

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF MALE STUDENTS'
RETENTION IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
MBOONI WEST SUB-COUNTY, MAKUENI
COUNTY, KENYA**

RUTH NTHAMBA MAUNDU

**A Research Project Submitted to the School of Education in Partial Fulfilment of
the Requirements for the Award of Degree of Master of Educational
Administration of Machakos University, Kenya**

OCTOBER 2025

DECLARATION

Declaration by student

I declare that this research project is my original work and has not been submitted for the award of a degree in any other university.

Signature...  Date ... 21/10/2025

Ruth Nthamba Maundu

(E55-12739-2017)

Approval by the Supervisors

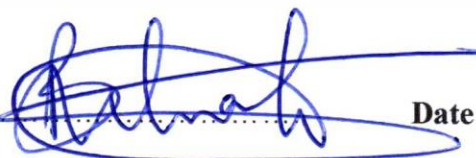
We confirm that the work presented in this research project was carried out under our supervision as university supervisors

Signature...  Date ... 21-10-2025

Prof. David Mulwa

Associate Professor, Department of Educational Management and Curriculum Studies.

Machakos University.

Signature...  Date ... 21/10/2025

Dr. Francis B. Mutua

Department of Educational Communication and Technology.

Machakos University.

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this research study to my beloved husband, Francis Ndambuki, who has been instrumental to my success and contributed immensely to the pursuit of my master's degree in Educational Administration. This dedication also extends to my children, Evans, Everlyn and Sharlyn, who kept me company during my studies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank the Almighty God for enabling me to accomplish this task. He gave me the gift of commitment and patience in coming up with a concept idea which was transformed into a proposal but finally beget the final research project. I sincerely acknowledge my research supervisors, Prof. David Mulwa and Dr. Francis Mutua for their commitment and guidance throughout my work. I therefore owe you a debt of gratitude.

TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENT.....	v
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF ABBRIVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xiv
ABSTRACT	xv
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background of the Study.....	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem	5
1.4 Purpose of the Study	6
1.5 Research Objectives	6
1.6 Research Questions.	7
1.7 Significance of the Study	7
1.8 Limitations of the Study.....	8
1.9 Delimitations of the Study.....	8
1.10 Assumptions of the Study	9
1.11 Theoretical Framework	9
1.12 Conceptual Framework	12
1.13 Operational Definitions of Terms	15
CHAPTER TWO.....	16
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	16
2.1 Introduction	16

2.2 Specific Information on Study Variables	17
2.2.1 The Concept of Socio-Economic Determinants.	18
2.2.2. The Concept of Retention.....	19
2.3 Specific Information.....	19
2.3.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention	20
2.3.2 Peer Pressure and the Male Student Retention	26
2.3.3 Parents' Level of Education and Male Student Retention	31
2.3.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention	34
2.4 Summary and Gap of Literature Review.....	39
CHAPTER THREE.....	41
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	41
3.1 Introduction	41
3.2 Research Design.....	41
3.3 Location of the Study	43
3.4 Target Population	44
3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique	45
3.6 Data Collection Instruments.....	47
3.6.1 Questionnaire.....	48
3.6.2 Interview Schedule	49
3.7 Piloting of Research Instrument	50
3.7.1 Validity of Research Instrument.....	51
3.7.2 Reliability of the Instrument.....	52
3.8 Data Collection Technique.....	53
3.9 Data Analysis	54
3.10 Logistical and Ethical Consideration	54
CHAPTER FOUR	56
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS	56

4.1 Introduction	56
4.2 Response Rate	56
4.3 Demographic Information: Students Responses	57
4.3.1 Students' Age	57
4.3.2 Students' Class	58
4.3.3 Number of Siblings to Students.....	59
4.3.4 Siblings Highest Education Level	59
4.3.5 Parent Education Level.....	60
4.3.6 Parent Occupation.....	61
4.3.7 Parent Approximate Income	63
4.4 Demographic Information: Parents' Responses	63
4.4.1 Gender	63
4.4.2 Duration in the Community	65
4.4.3 Parent's Occupation.....	66
4.5 Demographic Information: Principals' Responses.....	67
4.5.1 Duration within Mbooni-West Sub-County	67
4.5.2 Duration at Current Station.....	68
4.6 Indicators of male student Dropout.....	69
4.6.1 Students' Responses	69
4.6.2 Class Teachers' Responses.....	71
4.6.3 Principals' Responses	73
4.7 Reasons for Male Student Dropout	74
4.7.1 Students' Responses	74
4.7.2 Parents' Responses	75
4.7.3 Principals' Responses	75
4.8 Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention	77

4.9 Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention.....	86
4.10 Influence of Parent’s Level of Education on Male Students Retention	94
4.11 Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention	102
4.12 Male Student Retention.....	111
CHAPTER FIVE	121
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	121
5.1 Introduction	121
5.2 Summary of Research Findings	121
5.2.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention	121
5.2.2 Peer pressure and Male Student Retention.....	122
5.2.3 Parental Level of Education and Male Student Retention.....	122
5.2.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention	123
5.3 Conclusion.....	124
5.3.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention	124
5.3.2 Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention.....	124
5.3.3 Parental Level of Education and Male Student Retention.....	125
5.3.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention	125
5.4 Recommendations	125
5.4.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention	125
5.4.2 Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention.....	126
5.4.3 Parental Education Level and Male Student Retention	126
5.4.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention	127
5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies	127
REFERENCES	128
APPENDICES	148
Appendix I: Letter of Introduction to the Respondents.....	148
Appendix II: Questionnaire for Class Teachers	149

Appendix III: Questionnaire for Students	154
Appendix IV: Key Informant Interview Guide for Principals	159
Appendix V: Key Informant Interview Guide For Parents	161
Appendix VI: Research Authorization by Machakos University.....	163
Appendix VII: Research Authorization by NACOSTI	164
Appendix X: Map of Mbooni West Sub-County Makueni County	165

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: This conceptual framework illustrates the relationship between the socio-economic determinants and male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.....	12
Figure 4.1: Age Brackets of Students	57
Figure 4.2: Proportions of Students According to their Classes.....	58
Figure 4.3: Number of Students' Siblings	59
Figure 4.4: Parents' Gender	64
Figure 4.5: Duration of Parent's Stay in the Community	65
Figure 4.6: Duration of Principal's Stay in the Community	67
Figure 4.7: Duration of Principal's Stay in the same Station	68
Figure 4.8: Awareness of Male Student Dropouts by Students	69
Figure 4.9: Evidence of Male Student Dropout as Stated by Principals.....	73
Figure 4.10: Scale to Interpret Pearson Correlation Coefficients	84

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Enrolment Trend in Mbooni West Sub-County by Male Students for 2020–2023 <i>Cohort</i>	3
Table 1.2: Boys’ and Girls’ Enrolment and Completion Rate Nationally	3
Table 1.3: Completion Rates of Boys in Embu County.....	4
Table 3.1: Sample Frame for the Study	47
Table 3.2: Summary of Data Analysis Matrix	54
Table 4.1: Questionnaire Return Rate.....	56
Table 4.2: Frequency of Siblings According to their Highest Level of Education.....	60
Table 4.3: Distribution of Parents According to Education Levels	61
Table 4.4: Type of Parent Occupation	62
Table 4.5: Approximate Monthly Parents’ Income	63
Table 4.6: Parents’ Occupation.....	66
Table 4.7: Distribution of Students by the Number of Male Student Dropouts they are Aware of	70
Table 4.8: Mean of Number of Male Student Drop Outs Known by Each Student	71
Table 4.9: Number of Male Student Drop Outs as provided by Class Teachers	72
Table 4.10: Class Teachers’ Comments on Drop Out Trends	72
Table 4.11: Students’ Reasons for Male Student Dropout	74
Table 4.12: Parents’ Reasons for Male Student Dropout	75
Table 4.13: Principals’ Reasons for the Male Student Dropout	75
Table 4.14: Students’ Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention.....	78
Table 4.15: Number of Children to each Parent	78
Table 4.16: Parents’ Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention.....	79
Table 4.17: Teachers’ Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention.....	80
Table 4.18: Principals’ Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention.....	81
Table 4.19: Means of Respondents’ Opinions on Cultural Practices Affecting Male Student Retention.....	83

Table 4.20: Intervals	83
Table 4.21: Correlations of Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention	84
Table 4.22: Students’ Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention.....	86
Table 4.23: Teachers’ Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention.....	87
Table 4.24: Parents’ Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention.....	88
Table 4.25: Principals’ Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention.....	88
Table 4.26: Means of Respondents’ Opinion on Peer Pressure Affecting Male Student Retention.....	91
Table 4.27: Correlation between Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention	92
Table 4.28: Students’ Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Students Retention	94
Table 4.29: Teachers Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Retention.....	95
Table 4.30: Parents’ Highest level of Education	96
Table 4.31: Parents’ Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Students Retention	96
Table 4.32: Average Parent Education Level as Predicted by the School Principal ...	96
Table 4.33: Many Male Students who Drop out of School are From Parents with Low Level of Education.....	96
Table 4.34: Means of Respondents’ Opinion on Parent Level of Education Affecting Male Student Retention	100
Table 4.35: Correlations between Parent Education Level and Male Student Retention	101
Table 4.36: Students’ Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention.....	102
Table 4.37: Teachers’ Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention.....	103
Table 4.38: Parents’ Response on Approximate Monthly Parent Salary.....	104

Table 4.39: Parents’ Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention (N = 46)	104
Table 4.40: Principals Response on Approximate Monthly Parent Income in Thousands	104
Table 4.41: Action taken on Parents who don’t pay School Fees in Time	105
Table 4.42: Means of Respondents’ Opinion on Parental Income Affecting Male Student Retention.....	109
Table 4.43: Correlations between Parental Income and Male Student Retention	110
Table 4.44: Students’ Response on Male Student Retention	111
Table 4.45: Teachers’ Responses on Male student Retention	112
Table 4.46: Parents Responses on Male Student Retention.....	113
Table 4.47: Guidance Sessions Done During the Term.....	114
Table 4.48: Principals Responses on Male Student Retention	114
Table 4.49: Means of Respondents on Male Student Retention	119

LIST OF ABBRIVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CPS	Cultural Practices
DQASO	Deputy Quality Assurance Staffing Officer
EFA	Education for All
FDSE	Free Day Secondary Education
G/C	Guidance and Counseling
H.O.D	Head of Department
ILO	International Labor Organization
IPP	Peer Pressure
KIPPRA	Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research & Analysis
MSR	Male Student Retention
MoE	Ministry of Education
NACADA	The National Authority for the Campaign Against Alcohol and Drug Abuse
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science and Technology
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation Development
PA	Parents Association
PEL	Parent Level Education
PIN	Parent Income
SCQASOs	Sub-County Quality Assurance Staffing Officers
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences (27) windows
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
UNCRC	United Nation Convention on the Right of the Child
UNESCO	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nation Children's Fund

ABSTRACT

There have been several awareness campaigns of girls' retention in school, which have started bearing fruit. However, the welfare of the male student has largely been overlooked. Despite the Kenya government providing Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE), the issue of the male student has not been sufficiently addressed. This study sought to investigate the Socio-economic determinants of the male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya. The objectives of the study were to establish how the cultural practices, peer pressure, parents' level of education and parental income affect male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. The research was guided by theory of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943). A descriptive survey design was adopted. The target population comprised 38 principals, 76 class teachers, 1,140 male students (in forms two and three) and 114 parents. The researcher used multistage sampling. Random sampling was used to select 15 school out of 38 and 15 principals were selected using purposive sampling. Simple random sampling was used to select 30 class teachers of form two and three. From 1,140 male students, 456 were selected using proportionate random sampling. From the 114 parents three from each of the 15 sampled schools were selected using random sampling, giving a total of 45 parents. The overall sample size was 546 respondents. Data collection instrument included questionnaires for class teachers and male students and interviews schedules for principals and parents. A pilot study was conducted in Mbooni East Sub-County to ascertain the validity and reliability of the instruments using 10% of the target population. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics (means, frequencies percentages, tables, pie charts and bar graphs) and inferential statistics (Pearson Moment Relationship) to determine the significance and relationship between the variables. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically along the specific objectives and presented in narrative form. Data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27. The study findings showed a moderate negative correlation between cultural practices and the male student retention at school ($p = 0.000$; $r = -0.043$) basing on students' respondents, there was a weak negative association between the peer pressure and male retention ($p = 0.000$; $r = -0.217$), there was no significant association between the parental level of education and male retention because the p - values were greater than the alpha values in all other respondents except, the parents who showed that there was a significant association ($p = 0.060$; $r = -0.279$) and correlation between the parental income and male retention was not significant except in the parents, where there was negative moderate correlation ($p = 0.000$; $r = -0.388$). The study therefore concluded that socio-economic determinants were found to have a significant influence on male retention. From the findings the researcher recommends that the school should establish male student welfare programs to address gender-specific challenges and introduce motivational initiatives tailored to male students' needs, the school should engage guest speakers to mentor and guide students on how to positively navigate peer influence, parents should be educated on the critical role they play in their children's education through mandatory school-based sensitization meetings. Parents should be encouraged to develop new income-generating strategies to enhance their ability to pay school fees and meet their sons' educational needs.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a general introduction into the research problem. It comprises of a background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, and significance of the study, limitation of the study, delimitation of the study, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definition of terms.

1.2 Background of the Study

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) asserts that everyone has the right to education, a principle reinforced by frameworks such as the Jomtien Conference (1990), the Salamanca Statement (1994), and the Dakar Framework for Action (2000), all of which emphasized inclusive, compulsory education for all (Stacey, 2019). Countries like Kenya, Ghana, and Malawi responded by implementing free basic education to fulfill obligations under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989). However, despite these efforts, access to and retention in quality education remain problematic, particularly for male students. UNESCO (2012; 2015; 2018) notes a global decline in male enrolment and retention rates, with contributing factors varying from country to country—ranging from socio-economic hardship in Kenya and Jamaica (Chin, 2018; Mureithi, 2010) to perceptions that education is irrelevant for boys when successful role models in their communities dropped out (Campbell, 2013).

In many African and Western countries, boys face unique barriers, including labor demands, poverty, poor support systems, and cultural stereotypes, which result in early

school leaving (Tumwebaze, 2011; Farrell & Gray, 2012; Legewie & DiPrete, 2012). These socio-economic challenges can be understood through the lens of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, which posits that individuals must satisfy lower-level physiological and safety needs—such as food, shelter, and security—before they can focus on higher-level needs like education (belonging, esteem, and self-actualization). For many male students in rural Kenya, basic needs remain unmet, leading them to prioritize income-generating activities such as farm or quarry work over schooling (Mureithi, 2010; Hamasi, 2013). Where education fails to meet these needs or where the environment does not offer emotional and social support (belonging), boys are more likely to disengage.

In Mbooni West Sub-County, this disconnect is evident, as there are no targeted strategies aimed at retaining male students, despite constitutional mandates (Cheneket, 2017) and Ministry of Education reports linking dropout to poverty (MoE, 2012). Additionally, efforts that have rightly focused on the empowerment of girls—particularly in regions like Somalia, Mali, and Liberia—may have unintentionally sidelined the male student in other areas (Kitetu, 1998; Nyagah & Mwango, 2013). Without addressing the full spectrum of needs as outlined by Maslow, including psychological and esteem-related factors, retention efforts will remain ineffective.

According to enrolment data from the Ministry of Education, Makueni County (2020), male student numbers in Mbooni West Sub-County show a consistent decline across the four-year secondary school cycle, as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Enrolment Trend in Mbooni West Sub-County by Male Students for 2020–2023 Cohort

Cohort	Enrolment Year	No. of Students
Form One	2020	1,490
Form Two	2021	1,454
Form Three	2022	1,419
Form Four	2023	1,359

Source: Ministry of education Makueni County 2020

The enrolment dropped from 1,490 in Form One (2020) to 1,359 in Form Four (2023), with the sharpest decline occurring between Form Two and Form Four, clearly indicating low male retention. Nationally, a similar pattern is observed, with boys recording a completion rate of 79.4% compared to 84.5% for girls (Ministry of Education, 2016), largely due to factors such as substance abuse, peer pressure, labor demands at home, and socio-economic hardship (Ngondi, 2010; Ndengwa, 2019; Education News, 2013). In Embu County, for instance, while overall male completion rates appear relatively high, they still reflect notable attrition. Table 1.3 shows that completion rates ranged from 86.6% in Mbeere South to 91.3% in Embu North, but challenges such as drug use, negative teacher attitudes, large household sizes, and early involvement in income-generating activities continue to affect male learners disproportionately.

Table 1.2: Boys’ and Girls’ Enrolment and Completion Rate Nationally

Gender	Form 1 (2013)	Form 2 (2014)	Form 3 (2015)	Form 4 (2016)	Completion Rate (%)
Girls	327.8	326.4	306.1	277.1	84.5
Boys	289.3	280.3	296.3	230.3	79.4

Source: Ministry of Education (Provisional) 2016

A study conducted in Mbeere South Sub-County, Embu County, revealed that although the completion rate for girls appeared higher than that of boys, the actual completion

rate for boys was 79.4%, compared to 84.5% for girls. Boys were found to be at greater risk of not completing school, primarily due to increased involvement in drug use, including substances such as miraa, bhang, and alcohol. These issues predominantly affected boys rather than girls. According to Education News (2013), there has been an overemphasis on the girl child in Embu County, which has contributed to a decline in the number of boys attending school.

Table 1.3: Completion Rates of Boys in Embu County

Sub-County	Form 1 (2013)	Form 2 (2014)	Form 3 (2015)	Form 4 (2016)	Completion Rate (%)
Embu East	1,875	1,860	1,800	1,700	90.66
Embu North	1,303	1,290	1,220	1,190	91.30
Embu West	1,753	1,700	1,680	1,580	90.13
Mbeere North	1,316	1,296	1,202	1,180	89.60
Mbeere South	1,593	1,560	1,470	1,380	86.60

Source: Embu County Economic Statistical Data (2016)

In counties like Bungoma and Kakamega, many boys exit school early to work in informal sectors such as boda boda operations. Boys from larger households are especially vulnerable, often being relied upon to support family income or care for sick relatives, which negatively affects school attendance and retention. Additional factors influencing dropout include parents' education levels, religious and cultural beliefs, societal expectations that boys must assume breadwinner roles, and a lack of parental involvement in education (Ngondi, 2010; Ndengwa, 2019).

Although several studies have highlighted male dropout trends in other counties, there is a critical lack of research focused specifically on Mbooni West Sub-County. This gap is particularly concerning given the consistent downward enrolment trend in the region, yet no targeted interventions or empirical investigations have been conducted to uncover the socio-economic factors affecting male retention. Therefore, this study seeks to fill that gap by examining the socio-economic determinants influencing male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West, thereby informing more inclusive and equitable education policies and practices.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The government's goal is to ensure that all children have opportunities to advance through subsidized secondary school education. However, dropout remains a significant obstacle to achieving this objective (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2010). According to UNESCO (2015) Kenya's average secondary school dropout rate stands at 16.9%. In response, the Minister of Education urged relevant authorities not to overlook male students and called upon stakeholders to address the challenges affecting boys' education (Education News, 2012). Although efforts have been made in the education sector to address regional and gender disparities, statistics from various counties indicate that the girl child has been prioritized at the expense of the male student (Bundi, 2018). As a result, the male student risks being sidelined in educational development. While discussions on women's empowerment dominate public discourse, little attention is given to the educational needs of boys.

From government policies to community-level initiatives, the male student appears increasingly excluded (Government of Kenya, 2013). Research by Kiruki (2022) found that male students have been disadvantaged in educational empowerment. This issue is

not unique to Kenya; globally, male student education has been declining in countries such as Australia, the Caribbean (Chin, 2018), and Canada (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2017). In Nyamira Sub-County, there has been a persistently high dropout rate among boys in public day secondary schools, particularly in Form Three (Nyaboke, Mwebi, & Onderi, 2016). Similarly, a study by Mueni (2015) in Kilungu Sub-County, Makueni County, revealed consistently low retention rates among boys in public day secondary schools.

Data presented in Tables 1.1 and 1.3 further indicate low enrolment and retention rates for male students in various sub-counties. While numerous studies have focused on the girl child and the factors contributing to her dropout, the male student has received limited attention. As a result, many boys feel neglected and unsupported. This ongoing trend demonstrates a consistent decline in the number of male students in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the socio-economic determinants of male student retention in public secondary schools within the sub-county.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The study aimed to examine influence of socio-economic determinants on retention of male students in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub- County, Makueni County.

1.5 Research Objectives

The study addressed the following specific objectives;

- i. To determine how the cultural practices affects male student retention in public secondary school in Mbooni West Sub-County.

- ii. To establish how the peer pressure affects male student retention in public secondary school Mbooni West Sub-County.
- iii. To determine how the level of education of parents affects male student retention in public secondary school Mbooni West Sub-County.
- iv. To establish how the parental income affects male student retention in public secondary school in Mbooni West Sub-County.

1.6 Research Questions.

- i. How do the cultural practices influence the male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County?
- ii. How does the peer pressure influence male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County?
- iii. How does the level of education of parents influence the male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County?
- iv. How does parental income influence the male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The aim of this study was to investigate cultural practices, peer pressure, level of education of the parent and parental income that influence the male student retention in public secondary schools. This research was of importance as it studies socio-economic factors and measures taken to improve retention of male student in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. This study was to establish the relationship between socio-economic determinants and retention on male student in Mbooni West Sub-County. The findings of the study were to assist the Government through the Ministry of Education in policy formulation consequences, that will reverse any negative socio-economic determinants on male student retention in secondary school. The research was also to assist teachers in guiding and counseling learners on the

importance of completing education. The findings were to be of great importance to the parents since they were made aware of the issues that hinder retention of male student in public secondary school. The study was also to sensitize secondary school stakeholders; the school heads, the teachers, the parents and the government on the causes of low public secondary school retention and seek possible measures for solving the problem.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

Some parents were not willing to give out information when they realized they were to be interviewed hence; the researcher had to interview another parent who was ready to co-operate. There were also principals who were not cooperative hence the researcher had to go for another school to interview another principal. Another challenge was when the researcher gave out a certain number of questionnaires to students and class teachers all the questionnaires were not returned 100 %. The schools were far apart from each other and there was a challenge of long distance as a result of poor road network. To deal with financial challenge, the researcher solicited for money from friends in order to cater for transportation issues.

1.9 Delimitations of the Study

The research concentrated on the Public Secondary Schools in Mbooni West Sub-County which had boys and left out girls' school because the study was on boy child retention. The study was investigating the cohort of 2020-2023 to provide the information about the retention of the male student. The class teachers were used to give out this information as they interact with the boys all the time and also, they engage the boys in discussion to extract some crucial information from them. Form 2 and Form 3 boys were selected to participate in the study leaving the other students because most

of their classmates drop out at this stage. The parents who had boys were engaged to give opinion about their boys. The study targeted the principals, class teachers, students and parents. The study was delimited to socio-economic determinants among many other factors and further narrowed to four socio-economic determinants namely; cultural practices, peer pressure, parent level of education and parental income.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumed that all the public secondary schools experienced low retention of male student in the years 2020-2023. Selected school represented all the public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. It was assumed that the records required will be available. It was that assumed that the participants will give reliable and be honest in their responses to the questions. It was assumed that cultural practices, peer pressure, parent level of education and parental income were determinants that influenced male student retention and were to apply to all public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County.

1.11 Theoretical Framework

The study was based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in his paper "A Theory of Human Motivation" in Psychological Review. Maslow and his proponents (Nelson Goud) of positive psychology were driven by the idea that psychology abandoned studying the entire human experience (Rathunde, 2001). He stressed the importance of focusing on the positive qualities in people, as opposed to treating them as a "bag of symptoms." He used the terms physiological, safety, belonging and love, social needs and self-actualization to describe the pattern through which human motivations generally moves.

Maslow's (1943) original hierarchy states that a lower level must be completely satisfied and fulfilled before moving onto a higher level. However, today scholars prefer to think of these levels as overlapping each other. Meaning the lower levels may take precedence back over the other levels at any point in time. Onah (2015) asserts that when a particular level of need is achieved people focus attention on the next level of needs. The major features of this theory were; Human needs are wide in range and interrelated, Needs are arranged in a hierarchy, a need that is satisfied is not a motivator but unsatisfied need put the person into action, every human being wants to move up the need hierarchy and needs are interdependent and are interrelated with each other.

This theory had some strength like; it is simple to understand, it takes into account human nature and it is relevant in all fields. Although the Maslow's theory had some limitations it is the most used and important theory when it comes to measurement of hierarchy of needs of human being. Smith (2009) states that the standards of living of people demands the provision of better education, increased jobs, higher income and attention to human identity in the society. Hence a lot of attention should be given to students as they undergo their learning process. Therefore, to avoid many of socio-economic factors interfering with the learning of the students, better education should be provided to all without discrimination. Hence, the standards of living of the society will be increased.

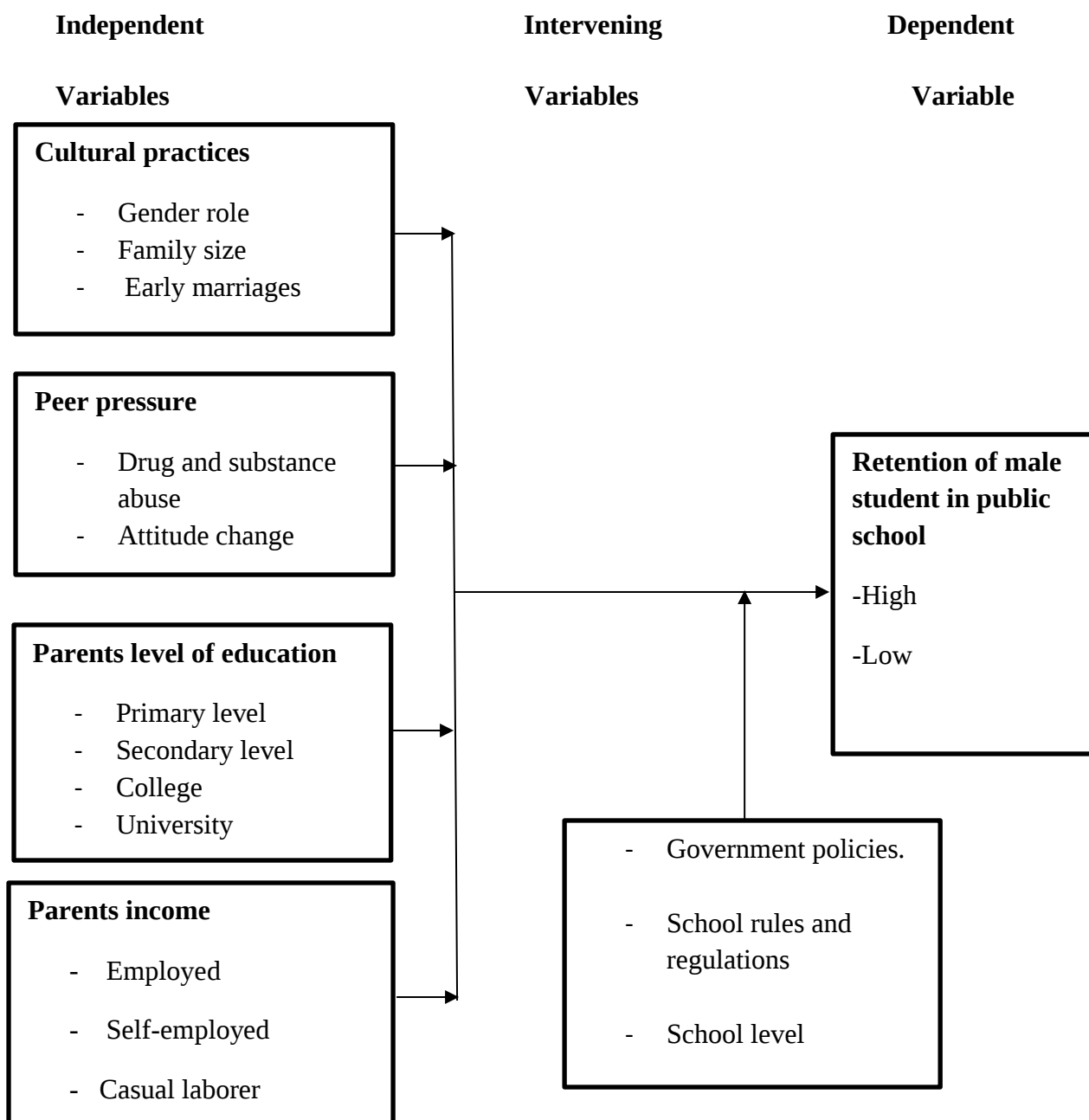
The students' needs if are not met they stop their learning at some point in order to fulfill them and this will affect the society to be. Hence the Maslow's theory will be suitable for this study. The theory was used in order to determine the needs of the male student in their stay at school, classroom and the community environment as well (Mumbua, 2020). For example, the theory was used to determine how availability of

basic needs at home and at school influence male student retention in school. This was because when male student physiological and social needs were not met at school and at home, they were not able to study effectively and this led them to drop out of school.

The research suggests that decision to drop out of school was caused by multiple factors including lack of provision of physiological needs such as lack of food, clothing and shelter especially when the home environment does not provide safe environment for male students' learning. Boys also can drop out from school when safety needs are not met both at school and at home. For example, if the boy was the one to take care of their sibling, by finding ways to raise money that can meet the safety needs of their siblings at home because the parents are not responsible. Also, some parents are over protective that makes the boy child to suffer and they become frustrated when the parents are not around because they were not prepared for new experiences hence dropping out of school. The learner has needs that must be met in order to be retained in the school. The higher up in the hierarchy a student is the better the motivation and therefore the more interested with schooling. Hence, it's important to consider the Maslow's hierarchy of needs of every student in the school. The boys from poor background or from illiterate parents should not be segregated but to be shown love and also assisted if they are really in need, so that their self-esteem is raised. In this way the student with exceptionality will have a better sense of belonging (Hall, 2012). This enables the boys to be retained in the school. If the bottom level of hierarchy is not met the student cannot reach the next level. Therefore, Maslow's hierarchy of needs provides a model for how the students are motivated to be retained in the school to learn.

1.12 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1.1: This conceptual framework illustrates the relationship between the socio-economic determinants and male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.



Source: Researchers' own conceptualization (2025)

A conceptual framework was used to illustrate the relationship between the independent variables, the dependent variable, and the intervening variables. These categories of variables guided the framework for this study. The socio-economic determinants, which are the independent variables, include cultural practices, peer pressure, parental level of education, and parental income. These factors hinder male students from being retained in school. Symeou, Martinez and Alvarez (2012) argued that male students from large-sized families often drop out of school and engage in income-generating activities to support their families, as their parents are unable to meet their basic needs. Consequently, the male student is forced to leave school.

Engaging in casual jobs after school may also lead male students to feel they have transitioned into adulthood, resulting in school dropout and, in some cases, early marriages (Oteyo & Kariuki, 2009). Peer pressure can further prevent male students from completing school, especially when influenced by peers who have already dropped out. This pressure may lead them into drug and substance abuse, and once addicted, they are likely to drop out of school. Parental level of education also affects male student retention. Parents with little or no education may view schooling as unimportant or a waste of time. Such parents are more likely to withdraw their children from school to help with domestic chores. In contrast, literate parents tend to prioritize education, spend more time supporting their children academically, and closely monitor their progress. This approach helps in retaining the child in school.

Parental income whether high or low can influence student retention. A male student from a wealthy family might take education less seriously due to over-reliance on family wealth. On the other hand, students from low-income families are more likely to drop out due to the inability to afford basic educational needs. The intervening

variables government policies, school rules and regulations, and school-level factors also affect male student retention. These should be carefully managed. For instance, harsh school rules may instill fear in students, pushing them to drop out. Government policies should be implemented in a way that promotes male student education. Thus, the government, school stakeholders, and parents must work together to create a supportive environment that encourages male students to stay in school.

The level of the school can also contribute to student dropout. Poor infrastructure, such as an unfenced school, may make it difficult to retain male students. The dependent variable in this study is student retention. Both parents and the community should be actively involved in addressing socio-economic factors and reporting individuals who negatively influence male students. Finally, schools should strengthen Guidance and Counseling (G/C) sessions to educate students on the importance of completing school and to offer them the support they need to stay enrolled.

1.13 Operational Definitions of Terms

Cultural Practices:	Refers to traditional beliefs, customs and behaviors within families or communities.
Level of Education:	Refers to the highest academic qualification completed by the parent of male student.
Male Student:	Refers to a boy enrolled in public secondary school.
Parental Income:	Refers to the total earnings available to male student's parent or guardian which affects their ability to meet school-related expenses.
Peer Pressure:	Refers to the influence that classmates have on a male student's decision and behavior which affect his commitment to schooling.
Public Secondary School:	These are government-funded learning institutions that offer secondary education and are accessible to students.
Retention:	Refer to regular attendance of male student in public secondary school until they complete their studies without dropping out.
Socio-Economic Determinants:	Refers to the social and economic conditions within a student's family or community that influence a male's student's ability to stay in school.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter was to review the literature on socio-economic determinants on male student retention in public secondary schools. It also presents literature review on different scholars relating to socio-economic factors and male student retention on the following sub-topics; cultural practices, peer pressure, level of education of the parents and parental income. A study carried out by the American National Centre for Education Statistics (2006) realized that there is little concern on male student enrolment. The report concluded that the girls are likely to be retained in school more than male student, since the male student is likely to drop out of school and get involved in drugs, socio-economic factors and crime leading to low enrolment hence less retention (Digest of Education, 2014 & National Centre for Education Statistics, 2016).

Farre and Gray (2012), there is much effort by the global community to empower the girl child at the expense of male student hence he is disadvantaged in access to education. The male student also has the perception that there is discrimination by the teachers due to boys' behavior. The male student is 50% more likely than the girl child to fail to meet the basic education. Chin et al. (2018) revealed that, due a lot of concern to the girl child, there is a gap created between the boy child and the girl child in terms of enrollment and academic achievement in all levels of education. The Jamaican government tried to address the issue of male student, and referred to a forum held in 2002 to discuss "status of Jamaican men in the society and their likely contribution to Jamaica's development".

There is also some perception in the school system in Jamaica that have hindered the male student education, for example the boys perceived the school as a feminine and education is not relevant as many successful men are drop-outs (Campbell, 2013). Setyani, (2021) Asian countries' community service programmes were slanted towards girls rather than both genders. Some of these socio-economic determinants have made the retention of male student in school to be difficult. Globally, boys are more likely to drop out of school, abuse drugs, and in some countries, they are likely to be imprisoned (Bundi, 2015). Njoki (2013) revealed that most drug abusers aged between 10-19 years are boys. Studies by the National Authority for the Campaign Against Drug Abuse (NACADA) in 2016 and 2019 found that boys had a higher chances of alcohol consumption than girls and the schools with boys have a likelihood of alcohol consumption compared to those schools that are girls only (NACADA, 2016; NACADA/KIPPRA, 2019). These studies have clear indication that boys are vulnerable. Njuguna and Muchanje, (2019) many of the parents prefer educating girl child than the male student because they think girl child is an asset and educated girl child can give them dowry and help them in future. This encourages the parents to educate girls leading more of the secondary boys to continue dropping out of school a Case in Mathioya, Kenya.

2.2 Specific Information on Study Variables

Cultural practices refer to beliefs, customs and social behaviours that influence attitude towards education within the community (Smith, 2018) in this study it includes traditions and norms that affects male students' schooling decision like community gender role. Cultural practices were accessed using structured questionnaires targeting the class teachers and students and also interview schedule for principals and parents.

Understanding the cultural practices is very crucial as it can either support or hinder male student retention in school. Peer pressure is the influence exerted by peer group encouraging an individual to conform to group norms (Brown et al.,2021). It was measure using likert-scale questionnaire. According to UNESCO (2019) peer pressure was identified as significant predictor of low retention among male student.

World Bank (2020) defines parent level of education as the highest formal education attained by the students' parents. The data was collected by interviewing the parents and also by us of questionnaire by students and class teachers. Parental education the retention of male student (OECD, 2019). The parental income is the total monthly earnings of the students' parent (National Bereaul of statistics, 2022). It was accessed by interviewing the parents and questionnaire for the student. The parental income affects the ability to afford school-related costs and resources impacting retention (Smith & Jones, 2021).

2.2.1 The Concept of Socio-Economic Determinants.

The concept of socio-economic determinants refers to the social and economic factors that influence individuals' behaviors, opportunities, and outcomes, including access to and retention in education. These determinants typically include household income, parental education levels, employment status, family structure, and living conditions. In the context of education, such factors shape learners' ability to attend and succeed in school, particularly in low-resource settings where boys may be expected to contribute to household income or face limited academic support at home. Understanding these determinants is essential in addressing the root causes of school dropout and designing effective retention strategies.

2.2.2. The Concept of Retention

Retention refers to continued enrollment and active participation of a learner in school until the completion of a given education cycle. It focuses on male student in secondary remaining in school from the time of admission until the program is complete without dropping out. Student retention is the key indicator of the effectiveness of education system. High retention rates signal that learners are benefiting from the system, while low retention rates indicate challenges such cultural practices, peer pressure or poor school environment. Factors affecting enrolment and retention of students in schools can be studied in the context of the people's livelihoods and survival strategies (Namukwaya & Kibirige, 2014).

Some factors maybe internal like school environment, school rules and regulation and government policies, which may affect male student retention in school. The other determinants that may affect male student are cultural practices, peer pressure, parental income and parent level of education. These factors determine whether the male student will remain in school. Cultural practices have been reported as a contributing factor to the falling number of students" enrolment and retention in schools. Some cultures already determine who can access education and who may not (Namukwaya & Kibirige, 2014). In this study retention was measured using official school attendance register and promotion records of male students who were enrolled from form one to form four over a period 2020-2023.

2.3 Specific Information

The socio-economic determinants include; cultural practices, peer pressure, parental level of education and parental income, that are influencing the male students in secondary school.

2.3.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention

According to Socio-cultural philosophers, people cannot be considered in isolation from their social and historical backgrounds. For example, Vygotsky (1998) Social learning theory explains the dynamic interdependence between an individual's learning process and their culture. The theory emphasizes that learning is based on social relations which are products of socio-cultural development of an actively involved individual. Hence, school retention cannot be examined without consideration of the culture of the individual and social cultural practices of the communities surrounding the school environment. Cultural practices are so specific to a group of people where some behaviours that are disgusted by one culture may be approved by another culture.

This was supported by Hanlon (2017) where an ancient Greeks build bravery and toughness in their boys by sending them to deliberately rob their neighbours. It was a crime for a child to be caught stealing. Therefore, the boys would be reprimanded not because of theft but for allowing themselves to be caught. Some cultures regard aggressive child militancy behaviours as acts of bravery, self-defense and toughness associated with maleness. Hence, Parents train their boys to be rough and aggressive in order to survive in the event of violent ethnic clashes. Aggressive and militant behaviour shown by men and boys is celebrated among the pastoralists but, are not in line with school culture which could make the school environment unfavourable for such boys leading to their dropout (Emuria, 2016).

Perera (2012) carried out a study to examine the problem of school dropout in Sri Lanka by examining cultural factors. The study showed that male students' dropout rate was higher than girls. The study argued that socio-cultural factors associated with the family context such as number of children, sex of the child, poverty and the attitude of learners

particularly the boys towards schooling were the key determinants of dropout. Herding is a masculine activity among pastoralists that denies many boys opportunities to access formal education. It may also lead to drop out for those already enrolled. Experiences on herding and boys schooling from Lesotho are not any different.

Pitikoe, (2018) carried out a study and targeted 22000 Basotho herders, 30 herders were snowballed and data was collected through qualitative research by way of interviews. The findings revealed that boys school attendance suffered due to herding. Therefore, there was extensive informal education going on during herding. A report by UNICEF (2012) showed that hazardous work done by children among the pastoralists in Botswana included collecting water and firewood over long distances, livestock herding, working in beer dens and agriculture. The report noted that just like in many countries, Botswana has protective laws to guard the children against child labour but the hindrance was the implementation of these laws.

Child labour robs the boys the opportunity to attend and participate in school while intermittent attendance due to child labour activities leads to poor performance which can eventually culminate in dropout. Koech, (2015) observed that, the elders of Pokot community are respected and their word is taken to be law. Therefore, Parents are bound to obey them and may not support their boys in attaining formal education. Hence, Pokot are a highly patriarchal pastoralist community who place high premium on male gender. cattle rustling has become more violent, complicated and more destructive due to use of illegal fire arms. Such activities kept some boys out of school because they take up these roles by virtue of their masculinity (Mkutu, 2017).

Several studies Kane (2018), Garises (2013) and Hanlon (2017) have argued that cultural practices and traditional values influence retention of students in schools. Cultural factors may cause families to differ in the priority they place on schooling of the children, and because boys contribute more to household economies through child labour, they are likely to be denied access to schooling.

Melanie (2011) investigated the sociological factors influencing children's participation in elementary education in the Philippines. The study focused on spatial, demographic, health and nutrition, economic, and socio-cultural factors, using a sample of 8,502 participants, including male-headed households, grandmothers, and children left behind by mothers working abroad. Data were collected through in-depth interviews and analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation, and linear regression. The findings indicated that all five categories of factors significantly influenced children's school participation and retention at the elementary level. However, this research was limited to elementary education in the Philippines.

Dunga and Mafini (2019) explored socio-economic factors affecting the education of the girl child in Zomba, Malawi. The focus was on household and school-related factors, including distance to school and the availability of resources at the school level. Data collection was carried out using interview schedules, and descriptive analysis was employed. The results showed that socio-economic conditions significantly influenced girls' education, often contributing to school dropout. It is important to note that this research focused exclusively on female students, not on male students.

Mohamoud (2017) examined the influence of socio-cultural practices on girl child participation in secondary education in Garowe, Puntland, Somalia. The study explored

variables such as parental attitudes, religious beliefs, gender preferences, and the influence of female role models. A descriptive survey research design was adopted, targeting girl students, parents, teachers, principals, religious leaders, and the County Director of Education in Garowe District. Data were gathered through questionnaires and observations and subsequently analyzed. The findings revealed that socio-cultural factors—particularly parental attitudes, religious beliefs, gender preferences, and role models—had a significant impact on girls' educational participation. However, the research was centered solely on female students and did not address issues affecting male students.

Cheneket (2017) examined factors influencing the dropout rate among boys in public primary schools in Saboti Sub-County, Trans Nzoia County. The study investigated the impact of socio-cultural activities, socio-economic conditions, and geographical factors. Using a descriptive survey design, the study sampled 10 head teachers, 76 class teachers, and 268 boys. Data were collected through questionnaires and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Findings indicated that all three categories of factors significantly contributed to dropout among boys. However, the research focused on primary education rather than secondary schooling.

Ooko (2012) explored challenges faced by the boy child in education within Kibera informal settlement. The research focused on social and economic hardships, socio-cultural constraints, and the effects of girl child empowerment. A cross-sectional exploratory design was employed, with purposive sampling used to identify male dropouts. Data were gathered through in-depth interviews, key informant interviews, and case narratives, and analyzed thematically. Results showed that the boy child's retention in school was adversely affected by these intertwined challenges.

Nonetheless, the study was context-specific to Kibera slum and does not generalize beyond that locality.

Otieno (2016) conducted a study on socio-economic factors influencing student dropout rates in public secondary schools in Msambweni Sub-County, Kwale County. The research examined variables such as parental income, tuition fees, family size, domestic labor, and sex tourism. A survey design was used, with a sample consisting of 59 teachers, 10 head teachers, and 177 students. Data were collected through interviews and questionnaires and analyzed descriptively. The findings revealed that all the studied socio-economic factors contributed to student dropouts. However, the study did not investigate cultural influences and was not specifically focused on male students.

Okumu (2014) investigated socio-economic factors influencing students' access to secondary education in Rongo County, Kenya. Variables studied included tuition fees, household size, child labor, and parental income levels. The study used a descriptive survey design, sampling 40 teachers and 210 students. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews and analyzed qualitatively. Results indicated that all examined factors significantly affected students' access to secondary education. However, the study did not address issues related to the retention of male students in particular.

Opiyo (2013) examined the influence of socio-economic and cultural factors on the academic performance of hearing-impaired pupils at St. Martin Primary School in Kakamega County, Kenya. The research employed a case study design integrating both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Participants included the head teacher, Sub-County Director of Education, 25 teachers, 60 pupils, and 30 parents. Data were

collected using questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis and analyzed using descriptive statistics. Findings demonstrated that social, cultural, and economic factors significantly influenced academic performance. However, the focus was limited to hearing-impaired pupils in a primary school setting, not on male students in secondary schools.

Ndawa (2014) explored factors affecting girl child access to primary education in Mwitika Division, Mutito District, Kenya. The study considered in-school factors, prohibitive cultural practices, and parental influences. A descriptive research design was used, involving 200 teachers and 400 pupils. Data were collected through questionnaires and document analysis and analyzed using SPSS. Results showed that all identified factors significantly hindered girls' access to education. However, this research focused exclusively on girls in primary schools and did not address the male student experience at the secondary level.

Wambugu (2012) investigated the effects of socio-economic and cultural factors on access and participation in secondary education in Igembe North District, Meru County. Referencing Kihumba (2007), the study highlighted a high dropout rate among boys attributed to involvement in the miraa trade. Boys were often tasked with harvesting miraa due to their agility, which interfered with their schooling. A descriptive survey design was adopted, and data were collected via questionnaires and interviews, with analysis conducted using descriptive statistics. Although the study revealed that socio-economic factors, particularly miraa farming, negatively impacted male retention in school, it did not consider other critical variables such as parental education or income levels.

Mwihia (2019) examined factors influencing boy child dropout from public secondary schools in Kinangop Sub-County, Nyandarua County, Kenya. The study explored socio-economic factors, socio-cultural dynamics, and learner-specific characteristics. A descriptive survey research design was employed, with a sample of 148 respondents comprising 16 principals and 132 class teachers. Data were collected through questionnaires and document analysis (school records), and analyzed using inferential statistics via SPSS (Version 22). Results indicated that the interplay of socio-economic and socio-cultural factors, along with individual learner characteristics, significantly contributed to dropout among boys. However, the study's scope was limited to Kinangop Sub-County.

2.3.2 Peer Pressure and the Male Student Retention

Peer pressure refers to the influences that peers can have on one another (Hartney, 2014). According Ezzarrouki (2016) it is emotional or mental force from people belonging to the same social group to behave like themselves. Peer pressure is commonly associated with episodes of in-school adolescents 'risk-taking activities such as drug abuse and illicit sexual behaviours. Peers play a large role in the socio-emotional development of secondary students. The influence begins at an early age and increases through the teenage years of a child (Okorie, 2014). The peer pressure can produce negative influences, where students can encourage each other to skip classes, use drugs or alcohol, or get involved in other risky behaviours.

Peer pressure affects academic outcomes. Peer pressure can be both positive and negative. Some of the peer groups provide opportunities for children to learn and develop social skills while others are avenues for engaging in negative behavior such as drugs and substance abuse. Moraa (2018) revealed that many boys drop out of school

because their friends have done so. Others drop out of school to engage themselves in economic activities as they see their friends doing so. The peer pressure inducts many boys into drugs and alcohol abuse, criminal activities and illicit sex. Hence the Peer pressure influence among teenage boys is very strong.

According to Bankole and Ogunsakin (2015) majority of secondary students with substance abuse behaviors began using drugs or alcohol due to peer pressure leading to dropout. The male student is endangered because when he drops out of school is engaged in some activities which tend to cause harm to their lives and prone to poor. The ASER (2022) a study on dropout in Pakistan revealed that male students often leave school due to peer-influenced decision such as following friends into disengaging from classes. Across national study of Asian secondary schools found that peer pressure strongly affected engagement and persistence with male student often more vulnerable to negative peer group influence than girls (Wang et al.,2019).

In South Africa a study was carried out and revealed that some male students leave school simply because their peers have left, even when they are performing academically well (Desai et., 2023). Tekuh et al., (2022) reported that substance use among the Cameroonian high-school students is associated with peer influence and it leads to low retention rate. In Ghana Adam (2023) revealed that peer pressure and drug abuse were significant contributors to senior high school dropouts in the Adansi North District. Rashidi and Malecela (2024) a study on influence of peer pressure on secondary school student dropout in Nanyamba town council, Mtwara, Tanzania revealed that peer pressure was a significant factor reported by student as contributing factor to secondary-school dropout leading to low retention. Hence, this study studied

peer pressure on students and not specifically the male student. Kenya is not leaved out according to studies.

Njuguna and Muchanje (2019) investigated the socio-economic factors affecting the retention of the boy child in secondary schools in Mathioya, Kenya. Key variables included poverty, negative attitudes towards education, militia involvement, neglect of boys' education, peer influence, drug and substance abuse, child labour, poor academic performance, indiscipline, and family breakdown. The study employed a descriptive survey design with participants drawn from 9 schools, including 9 principals, 54 teachers, 36 parents, 180 students, and two education officers. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and focus group discussions, and analyzed descriptively using frequency counts, percentages, and bar graphs. Findings showed that socio-economic factors significantly influenced male students' retention in secondary schools. However, this research was conducted in Mathioya and not in Mbooni West Sub-County.

Mueni (2015) examined how family size, parental education level, and parental income influenced boy child dropout rates in public day secondary schools in Kilungu Sub-County, Makueni County. A descriptive survey design was adopted, sampling 6 principals, 6 class teachers, and 300 boys. Data were gathered via questionnaires and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Results indicated that all three variables had a significant effect on the retention of male students in secondary schools. However, the study did not investigate the role of peer pressure in influencing male student dropout.

Wamichwe (2017) conducted research on socio-economic factors affecting enrolment of male students in public secondary schools in Kirinyaga County, Kenya. The study focused on home-based factors (e.g., parental education, household income), school-based factors (e.g., cost of education, resource availability), and environmental factors (e.g., youth engagement in economic activities, substance abuse). Using a cross-sectional survey design, the study sampled 6,317 male students from the 2014 Standard Eight cohort. Data were collected via questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Findings revealed that all three categories of factors significantly influenced low male enrolment. However, cultural practices affecting male students were not considered.

Maina (2011) explored socio-cultural and economic influences on boy child retention in public primary schools in Kiambu West Sub-County, Kenya. The study focused on social, economic, and cultural factors, as well as peer pressure. A descriptive survey design was used, with data collected from head teachers, teachers, and pupils through questionnaires and interviews. SPSS was used for data analysis. Results highlighted low parental literacy, gender imbalance among teachers, negative school attitudes, unemployment, and loitering as contributing factors to low retention. However, the study was conducted in a primary school context, not secondary.

Atieno (2013) examined socio-economic factors influencing student dropout in public secondary schools in Rongo Sub-County, Migori County. The study assessed the influence of peer pressure, family headship, and parental financial status, along with head teachers' strategies for student retention. A descriptive design was used with a sample of 20 principals, 15 teachers, and 200 students. Data were collected via questionnaires and interviews and analyzed using frequencies and percentages.

Findings indicated that peer pressure, family dynamics, and economic conditions impacted student retention. However, cultural practices and parental education levels were not addressed.

Cheneket (2017) also conducted a study on dropout rates among boys in public primary schools in Saboti Sub-County, Trans Nzoia County. Variables investigated included learner characteristics, socio-cultural activities, socio-economic conditions, and geographical factors. Using a descriptive survey design, the study sampled 10 head teachers, 76 class teachers, and 264 boys. Data collection involved questionnaires, interviews, and observation, with analysis conducted using frequency tables, means, and percentages. Results indicated that broken families, poverty, and lack of parental supervision were significant contributors to school dropout. However, the study was limited to primary schools.

Mitaru (2021) explored determinants of dropout among boys in public day secondary schools in Kirinyaga County, Kenya. The study focused on parental income, peer pressure, and substance abuse. A descriptive survey design was employed with 10 principals, 60 teachers, and 200 Form Three boys. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews, and analyzed both thematically and statistically using SPSS. Findings revealed that low parental income was the most significant factor influencing dropout. However, the study was limited to Kirinyaga County and did not cover Mbooni West Sub-County.

Ndengwa (2019) investigated factors affecting the completion rate of boys in public day secondary schools in Mbeere South Sub-County, Embu County. The study examined home, school, and social factors influencing completion. A descriptive

survey design was used with 10 principals, 120 teachers, and 208 students. Data were collected via questionnaires and interviews and analyzed using SPSS (Version 23.0), including frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviation. Findings indicated that social and school-related factors were influential. However, cultural practices were not explored in this study.

Magonda (2020) studied factors influencing truancy among boys in public primary schools in Nyali Sub-County, Mombasa County, Kenya. The research examined institutional, community, socio-economic, and individual student factors. Using a causal research design and cross-sectional data, the sample included 45 boys, 18 teachers, and 45 parents or guardians. Data were collected through questionnaires and analyzed using SPSS, with both descriptive and inferential techniques. The study concluded that all examined factors contributed to truancy among boys. However, the focus was limited to primary schools, not secondary education.

2.3.3 Parents' Level of Education and Male Student Retention

Kurgat (2017) observed that majority of households are headed by illiterate parents who had no access to formal education due to political and cultural marginalization. Therefore, parental participation in the formal education of the children is minimal. A study conducted in India on parental attitude towards schooling, reiterated the effect of parental attitude towards education on school dropout and noted that parental attitudes determine the present and future academic exploits of the learners (Samal, 2012). In Liberia, a study was conducted on out of school children to determine the causes of student dropout. The study revealed that high cost of education and inadequate parental support were the main reasons for school dropout.

Parents in Liberia were illiterate hence, they did not appreciate the value of educating their children and encouraged child labour leading to school drop-out (UNICEF, 2012). The parent's education has a significant impact on the child wellbeing (Alkens & Barbarin 2022). According to Murugi, (2022) in Kenya, more than half of the approximately one million children who are not in school are boys. According to the World Bank (2023), parental education and that of their children are significantly correlated. Due to this child's education is greatly influenced by the parents' degree of education.

Osagi (2023) asserts that parental education influences education success of children in the near future. According to Larzelere et al., (2023), parents whose level of education is high are likely to have high confidence in their ability to help their children study. It was also revealed that self-efficacy of the parent has a greater effect on academic abilities, parental education level, and program participation. The study was not specific on how parent level of education influences male student's retention in secondary schools.

Benard (2015) investigated socio-economic factors influencing the dropout rate of the boy child in public day secondary schools in Chemaner Zone, Bomet East Sub-County, Bomet County. The study focused on whether family size, parental education level, and parental income affected boys' dropout rates. A descriptive survey research design was used, with a sample comprising 6 public day secondary schools, 12 teachers, 6 principals, and 300 boys, totaling 318 respondents. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis, and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of SPSS. The findings revealed that all three factors

significantly influenced dropout rates among boys. However, this study was conducted in Bomet East Sub-County, not Mbooni West Sub-County.

Wambua (2014) examined the influence of socio-economic factors on pupils' completion rates in primary education in Evurori Sub-County, Mbeere North County. The study assessed the impact of parental education level, family size, family income, and involvement in household chores. A descriptive survey design was used, with a sample comprising 16 head teachers and 35 pupils. Data were collected via questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive statistics. Findings indicated a relationship between the studied factors and school completion rates, particularly noting that children from larger families were more likely to drop out to support siblings. However, the research focused on primary education, not secondary school retention.

Ketgeronye (2018) explored the influence of parents' socio-economic status on enrolment and retention among pre-primary school pupils in Kericho County, Kenya. Key variables included parental income, occupation, family size, and educational background. The study used a descriptive survey design and sampled 22 public pre-schools and 66 ECDE teachers. Data were collected using questionnaires and analyzed descriptively. Results revealed that all identified socio-economic characteristics significantly affected children's enrolment and retention in pre-primary schools. However, this research focused on pre-primary pupils and did not examine male student retention at the secondary level.

Nyakan (2016) conducted a study on family-based socio-economic factors affecting students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Rongo Sub-County,

Migori County. Factors investigated included parental education level, family size, parents' occupation, home environment, type of primary school attended, and child labor activities. The study adopted descriptive survey and correlational research designs, involving 45 head teachers, 547 TSC secondary teachers, 14,523 students, and 5 Sub-County Quality Assurance Officers. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, observations, and document analysis. Results indicated that all variables significantly influenced academic performance. However, the study addressed general student performance rather than retention specifically among male students.

Kipkemo (2017) examined socio-economic factors influencing girls' completion rates in secondary education in Chepalungu Sub-County, Bomet County. The study investigated the effects of early marriage, parental education, family income, and educational costs. A descriptive survey design was adopted, with a sample consisting of 6 principals, 43 teachers, and 828 students. Data were collected via questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive statistics. Findings showed that all examined socio-economic factors significantly impacted girls' completion rates. However, the study focused exclusively on female students and did not consider retention issues affecting male students.

2.3.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention

A study by International Labour Organization has shown that globally many children engage in child labour which is prejudicial to their schooling. Machebe et al. (2023) examined the impact of parental income on students' academic performance in high school in Japan. The sample population consisted of 300 students. Students' academic grade point on an assessment was also utilized as an indicator of academic achievement. Students from financially prosperous families enjoy higher academic accomplishment,

according to the findings. The study also found that the proportion of children in low-income families who attend school is determined by financial constraints. The gap was, it was on the effects of parental income on students' academic performance and not the male student retention.

In Rwanda, a study on boys' dropout by UNICEF (2012) revealed that child labour contributed to drop out of boys in school. Although Rwanda has free education for basic education, there were hidden costs that the majority of the poor households could not afford. Therefore, many boys dropped out of school to engage in child labour activities to provide not only for their families but also to earn enough to pay for school requirements. Parental income plays a significant role in deciding how expensive access to education is (Englund et. al. 2023). About 51% of Kenyans live in poverty, according to a World Bank study. Due to their inability to cover both direct and indirect expenditures of education, parents are forced to remove their boys from school in order to make ends meet (Fall & Roberts, 2022).

Parental occupation significantly impacts students' academic achievement (Saifi & Mehmood, 2011). In households with low income, parents are often unable to meet all schooling-related costs, leading to school withdrawal—particularly among boys—so they can contribute to the family income. Although education in Kenya's public secondary schools is officially free, parents still bear the costs of uniforms, lunch, and project funds (Fall & Roberts, 2012). Mueni (2015) found that parental income levels influence boys' dropout rates in public secondary schools. Income, defined as the monetary payment received regularly for work, was measured in this study based on the total earnings of parents.

Chenge, Chege, and Maunganidze (2017) investigated family factors contributing to secondary school dropout in Rushinga District, Zimbabwe. Using a case study design, the study sampled 1 District Learner Social Welfare Officer, 3 school heads, 3 councilors, 3 senior teachers, 3 heads of guidance and counseling departments, 30 learners, and 12 school dropouts. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews and analyzed using SPSS. Results showed that financial constraints, low parental education levels, parental separation or divorce, and death of parents/guardians contributed significantly to dropout rates. However, the study was conducted in Zimbabwe, not Mbooni West Sub-County.

Kiboi (2018) explored the effects of parental socio-economic status on students' academic performance in secondary schools in Bungoma County, Kenya. The study employed a correlational research design with a sample consisting of 8 head teachers, 8 class teachers, 8 guidance and counseling staff, and 120 students. Data were collected using questionnaires and analyzed through correlation and regression methods. Findings indicated that parental education level, income, and occupation all significantly affected students' academic performance. However, the study focused on academic achievement rather than retention of the male student.

Otengo (2016) examined the influence of parental socio-economic status on students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Tana River County. Using a descriptive survey design, the study sampled 17 teachers, 11 parent representatives, and 158 students. Data were collected using questionnaires and interview schedules and analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with SPSS. Results showed that parental income, education level, occupation, and involvement in education had a

substantial influence on students' academic performance. However, the focus was on academics rather than retention of the male student.

Njuguna and Muchanje (2019) investigated socio-economic factors affecting boy child retention in secondary schools in Mathioya, Kenya. A descriptive survey design was used, involving 9 schools, 9 principals, 180 students, 54 teachers, 36 parents, the Sub-County Education Officer (D.E.O), and the Sub-County Quality Assurance Officer. Data were collected through questionnaires and interviews. Quantitative data were analyzed descriptively, and qualitative data thematically. Findings revealed that despite the Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) program, boys continued to drop out of school due to socio-economic challenges. However, the study was conducted in Mathioya and not in Mbooni West Sub-County.

Nadenge (2015) explored the relationship between parental socio-economic status and student academic achievement in selected secondary schools in urban informal settlements in Westlands Division, Nairobi County. The study adopted a descriptive survey design and sampled 91 students, 18 teachers, and 16 parents. Data were collected through questionnaires, focus group discussions, and interviews, and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings indicated that parental occupation, involvement in education, parent–teacher relationships, and the inability to finance education—alongside poor physical and instructional resources—negatively influenced students' academic performance. However, the study was conducted in Nairobi County, not in Mbooni West.

Mulindi (2019) studied the influence of psychosocial factors on academic performance among secondary school boys in Bungoma East Sub-County. The focus was on peer

pressure, socio-economic status, and social media. A descriptive survey research design was adopted, with a sample of 198 students. Data were gathered using questionnaires and document analysis and analyzed using multiple linear regressions via SPSS. The findings concluded that socio-economic status had a more significant effect on academic performance than social media. However, the study emphasized academic performance rather than male student retention.

Wamichwe (2017) investigated the effects of home-based socio-economic factors on male student enrollment in secondary schools in Kirinyaga County. The study employed a cross-sectional survey design and sampled 391 students. Data were collected via questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Findings indicated that household income, parental education, and occupation significantly influenced low enrollment among male students. However, the study focused on enrollment, not retention, and was conducted outside Mbooni West.

Thuba (2018) examined the effects of parental involvement on the quality of education in public day secondary schools in Igembe Central Sub-County, Meru County. The study focused on school-based and home-based parental involvement, and academic socialization. A descriptive correlational design was adopted, and data were collected from 352 students, 8 principals, and 32 parents through questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis. Results showed that academic socialization and home-based involvement influenced educational quality. However, the study did not focus on male student retention.

Magonda (2020) investigated factors influencing truancy among boys in public primary schools in Nyali Sub-County, Mombasa County. A causal research design was used

with a sample of 45 boys, 18 class teachers, and 45 parents. Data were collected via questionnaires and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The study revealed that institutional, community, socio-economic, and student-related factors accounted for 77.2% of the variance in truancy levels. However, this study was conducted in primary schools, not secondary schools, and was outside Mbooni West.

Nyaboke, Mwebi, and Onderi (2016) explored factors influencing boy child retention in public day secondary schools in Nyamira Sub-County, Kenya. A mixed-methods research design was used, involving 2 DQASOs, 28 principals, 28 Parents Association (PA) chairpersons, 28 heads of department, 42 class teachers, and 321 students. Data were gathered through questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis and analyzed using regression analysis. Results indicated that family income, household labor demands, and parental education level influenced male student retention. However, this study was conducted in Nyamira Sub-County and not in Mbooni West.

2.4 Summary and Gap of Literature Review

The literature reviewed indicates that student retention is a critical component of educational success and a foundational element for a prosperous and stable society. Magonda (2020) conducted a study on factors influencing truancy among boys in public primary schools in Nyali Sub-County, Mombasa County. The study examined institutional, community, socio-economic, and student-related factors contributing to truancy. Similarly, Kipkemo (2017) investigated the influence of socio-economic factors on girls' completion rates in secondary schools in Chepalungu Sub-County, Bomet County, while Kamanja (2012) found that home-school distance and students' physical readiness significantly influenced dropout decisions in rice-growing areas of Kirinyaga County.

Mohamoud (2017) explored the impact of socio-cultural practices on girl-child participation in education in Garowe, Puntland, Somalia, revealing how cultural norms shape educational access and retention for girls. Although these studies have provided valuable insights into factors affecting school dropout, especially among girls, the literature reveals a disproportionate focus on the girl child. Consequently, the challenges facing the male student particularly in the context of secondary education—remain underexplored and often overlooked. This gap is especially evident in relation to the influence of cultural practices, peer pressure, parental level of education, and parental income on the retention of male students in secondary schools. Notably, none of the reviewed studies has adequately addressed these factors within the context of Mbooni West Sub-County, Makueni County. This underscores the need for focused research to examine how these variables affect the retention of the male student in this specific region.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discussed the procedure and strategies that was to be employed during the study. The chapter focused on research design, target population, sampling techniques and sample size, research instrument, validity and reliability of research instrument, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey research design to investigate the socio-economic determinants of male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County, Makueni County. The choice of this design was informed by the nature of the research problem, which required a systematic collection and analysis of data to describe the prevailing conditions affecting male student retention from the perspectives of various stakeholders. According to Creswell (2011) a descriptive research design is appropriate when the aim is to obtain information that describes existing phenomena by asking individuals about their perceptions, attitudes, behaviors, or values. In the context of this study, the design facilitated an in-depth understanding of the socio-economic determinants of male students' retention, without manipulating any variables. The goal was to describe "what is"—specifically, the socio-economic realities influencing school attendance and progression among boys in the targeted sub-county.

The descriptive survey design was also suitable due to its ability to accommodate a relatively large and diverse sample, which is essential for drawing conclusions that are generalizable to the broader population. As noted by Rumberger and Rotermund (2012)

descriptive designs are population-oriented and involve selecting representative samples to analyze occurrences and determine characteristics of a group. This design allowed the researcher to gather both quantitative and qualitative data from different categories of respondents, including students, teachers, principals, and parents, thereby capturing a comprehensive picture of the issue under investigation. To collect quantitative data, structured questionnaires were administered to form two and form three class teachers and students, allowing for standardized measurement of variables such as family income, parental involvement, and school attendance patterns.

In parallel, qualitative data were obtained through interview schedules conducted with school principals and parents, providing rich, contextual insights into the lived experiences and perceptions surrounding male student retention. Furthermore, the design was deemed appropriate given the study's focus on exploring the relationship between independent variables (socio-economic determinants) and the dependent variable (male student retention). As argued by Kothari (2011) descriptive research can be used to explore associations between variables and, where applicable, make informed predictions. While the design does not test causality, it does allow for identifying significant trends and relationships that can inform policy and practice. According to Smith (2012) the core purpose of descriptive research is to describe aspects of a population or situation from the viewpoints of individuals or groups.

This aligns well with the present study, which sought to document and analyze stakeholders' experiences, opinions, and suggestions for enhancing the retention of the male student in secondary education. Moreover, Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) emphasize that descriptive designs provide a framework for organizing and interpreting data in a way that allows researchers to draw meaningful conclusions and

recommendations. In summary, the adoption of the descriptive survey design was methodologically sound and aligned with the research objectives. It enabled the researcher to collect, analyze, and interpret data from a wide range of participants, thereby providing a nuanced and accurate portrayal of the socio-economic determinants of male students' retention in public secondary schools within the study area.

3.3 Location of the Study

This study was conducted in Mbooni West Sub-County, which is located in Makueni County, in the Eastern region of Kenya. Geographically, the sub-county lies at approximately 10°40'0" South latitude and 37°27'0" East longitude. It spans an area of approximately 270.7 square kilometers and, as per the 2019 National Census (KNBS, 2019) has an estimated population of 102,594 residents. Administratively, Mbooni West Sub-County is divided into six educational zones, namely: Kitundu A, Kitundu B, Mbooni A, Mbooni B, Tulimani A, and Tulimani B. These zones form the basis for educational planning and service delivery within the region. The sub-county is situated approximately 44.1 kilometers from Wote, the county headquarters, and about 31.3 kilometers from Machakos town, accessible via the Machakos–Mbooni road.

The area experiences a tropical semi-arid climate, with an average annual rainfall of 116.03 mm and an average temperature of 24.4°C. These climatic conditions have a significant influence on the livelihoods of the local population. The primary economic activity in Mbooni West Sub-County is agriculture, with most residents engaging in small-scale farming for subsistence and local trade. In addition, other common economic activities include logging and motorcycle transport services (commonly known as *boda boda* riding), which serve as major sources of income for many youths and households in the area. The selection of Mbooni West Sub-County as the study site

was informed by reports and anecdotal evidence indicating a persistent challenge in male student retention in public secondary schools. Its mix of rural characteristics, socio-economic diversity, and accessibility made it a suitable location for investigating the socio-economic factors influencing school retention among boys.

3.4 Target Population

According to Mbwesa (2016) a population refers to the entire group of individuals, events, or objects of interest that a researcher aims to investigate. Similarly, Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) define a target population as the specific group to which a researcher intends to generalize the findings of their study. The identification of an appropriate target population is critical, as it ensures that the data collected is relevant, representative, and applicable to the research objectives. The study focused on Mbooni West Sub-County, which has a total of 42 public secondary schools (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2022). Of these, 4 are girls' secondary schools, 3 are boys' secondary schools, and 35 are mixed schools. Since the study focused on issues affecting male student retention, it was conducted in the 38 public secondary schools that enroll boys—comprising both boys' and mixed secondary schools.

The study targeted a total of 1,368 respondents, drawn from 38 public secondary schools. This included 38 school principals (one from each school), 76 class teachers (two per school for Form two and form three) and 114 parents (three per school, representing students in the two forms). Additionally, the sample comprised 1,140 male students from form two and form three, with 15 boys selected from each form in every school. Each category within the target population was selected based on its relevance to the study objectives: Principals play a strategic role in policy implementation and school management. As key decision-makers, their insights were considered essential

in understanding the institutional measures and leadership strategies that influence male student retention.

Class teachers of form two and form three were included because of their frequent and close interaction with students. According to Mutahi (2019) class teachers are often more knowledgeable about students' academic and behavioral patterns than other school staff, making them well-positioned to provide valuable data regarding retention dynamics. Form two and form three boys were targeted because they are directly affected by the issue of school dropout. Furthermore, studies such as Owino and Kurgat (2014) indicate that school dropout rates are highest during these classes.

These students were also likely to have spent sufficient time in the school system to understand the challenges they face and how these challenges impact their likelihood of remaining in school. Parents of form two and form three students were included to provide a household perspective on socio-economic factors influencing school retention. Their views added depth to the data by shedding light on home-based factors such as income levels, parental involvement, and attitudes toward education. By targeting these specific groups, the study ensured that the data collected was comprehensive, reliable, and reflective of the real factors influencing male student retention in public secondary schools within Mbooni West Sub-County.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

According to Orodho (2012) a sample is a smaller group or sub-group obtained from the accessible population. According to Kerlinger (1998) a sample is a subject of population where the actual study is being conducted. Sampling is the process of selection of appropriate number of respondents from a defined population. Sampling is the process of selecting individuals from a population to represent the entire group. It

involves procedures for choosing sub-sections of the population as a representative sample in order to gather information relevant to the research problem (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Kombo and Tromp (2006) describe sampling as the selection of individuals or objects from a population whose characteristics are representative of the whole group. Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) recommend the use of a large sample to ensure representativeness. Studying a sample allows researchers to gain insights about a population without examining every individual within it. In this study, both simple random sampling and stratified random sampling techniques were used. According to Kaneko and Matsumoto (2016), selecting between 20% and 40% of a population is appropriate for determining sample size. Therefore, 40% of secondary school principals, class teachers, parents, and male students were included in the study.

The researcher used multistage sampling. The study was conducted in 15 public secondary schools, which were selected using simple random sampling from 38 public secondary school in Mbooni West Sub-County. The 15 principals were selected using purposive sampling. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 30 class teachers from the 15 schools, one teacher from form two and form three. The 45 parents for form 2 and form 3 were selected, where in each school 3 parents were selected using simple random sampling and 456 male students in form 2 and 3 were selected using proportionate random sampling. The total sample size was 546 respondents presented in table 3.1

Proportionate Random Sampling Formula.

$$n_i = \frac{N_i}{N} \times n$$

Where:

n_i : Sample size for school

N_i : Target Population size (1,1140)

N : Total population size for school

n : Total sample size (456)

Table 3.1: Sample Frame for the Study

Respondents' Category	Target Population	Sampling Percentage (%)	Sample Size	Sampling Technique
Principals (Public)	38	40	15	Purposive
Class teachers	76	40	30	Simple random
Parents	114	40	45	Simple random
Students	1,140	40	456	Simple random
Total	1,368		546	

Form two and three class teachers were selected because most of the drop out occurs in form two and three. The students selected were form two and three boys because they have their peers who may have dropped out of school and also, they have the experience in school.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

According to Oso and Onen (2011) data refers to factual information upon which research inferences are based. In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were employed. Specifically, questionnaires were used to collect data from form two and form three class teachers and students, while interview schedules were used to gather in-depth information from school principals and parents. The selection of these instruments was guided by the nature of the study, which sought

to examine cultural practices, peer pressure, parental education levels, and parental income as determinants of male student retention in secondary schools. As noted by Hussein and Benhin (2015) such variables are best explored using both structured and semi-structured data collection tools to capture a wide range of views and opinions.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a data collection tool in which individuals respond to a standardized set of questions presented in a predetermined order (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In this study, self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data from form two and form three class teachers and students. These respondents were considered key informants due to their direct and prolonged interaction with the learners. The questionnaires included both closed-ended and open-ended items, allowing for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. The closed-ended items utilized a five-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree), which facilitated the quantification of attitudes and perceptions.

The Likert scale was particularly useful for statistical analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 27, as it allowed for numerical coding of responses. The open-ended questions enabled respondents to elaborate on their views, thus enriching the data with contextual insights. The use of questionnaires was advantageous due to their cost-effectiveness, ease of administration, ability to reach a large sample, and provision of sufficient time for respondents to consider their answers (Kothari, 2011). Moreover, they reduced potential bias arising from face-to-face interactions (Kasomo, 2010). Although questionnaires are effective for gathering broad data, their limitations in exploring deeper insights were mitigated by incorporating

interview schedules for parents and principals, in line with Pardede's (2019) recommendation for mixed-method approaches.

3.6.1.1 Questionnaire for Teachers

The teacher questionnaire was structured into six sections: Section A: Background information of the respondents, Section B: Cultural practices, Section C: Peer pressure, Section D: Parental level of education, Section E: Parental income and Section F: male student retention in secondary schools. Sections B to E employed the Likert scale format, while both open and closed-ended questions were included throughout the instrument.

3.6.1.2 Questionnaire for Students

The student questionnaire followed a similar structure to that of the teachers and comprised six sections; Section A: Demographic information, Section B: Cultural practices, Section C: Peer pressure, Section D: Parental level of education, Section E: Parental income and Section F: male student retention in secondary schools. The questionnaire included both structured (closed-ended) and unstructured (open-ended) questions to capture both statistical trends and personal insights.

3.6.2 Interview Schedule

An interview schedule is a qualitative data collection method that involves verbal interaction between the researcher and the participant using open-ended questions (Kothari, 2011). The researcher used structured interview guides to collect in-depth data from school principals and parents. Structured interviews were chosen to ensure consistency in questioning while still allowing room for respondents to elaborate on their responses when necessary. According to Cooper and Schindler (2014), interviews are preferred for collecting qualitative data due to their ability to capture non-verbal

cues and obtain personalized responses. Orodho (2012) further states that interviews follow a structured approach that seeks responses to a predefined set of questions. These interviews facilitated the collection of both factual information and personal opinions regarding the factors affecting male student retention in secondary schools.

3.6.2.1 Interview Schedule for Principals

The principals' interview schedule comprised six sections: Section A: Background information of the school, Section B: Cultural practices, Section C: Peer pressure, Section D: Parental level of education Section E: Parental income and Section F: male student retention in secondary school. The structured interview questions allowed the researcher to explore how school leadership perceives and addresses the challenges related to the male students' retention.

3.6.2.2 The Parents' Interview Schedule

The instrument comprised six sections. Section A captured the demographic information of the respondents. Section B contained items related to cultural practices, while Section C focused on peer pressure. Section D addressed the level of education of the parents, and Section E focused on parental income. Finally, Section F included questions related to the retention of the male student in secondary school.

3.7 Piloting of Research Instrument

Piloting of the research instruments was conducted in two public secondary schools within Mbooni East Sub-County, a neighboring region to Mbooni West Sub-County. According to Connelly (2008), a pilot study sample should comprise approximately 10% of the total sample size. Accordingly, the pilot involved 2 principals, 3 class teachers, 5 parents, and 46 male students. The main objective of the pilot study was to assess the appropriateness, clarity, and reliability of the data collection instruments

(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The process facilitated the identification of potential weaknesses in the instrument design and data collection procedures (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Furthermore, the pilot study enabled the researcher to refine the tools, address possible challenges, and estimate the time required for actual data collection during the main study.

3.7.1 Validity of Research Instrument

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure and allows accurate inferences to be drawn from the research results (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013). In this study, content validity was applied to assess whether the instruments adequately covered all relevant areas aligned with the research objectives. To achieve this, the questionnaires were developed with reference to the study's variables, ensuring that each research objective was addressed through clearly structured questions. The instruments were further reviewed by academic supervisors and field experts, whose feedback helped ensure that the items were relevant, clearly worded, and comprehensive.

This expert validation ensured that the instruments captured the full range of concepts being investigated. To reinforce credibility, which refers to the trustworthiness and believability of findings, the study utilized a pilot test to pre-assess the instruments. The pilot enabled the researcher to identify and address ambiguities, inconsistencies, or gaps in the instruments before the main data collection. Additionally, credibility was enhanced by aligning the questions directly with the study's objectives and ensuring that both qualitative and quantitative instruments were developed with methodological rigor. For interviews, credibility was further improved through member checking,

where the researcher clarified responses with participants during the interview process to ensure accuracy and authenticity.

3.7.2 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the consistency of a research instrument—that is, its ability to yield similar results upon repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). Reliability ensures that the research findings are stable across time, location, and conditions. In this study, test–retest reliability was used to assess the consistency of the questionnaire responses. The reliability test was conducted with a group of respondents from the pilot schools who were not part of the main study. The questionnaire was administered twice to the same group—comprising 2 principals, 3 class teachers, 4 parents, and 45 students—with a two-week interval between administrations.

The results from both sessions were analyzed using Cronbach’s Alpha, which yielded a coefficient of 0.70. This indicates an acceptable level of internal consistency, making the instrument reliable for use in the actual study. The credibility of the reliability process was supported by maintaining a consistent testing environment, providing clear instructions, and ensuring that the same questions were administered in both instances. The use of multiple data sources (teachers, students, parents, and principals) also contributed to methodological triangulation, which further enhances the credibility and dependability of the study findings. According to Best and Kahn (2016) Pearson’s Coefficient of correlation can be worked out as follows:

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n\sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n\sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

Where:

r = Pearson Coefficient

n = number of the samples

Σxy = sum of products of x and y

Σx = sum of the x scores

Σy = sum of the y scores

Σx^2 = sum of the squared x scores

Σy^2 = sum of the squared y scores

3.8 Data Collection Technique

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the School of Education, Machakos University. A research permit was then obtained from the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI). Upon being granted the research permit, the researcher reported to the Sub-County Director of Education, Mbooni West Sub-County, to seek further permission to conduct research within the area of jurisdiction. Permission to conduct research in individual schools was sought from the principals of the respective schools. The researcher personally distributed the questionnaires to the respondents. Class teachers, as well as male students in form two and form three, were given instructions by the researcher on how to correctly complete the questionnaires. All items in the questionnaires were fully filled out before being collected by the researcher on the same day for analysis. Additionally, the researcher conducted interviews with the principals. Interviews with parents were conducted during PA meetings in some of the selected schools. The principals granted permission

for the researcher to interview parents of male students in the relevant forms while they were waiting for the meetings to begin.

3.9 Data Analysis

The researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data from different data collection instruments. Data was collected by use of questionnaires were analyzed descriptively and data collected from the interviews were analyzed quantitatively. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 27 computer was used in data analysis. The findings were presented in tables, bar graphs, pie charts, frequencies and percentages as per objectives.

Table 3.2: Summary of Data Analysis Matrix

Objective	Source of Data	Research Instrument	Statistical Tool for Data Analysis
To determine the cultural practices that influence male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.	Primary source	Questionnaires, Interviews	Median, Percentages, Frequency, Mean, Pearson's Correlations
To establish how peer pressure influences male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.	Primary and secondary sources	Questionnaires, Interviews	Median, Percentages, Frequency, Mean, Pearson's Correlations
To establish how the level of education of parents influences male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.	Primary and secondary sources	Questionnaires, Interviews	Median, Percentages, Frequency, Mean, Pearson's Correlations
To determine whether parent income influences male student retention in Mbooni West Sub-County.	Primary and secondary sources	Questionnaires, Interviews	Median, Percentages, Frequency, Mean, Pearson's Correlations

3.10 Logistical and Ethical Consideration

Ethical considerations refer to issues related to the protection of the subjects involved in the study. The researcher obtained a clearance letter from Machakos University

through the Dean of the Graduate School, which was presented to NACOSTI in order to obtain a research permit. Permission was also sought from the office of the Sub-County Director of Education, Mbooni West Sub-County, where the study was conducted. The researcher obtained informed consent from the respondents; form two and form three class teachers, male student in form two and form three, principals, and parents before administering the questionnaires and conducting interviews. The respondents were assured of the confidentiality of the information provided during the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis, presentation of the data collected as well as interpretation of the findings basing on the objectives of the study. The main objective of the study was to investigate influence of cultural practices, peer pressure, parental level of education and parental income on male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni-West sub-county.

4.2 Response Rate

Data was collected from students, parents, class teachers and principals whose response rates were as indicated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Questionnaire Return Rate

Respondents	Sample Size	Number Returned	Return Rate (%)
Students	456	438	96.1
Parents	45	45	100.0
Class Teachers	30	27	90.0
Principals	15	13	86.7

From Table 4.1 the overall response rate was established to be 95.8 % which is quite high. Many studies accept a range of 50-60 % response rates as adequate for analysis and reporting while a few do not (Bailey, 2008; Mugenda &Mugenda, 2013). Further, Mugenda and Mugenda (2013) classify a response rate of 50 % as adequate, of 60 % as good and above 70 % as excellent. Since the study used self-administered questionnaires the return rate was excellent. Edlund and Nichols (2019) ascertain that high return rates are common with self-administered questionnaires. To attain the high

return rates, the researcher ensured proper communication with respondents by making every instruction clear yet maintaining high ethical standards.

4.3 Demographic Information: Students Responses

4.3.1 Students' Age

Distribution of students according to their age brackets is portrayed in Figure 4.1

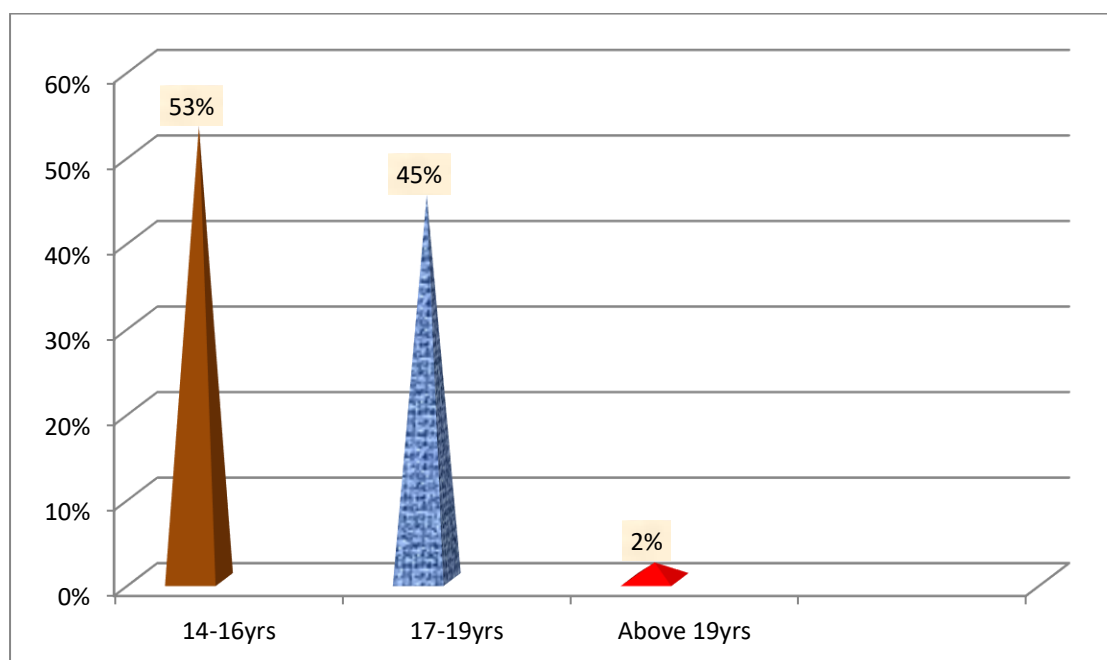


Figure 4.1: Age Brackets of Students

The majority of students (53%) were aged between 14 and 16 years, followed closely by those aged 17 to 19 years (45%), while only a few (2%) were above 19 years. This implies that most of the students who responded were early teens aged 16 years and below. Willard (2007) classifies early teens as those between the ages of 13 and 15. A significant portion of the students (45%) were in the 17 to 19 age bracket, with only a small minority (2%) older than 19. The age range of 14 to 19 years, in which nearly all respondents fell, represents adolescence a period often marked by emotional challenges as individuals work to establish their identities. This developmental stage may lead to unhealthy decision-making, including the possibility of dropping out of school.

4.3.2 Students' Class

The study targeted form 2 and 3 male students. Most of the students, 226 of the 438 making 52 %, were in form two classes and the remaining 212 composing 48 % were in form three as Figure 4.2 shows

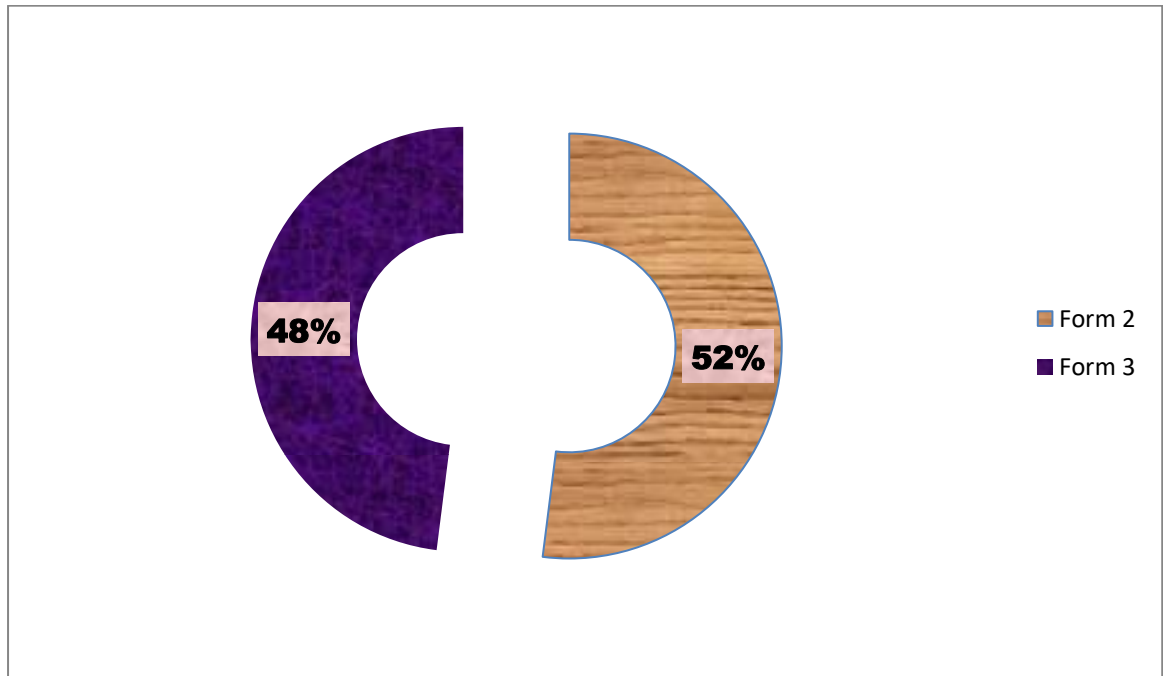


Figure 4.2: Proportions of Students According to their Classes

This finding confirms the information presented in Figure 4.1, which shows that there were more students in the 14–16 age bracket than in the 17–19 age group. Most students in Kenya join secondary school at the age of 15, implying that the majority of those aged 16 are in form two, 17 in form three, and 18 in form four (Othoo, Olel, & Gogo, 2019). This suggests that since students aged 16 years and below were more than those aged 17 and above, more respondents were in form two than in form three. Male students tend to drop out of the education system as they progress from one class to the next (Sang, Koros, & Bosire, 2013).

4.3.3 Number of Siblings to Students

Number of siblings was examined in brackets of 1-4, 5-7, and above 7 and responses obtained summarized in as shown in Figure 4.3.

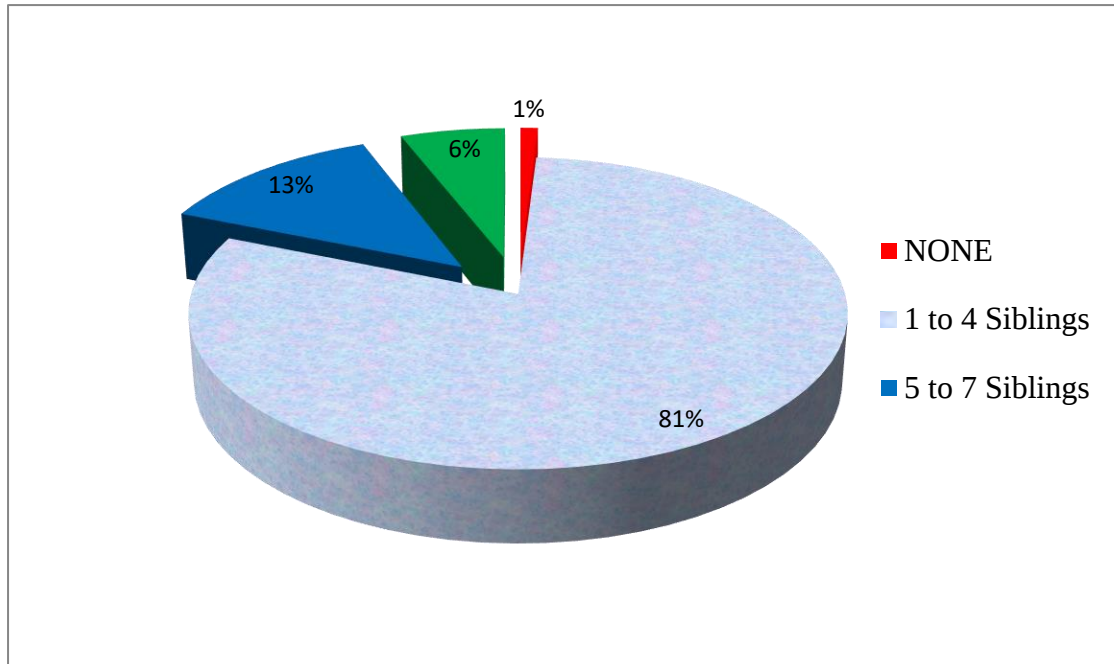


Figure 4.3: Number of Students' Siblings

From figure 4.3, most students (81%) had 1-4 siblings. Number of siblings determines the family size which in turn directly affects dropout rates of students from secondary school (Langat, 2019).

4.3.4 Siblings Highest Education Level

Students were required to indicate number of siblings in primary, secondary, college and university levels. The highest level from each response was considered and all the information summarized in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Frequency of Siblings According to their Highest Level of Education

Highest Sibling Education Level	Frequency	Percent (%)
No responses	5	1.1
Primary	127	29.0
Secondary	133	30.4
College	55	12.6
University	118	26.9
Total	438	100.0

Table 4.2 shows that 5 participants (1%, n=438) did not include highest levels of their siblings, 55 (13%, n=438) had college level as their siblings' highest level of education. A greater number, 118(27%, n=438) had siblings going up to university level, then 127 (29%) had their siblings with primary level as their highest education level. The greatest number of students, 133 (30%, n=438) had secondary school as their siblings' highest level. Education attainment of siblings associates with retention and completion of high school (Wall-Wieler & Roos, 2017). The two authors explained that students whose siblings attain higher levels of education face less challenges in education and are retained to completion while those whose sibling's dropouts tend to dropout before completion too (Wall-Wieler & Roos, 2017).

4.3.5 Parent Education Level

The questionnaire required students to indicate their parents' education levels as primary, secondary, college or university. The information collected was summarized in Table 4.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Parents According to Education Levels

Parent's Education Level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No responses	11	2.5	2.5
Primary	93	21.2	23.7
Secondary	148	33.8	57.5
College	81	18.5	76.0
University	105	24.0	100.0
Total	438	100.0	

From Table 4.3, 11 students did not indicate any level of parental education. This suggests that they could be orphans. Although not shown in Table 4.4, one student did not select any education level but stated that the parent had never attended school. This translates to a negligible illiteracy rate of 0.2%. Cumulatively, a total of 196 students (42.5%) had parents whose level of education was either college or higher. According to Langat (2019) student dropout rates are influenced by their parents' level of education. The same author asserts that parents with higher education levels place greater value on education compared to those with lower educational attainment. Additionally, parents with higher education levels tend to be more capable than those with lower levels in terms of monitoring, care, and provision for their children in secondary schools (Mitaru, 2021; Lekasi, 2020).

4.3.6 Parent Occupation

Table 4.4 shows types of occupations of parents of students involved in the study. The table displays occupations of both parents, that is, father and mother.

Table 4.4: Type of Parent Occupation

Occupation	Father – F	Father – %	Mother – F	Mother – %	Total – F	Total – %
Salaried	154	35	106	24	260	30
Self-employment	151	35	178	41	329	38
Farming	75	18	94	21	169	19
Casual Labour	48	11	55	13	103	12
No responses	10	1	5	1	15	1
Total	438	100	438	100	876	100

Note. *F* = Frequency.

From the information provided by students in Table 4.4, about 68% of their parents were either salaried (30%) or self-employed (38%). Most parents were self-employed (38%), compared to those who were salaried (30%). It is also evident that more mothers (41%) than fathers (35%) were self-employed, while more fathers (35%) than mothers (24%) held salaried jobs. In addition, more mothers than fathers were engaged in farming and casual labor. This indicates that mothers were more involved in economic activities aimed at meeting their children's financial needs compared to fathers. Furthermore, Table 4.4 shows that more fathers than mothers were unaccounted for, suggesting that some students came from single-parent families—most likely headed by mothers. Although the study was conducted in rural-based schools, only a small proportion (19%) of students reported that their parents were farmers, which may suggest that many of them came from urban-based homes. Additionally, most families in the sub-county practice farming for subsistence rather than for income generation. Only a few of the parents were reported to be casual laborers, with more of these being fathers than mothers. Parental sources of income have been shown to influence school dropout rates (Mitaru, 2021; Lekasi, 2020).

4.3.7 Parent Approximate Income

According to the students involved in the study their parents earn as Table 4.5 portrays.

Table 4.5: Approximate Monthly Parents' Income

Parental Income (in Thousands)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No responses	15	3.4	3.4
1-4	40	9.1	12.5
5-9	47	10.7	23.2
10-14	52	11.9	35.1
15-19	55	12.6	47.7
20-24	67	15.3	63
Over 24	162	37.0	100
Total	438	100.0	

The majority of students (37%) indicated that their parents earned over 24,000 Kenyan shillings, which translates to a relatively high income. The average income in Kenya stands at Ksh. 23,123 (KNBS, 2022). It is therefore evident from Table 4.5 that about half of the parents (52.3%) earned above Kenya's average income, while the remaining 47.7% earned below average. According to the World Bank (2009), as cited in Mitaru (2021), poverty remains prevalent in African countries, including Kenya. Parents with low incomes may be unable to meet their sons' financial needs at school, potentially leading to dropout.

4.4 Demographic Information: Parents' Responses

4.4.1 Gender

From the parent's questionnaire Figure 4.4 provides information on proportions of gender as either male or female.

