boys what proportion of girls	in yo	ur scho	ool get	access	ed to
secondary education					
Few () Average () Many ()					
9. Comment on the main reasons why in your so	hool so	me girl	ls canno	ot proce	eed to
secondary school?					
			•••••	•••••	•••••
10. What do you think can be done to enable girls	proceed	d to seco	ondary	school?	
	••••••	•••••	••••••	•••••	•••••
	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	••••••	•••••

APPENDIX IV: TRANSITION RATE FORMULA

Transition rate formula:

$$\boldsymbol{TR} = \frac{N_{t+1}^{k+1} - R}{N_t^k}^{k+1}$$

 \boldsymbol{N}_{t}^{k} - The total enrolment in the previous grade, previous year (primary)

 $\overset{k+1}{N_{t+1}}$ -Total enrolment in the subsequent grade in the subsequent year (form 1)

k+1 **R** t +2 -Repeaters in the subsequent grade in the subsequent year (form 1)

T R- Transition Rate

APPENDIX V: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "SCIENCETECH", Nairobi Telephone: 254-020-241349, 2213102 254-020-310571, 2213123 Fax: 254-020-2213215, 318245, 318249

When replying please quote

Our Ref:

REF: NCST/2/002/E/542

P. O. Box 30623-00100 NAIROBI-KENYA Website: www.ncst.go.ke

24th November 2008

Ms. Winbroder J. Kimiter P. O. Box 582 **Eldoret**

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "Determinants of Transition Rate to Secondary Education Among Primary School Girls: A Case of Keiyo District.", I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out in Keiyo District for a period ending 31st December, 2009.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner and District Education Officer, Kelyo District before embarking on your research.

On completion of your research, you are expected to submit two copies of your research report to this office.

z. o. owiti

FOR: EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

Copy to:

District Commissioner Kebyo District

District Education Officer Keiyo Miscrict

APPENDIX VI: RESEARCH PERMIT FROM MOHEST

Page 2	PAGE 3
THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: Prof/Dr/Mr/Mrs/Miss WINBRODER J. KIMITEI	Research Permit No. NCST/2/002/E/542 Date of issue 24th Hovember, 2008 Fee received KSH.500
of (Address). P.O. BOX 582 ELDORET has been permitted to conduct research in	Z. O. ONITI
for a period ending 31 DECEMBER , 2009	Applicant's for Permanent Secretary Signature Ministry of FOR PERMA Science and Tachnology MINISTRY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

APPENDIX VII: KEIYO DISTRICT- ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES