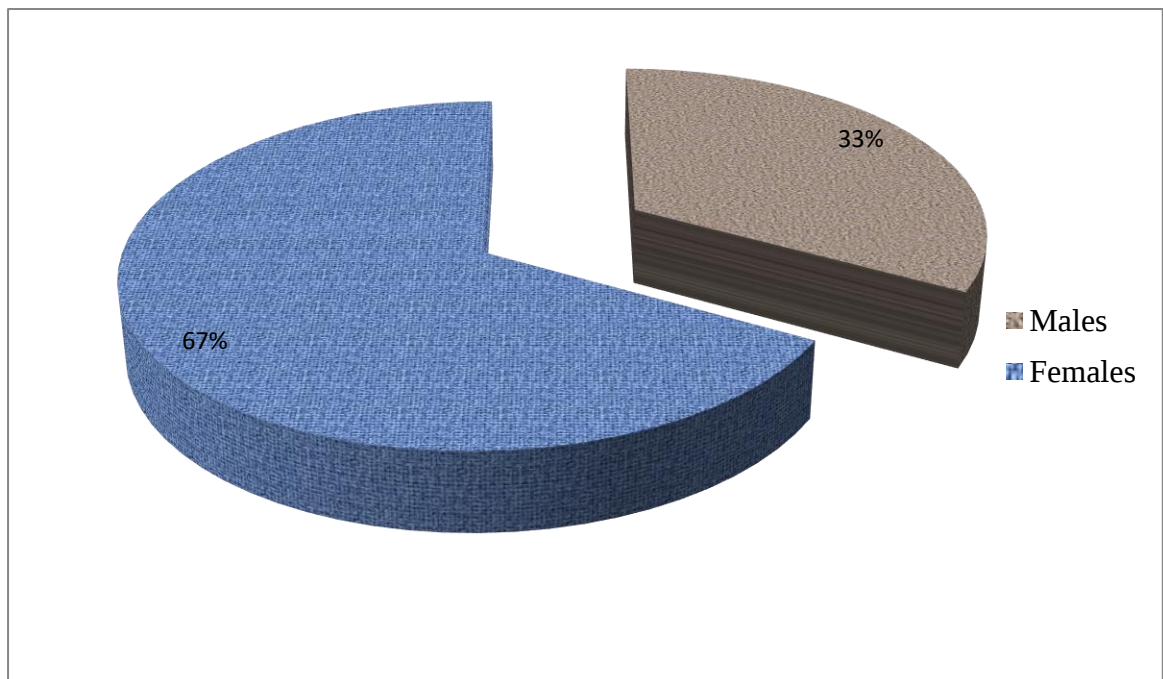


Figure 4.4: Parents' Gender

Figure 4.4 shows that majority (67.4%) of parents who responded to the study were females and the remaining (32.6%) were males. The questionnaires were administered to parents who visited schools on a selected day. This gives a clear picture that more mothers than fathers visited schools in the chosen day, an expression of involvement by mothers more than fathers in their boy child education. This finding agrees with findings of other research studies (Taru, 2009; Hunsakers, 2013; Barnes, 2016) that mothers are more involved in their children's education than fathers. However, Koskei, Itegi and Muchanje (2022) showed that sometimes women involvement in male student education is limited by cultural orientations which deny mothers to directly interact with and advise male students in matters pertaining life after attaining a certain age. Nevertheless, the same study proved that parental involvement significantly influences male students' education (Koskei, et al., 2022).

4.4.2 Duration in the Community

Parents were required to indicate their duration in the community. Figure 4.5 shows the results.

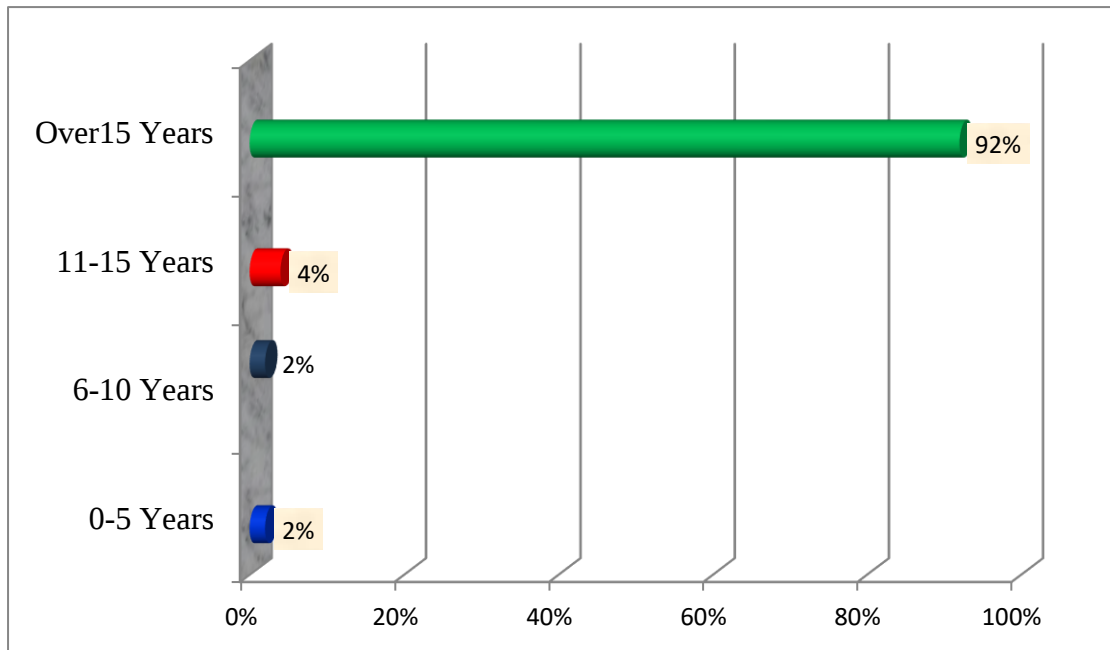


Figure 4.5: Duration of Parent's Stay in the Community

Most parents (92%) were well conversant with the community within which the school is located since they had been in it for over 15 years. A smaller proportion (4%) of the parents had known about the community for a duration of 11 to 15 years. Understanding a community vividly influences the parent's choice of school for the male student. A parent with longer stay in a community is expected to understand schools within the community in terms of challenges that possibly lead to male student drop out and avoid such schools for the male students.

4.4.3 Parent's Occupation

This was a qualitative aspect of this research where the parent was required to write down the occupation that he/she is engaged in. The responses given were developed into themes and their frequencies provided in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Parents' Occupation

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Self-employment	18	38
Casual Labourer	17	36
Salaried	8	17
Farmer	2	4
House Wives	2	4
Total	47	100

A total of 47 responses were given which were grouped into five themes. The leading occupation for parents was self-employment (38%). This perfectly matches in percentage with the responses given by students concerning their parents' occupations as portrayed in Table 4.4. In both cases, self-employment was ranked the major occupation of parents of male students in Mbooni-West Sub-County. However, while parents ranked casual labourer second (36%), students ranked it as the occupation with the least number of parents (12%). Table 4.6 also shows that 17 per cent of parents were in salaried jobs which were a smaller percentage compared to 30% provided by students in Table 4.4. Worth noting is the fact that, as students portrayed in Table 4.4, only 4% of parents stated farming as an occupation and another 4% stated that they were housewives. Mbooni-West Sub-County is densely populated and farming is done as small scale for subsistence purposes therefore cannot be considered an occupation. Again, the study was conducted at a time when cost of farming was unbearable due high prices of fertilizers and seeds as well as poor market prices for farm products which

discouraged farmers from farming for business purposes. Instead, they import farm products from outside the sub-county and engage in business using them.

4.5 Demographic Information: Principals' Responses

4.5.1 Duration within Mbooni-West Sub-County

Thirteen principals responded to items in their questionnaire. Figure 4.6 shows the results.

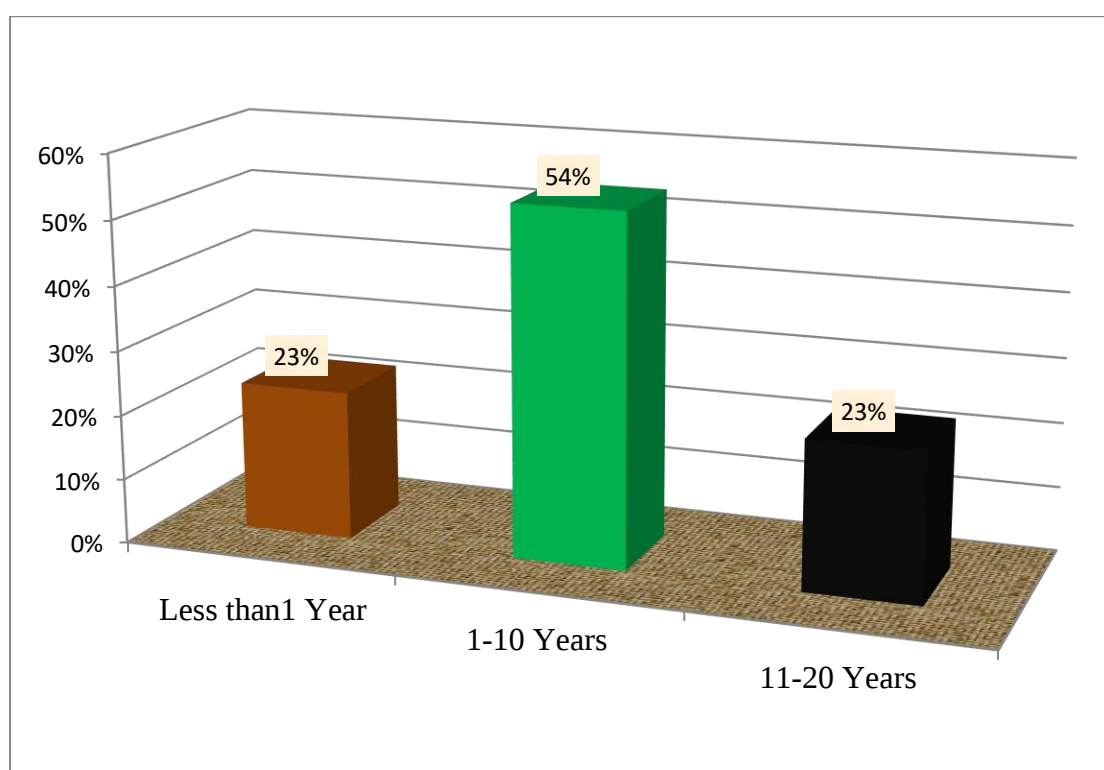


Figure 4.6: Duration of Principal's Stay in the Community

According to Figure 4.6, the majority of principals (54%) had served in the sub-county for a period ranging from 1 to 10 years. An additional 23% had between 11 and 20 years of experience in the same sub-county. Interestingly, an equal proportion of principals (23%) had served for less than one year. In terms of distribution, these findings differ slightly from those reported by Inganga (2012) who found that only 5% of principals had less than five years of experience in the same sub-county. The majority

(79%) had served for between 6 and 15 years, while 17% had served for more than 16 years.

4.5.2 Duration at Current Station

Principals responded to the item requiring them to indicate their lengths of stay in the same station. The durations provided by the respondents were then categorized into groups where 3 (23%), indicating a stay of below 1 year, 7(54%) had stay of 1-5 years, 2(15%) a length of 2 years and 1(8%) had stayed for over 10 years as Figure 4.7 shows.

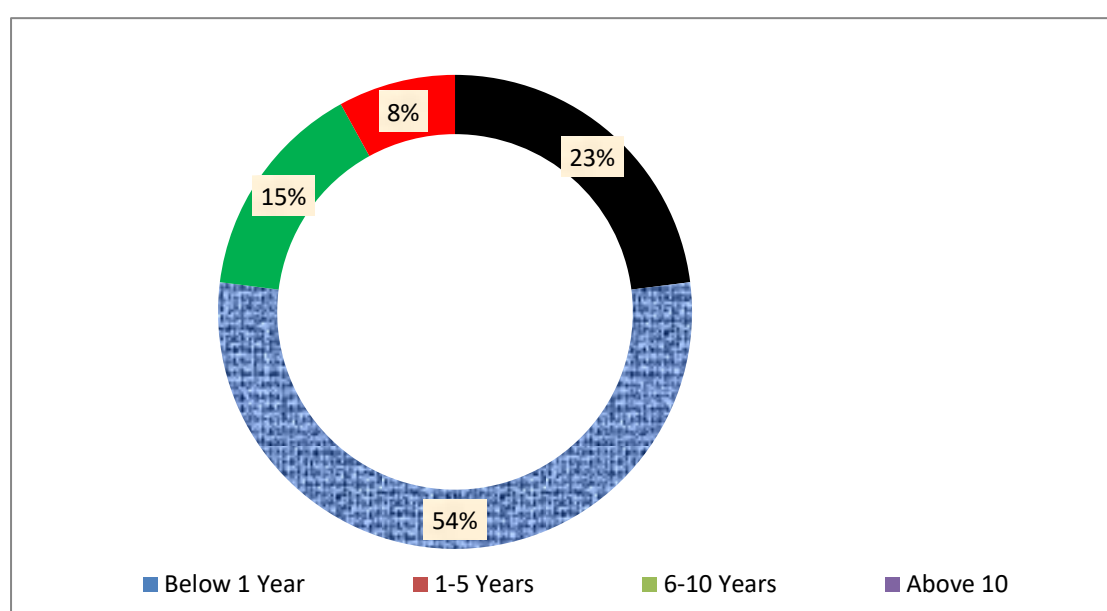


Figure 4.7: Duration of Principal's Stay in the same Station

Years of stay translate to experience of the principals in implementation of policies and procedures involved in upholding discipline in schools hence boost boy retention (Kimanzi, 2022; Ongoto, Ogola & Malusu, 2019; Inganga, 2012). While these researchers agree that principals who have stayed longer in their stations are more equipped to handle challenges of dropout, Mosiori and Thinguri (2015) established no relationship between principals' experience and dropout issues. This was translated by Kimanzi (2022) to mean that experience of principals may not stop male student

dropout. However, experiences of principals equip them with familiarization with challenges leading to male student drop out and develop strategies and policies to counteract them hence curb male student drop out.

4.6 Indicators of male student Dropout

The researcher, driven by an interest in understanding the extent of male student dropout, included several questions for selected respondents—students, class teachers, and principals on the issue. Although the questions were not uniformly designed, the responses, whether qualitative or quantitative, provided insights into the presence or absence of male student dropout in the schools under study.

4.6.1 Students' Responses

Students were required to respond to two questions, 'Are there any of your classmate male students who have dropped out of school?' and 'how many? The first response was expected to be a yes or no whose results are portrayed in figure 4.8.

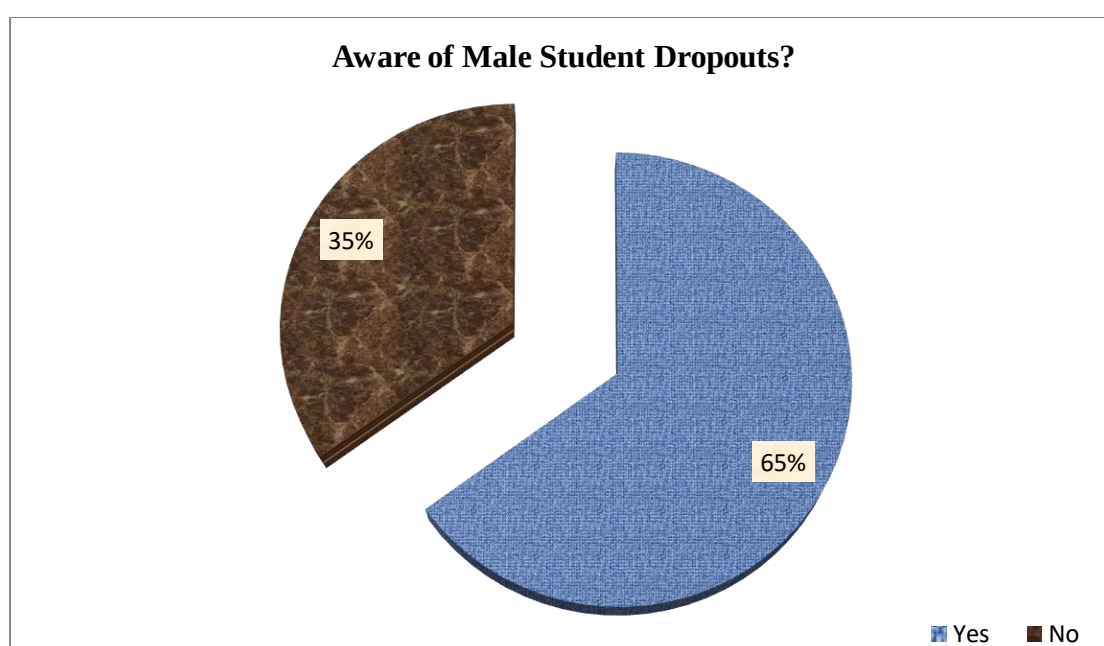


Figure 4.8: Awareness of Male Student Dropouts by Students

According to Figure 4.8, the majority of students (65%) reported having witnessed male students dropping out of school, while 35% stated that they were unaware of any male student dropouts from their school. This suggests that male student dropout is evident in some schools but not in others. In contrast, Gatwiri, Boit, and Njuguna (2019) found that male students had dropped out of all the schools included in their study. In response to a follow-up question, students indicated the number of male student dropouts they were personally aware of. These responses were grouped into four categories: those who knew none (0), those who knew 1–5 dropouts, 6–10 dropouts, and those who knew more than 10 dropouts, as presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Distribution of Students by the Number of Male Student Dropouts they are Aware of

Number of Male Student Drop outs	00	1-5	6-10	Above 10	Total
Frequency	150	201	53	34	438
Percentage	34.2	45.9	12.1	7.7	100

Information in Table 4.7 shows that 150 students (34.2%) reported not knowing of any male student dropouts from their school. The majority, 201 students (55.9%), indicated that they had witnessed between 1 and 5 male students drop out. A smaller proportion, 53 students (12.1%), knew of 6 to 10 male student dropouts, while 34 students (7.7%) were aware of more than 10 male students who had dropped out of school. The mean number of male student dropouts known by each respondent was calculated using SPSS Version 27, and the results are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Mean of Number of Male Student Drop Outs Known by Each Student

Descriptive Statistics		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Number of Male student Dropouts Known		438	.00	15.00	3.3904	3.64947
(Valid N)		438				

The mean of number of male student dropouts known by each student was established to be 3.3904. This means that each student knows at least 3 male students who have dropped out of school. This means male student that drop out is evident in the schools under study. In agreement with the finding Omollo and Yambo (2017) maintain that the figure of boy drop out is on the rise.

4.6.2 Class Teachers' Responses

Teachers were asked to indicate the number of male student dropouts from the class that was in form One in 2020 and sat for their KCSE examinations in 2023. They were also required to comment on the trend of male student dropout over the four-year period. All 27 teachers who responded to the questionnaire provided feedback, as summarized in Table 4.9. The data in Table 4.9 show that 9 teachers (33%) reported no male student dropouts in their schools. Additionally, 7 teachers (26%) stated that they were aware of 1–5 male students who had dropped out from that cohort. Another 7 teachers (26%) reported knowing 6–10 male students who left school before completing Form Four. The remaining 4 teachers (15%) indicated that more than 10 male students had dropped out during the four-year period.

Table 4.9: Number of Male Student Drop Outs as provided by Class Teachers

Number of Male Student Drop Outs	Frequency	Percentage
00	9	33
1-5	7	26
6-10	7	26
Over 10	4	15
Total	27	100

Class teachers also commented on the drop out trend over the 4 years. The comments were developed into commonalities or themes as portrayed in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Class Teachers' Comments on Drop Out Trends

Trend	Frequency	Percentage
Decreases as male students move up the academic ladder	7	30
Increases as male students move up the academic ladder	6	26
High in middle classes	6	26
Highest in form three	4	18
Total	23	

A total of 23 comments were given which were coded into for themes. Majority of class teachers, 7 (30%), indicated that boy drop decreases as students' progress from form one to four. On the contrary, 6(26%) of the responses pointed to an increasing trend from form one to form four. Korir and Kiptum (2023) support the second observation by asserting that despite the immense measures taken by the government to curb boy dropout, the trend is on the increase. The observation by 4(18%) of the class teachers also is in support of the second observation since form three is a senior class just next to form four. On the same note 6(26%) of the class teachers stated that boy drop out is

highest in middle classes, form three included. Generally, most class teachers forecasted for increasing trend in boy drop out up the academic ladder in high school.

4.6.3 Principals' Responses

The principals involved in the study were asked to indicate whether they experience male student drop out in their schools on a yes/no scale. The outcomes were then presented in Figure 4.9.

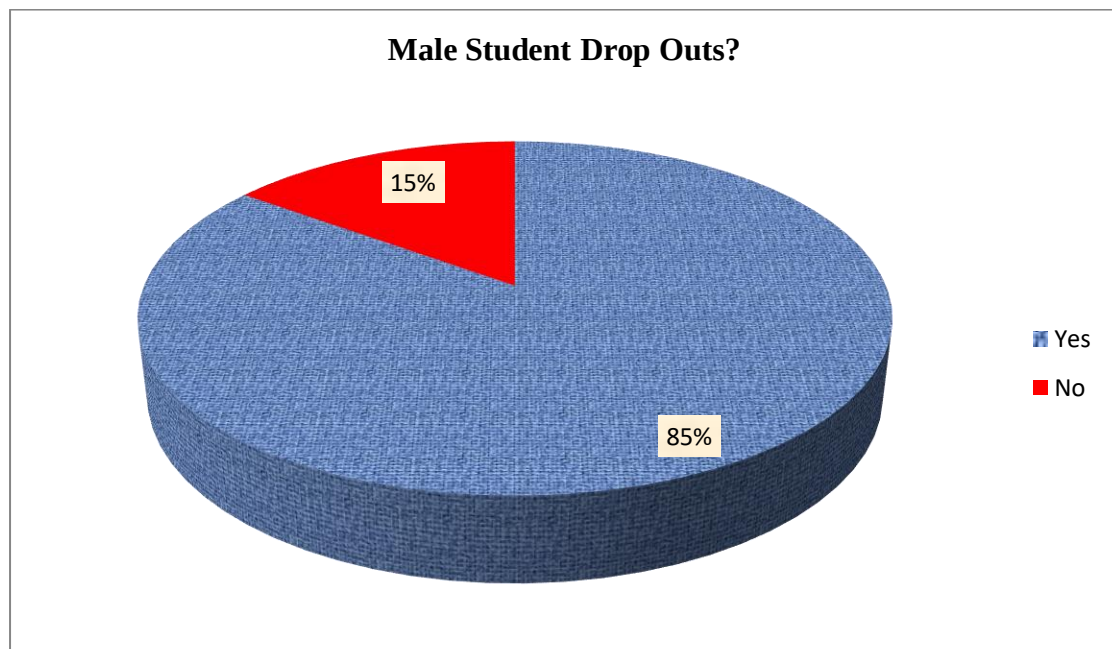


Figure 4.9: Evidence of Male Student Dropout as Stated by Principals

Most principals 11 out of 13 (85%) reported experiencing male student dropouts in their schools, while only 2 (15%) indicated that they had not. This suggests strong evidence of male student dropout across the schools studied. Responses from students, class teachers, and principals collectively point to a consistent pattern of male student dropout in the majority of secondary schools included in the study. This finding is supported by previous research (Sang et al., 2013; Korir & Kiptum, 2023; Omollo & Yambo, 2017; Inganga, 2012).

4.7 Reasons for Male Student Dropout

In the students', parents, and principals' questionnaires, some responses provided were actually causes of male Student drop out in high school settings.

4.7.1 Students' Responses

Students were expected to answer the question 'give the reasons why male students have dropped out of school'. They wrote the reasons without any restrictions which were grouped into themes and their frequencies determines as shown in Table 4.11

Table 4.11: Students' Reasons for Male Student Dropout

Rank	Reason	Frequency	Percentage
1	Lack of finances for fees and other expenses	209	30.5
2	Peer pressure	114	16.6
3	Drug and Substance abuse	109	15.9
4	Indiscipline	83	12.1
5	Low self-esteem	42	6.1
6	Poverty	33	4.8
7	Poor teacher-student relationship	22	3.2
8	Poor performance	18	2.6
9	Parental irresponsibility	11	1.6
10	Poor attitude towards education	10	1.5
11	Adolescence crisis	9	1.3
12	Child labour	7	1.0
13	Health issues	6	0.9
14	Tough school life	4	0.6
15	Poor school infrastructure	4	0.6
16	Got married	3	0.4
17	Jailed	1	0.1
18	Devil worship	1	0.1
TOTAL		686	100

4.7.2 Parents' Responses

The responses in Table 4.12 were obtained when parents responded to the item 'what can you say about the education of the male student in high school?'.

Table 4.12: Parents' Reasons for Male Student Dropout

Rank	Reason	Frequency	Percentage
1	Drug and substance abuse	22	33
2	Peer pressure	15	22
3	Negligence	8	12
4	Indiscipline	7	11
5	Peer pressure	5	8
6	Boda-boda business	4	6
7	Bad education system	3	5
8	Lack of finances for fees and other expenses	2	3
TOTAL		51	100

4.7.3 Principals' Responses

Data in Table 4.13 was obtained from principals' response to the question 'Why do you think male students drop out of school?'

Table 4.13: Principals' Reasons for the Male Student Dropout

Rank	Reason	Frequency	Percentage
1	Drug and substance abuse	7	29
2	Peer pressure	6	25
3	Bodaboda business	4	17
4	Lack of finances for fees and other expenses	4	17
5	Poverty	1	4
6	Family disturbances	1	4
7	Negligence	1	4
TOTAL		24	100

Data presented in Tables 4.11 to 4.13 show that students, parents, and principals perceived the causes of male student dropout from secondary schools in diverse ways. According to students, lack of finances to pay school fees and cover other school-related expenses was the leading cause of male student dropout (30.5%; see Table 4.11). This finding is consistent with previous research (Gachoki, 2005; Koskei, Tonui, & Simiyu, 2015; Gatwiri et al., 2019). These studies also ranked lack of financial resources as the main cause of male student dropout in secondary schools. Despite the Kenyan government's policy of free secondary education, financial needs such as school fees and other related expenses are not fully met. Boys who are unable to afford these costs are more likely to drop out.

In contrast, parents and principals ranked drug and substance abuse as the primary cause of male student dropout. As shown in Table 4.12, drug abuse accounted for 33% of dropout cases, according to the parents surveyed. Similarly, Table 4.13 indicates that 29% of dropout cases were attributed to drug and substance abuse, according to principals. These findings align with those of Ireri (2016), who identified drug and substance abuse as the leading cause of male student dropout in public secondary schools in Embu County. Peer pressure also emerged as a common reason for male student dropout in Kenyan secondary schools. Table 4.11 (17%), Table 4.12 (22%), and Table 4.13 (25%) all rank peer pressure as the second most significant factor contributing to male students leaving school prematurely. This finding is echoed by Gatwiri et al. (2019), who also identified peer pressure as the second leading cause of dropout among boys.

Another major cause of male student dropout identified in this study was indiscipline, which accounted for 12% (Table 4.11) and 11% (Table 4.12) of cases, as reported by

students and parents, respectively. Although none of the principals cited indiscipline as a cause of dropout, students and parents ranked it fourth. This result corresponds with findings from other studies, which recognize indiscipline as a significant factor in male student dropout (Gachoki, 2006; Sang et al., 2013; Koskei et al., 2015; Ireri, 2016; Gatwiri et al., 2019). For instance, Ireri (2016) ranked indiscipline third, while Koskei et al. (2015) ranked it fifth among the major causes of male student dropout in Kenya. All the factors highlighted in Tables 4.11 to 4.13 are important contributors to male student dropout and should be addressed to achieve universal basic education. According to Gachoki (2006), no single factor can be considered the sole cause of dropout among male students. Similarly, this study identified multiple interrelated factors that contribute to male student dropout in secondary schools. These factors may interact and exacerbate the problem, leading to higher dropout rates among boys.

4.8 Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention

The first objective sought to determine how cultural practices influence male student retention in secondary schools. Four data sets were used to address the research question ‘how do cultural practices influence male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni-West Sub-County?’. Use of the data sets from students, parents, class teachers and principals imply that there is triangulation. In each data set a variable ‘CP’ labeled ‘Cultural Practices’ was computed using SPSS version 27 and used to make analysis.

Table 4.14: Students' Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention

Cultural Practice	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
My family comprises of less than 4 members	128	29.2	153	34.9	25	5.7	89	20.3	43	9.8
My family comprises of 6 members	113	25.8	123	28.1	26	5.9	92	21	84	19.2
Some boys engage themselves in early marriages	88	20.1	70	16.0	44	10	110	25.1	126	28.8
Am left home to take care of the younger siblings	154	35.2	153	34.9	38	8.7	54	12.3	39	8.9
Parents with 7 children and above didn't pay school fees for their son	115	26.3	95	21.7	111	25.3	65	14.8	52	11.9
Inheritance of parent assets can make one drop out of school	81	18.8	65	14.8	37	8.4	119	27.2	136	31.1

N=468

Table 4.15: Number of Children to each Parent

Number of Children	Frequency	Percent
2	4	8.7
3	11	23.9
4	12	26.1
5	14	30.4
6	5	10.9
Total	46	100.0

Table 4.16: Parents' Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention

Cultural Factor	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Do boys help you in household chores	28	60.9	18	39.1
Family inheritance and possession of assets has influenced boy child retention in school?	26	56.5	20	43.5
Do early marriages hinder the retention of boy child in school?	30	65.2	16	34.8
N=46				

Table 4.17: Teachers' Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention

Cultural Practice	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Boys from families of 2-5 members drop out of school	2	7.4	8	29.6	7	25.9	7	25.9	3	11.1
Parents with 6 children and above don't pay lunch fee	2	7.4	10	37	8	29.6	6	22.2	1	3.7
The cultural beliefs on boy child values of education hinders boy child retention	3	11.1	8	29.6	7	25.9	7	25.9	2	7.4
Early marriage makes the boys to drop out of school	2	7.4	8	29.6	4	14.8	4	14.8	9	33.3
Parents who side with boys' misbehavior influences boy child retention	10	37	12	44.4%	3	11.1	3	11.1	0	0
Boys from families with more than 7 members drop out of school	4	14.8	7	25.9	6	22.2	9		1	3.7
N=27										

Table 4.18: Principals' Responses on the Influence of Cultural Practices on Male Student Retention

Cultural Factor	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
In your opinion do you think size of the family has influenced the male student retention?	8	61.5	5	38.5
Do the cultural practices influence the male student retention?	12	92.3	1	7.7

N=13

Table 4.14 indicates that a total of 128 (29.2%) students strongly agreed that they came from families with four members, and an additional 113 (25.8%) strongly agreed to be from families with six members. This suggests that a significant number of students (55%) from families with up to six members faced financial difficulties paying school fees. This observation is supported by data from parents in Table 4.15, where the highest frequency (30.4%) was recorded for families with five children. This aligns with a study by Mueni and Maithya (2018), which found that large families, like those with five children, experience greater financial demands for boy retention. Rumberger and Rodriguez (2011) also noted that larger families tend to have higher dropout rates. Furthermore, 48% of students in Table 4.14 agreed (21.7%) or strongly agreed (26.3%) that families with more than seven members were unable to pay school fees for their sons.

Regarding family size, Table 4.18 shows that 61.5% of principals attributed male student retention issues to it, although teachers expressed mixed feelings in Table 4.17. For instance, while 37% of teachers agreed that families with up to five children cause dropouts, and 44% agreed that parents with about six children struggled with fees,

others disagreed or were undecided. In addition to family finances, cultural factors also play a significant role, as triangulated by responses from parents, teachers, and principals. Table 4.16 reveals that a majority of parents (60.9%) agreed that male student help with household chores, a finding similar to Cheneket (2017), which showed 67.14% of parents engaged their male children in domestic tasks. Overwhelming male student with chores can lead to school dropout, though equipping them with such skills can also be seen as beneficial for their future.

A substantial number of parents (56.5%) also agreed that family inheritance and possession of assets influence male student retention, suggesting that male student with assets may prioritize them over education. Koskei (2021) supports this, stating that some cultural practices prioritize asset possession over education. The perception of early marriage also varied. While 65.2% of parents saw early marriages as a hindrance to male students' retention, 34.8% disagreed, showing a level of tolerance. This tolerance was also evident among teachers, with 33.3% in Table 4.17 strongly disagreeing that early marriage causes male students to drop out. This tolerance can be problematic, as studies like Mukherjee and Sekher (2017) confirm that early marriage affects male students, leading to dropouts as family matters take precedence over education.

Regarding parental behavior, a majority of teachers (81.4%) believed that male students' whose parents are permissive regarding their misbehavior are more likely to drop out. This is supported by 44.4% of teachers agreeing and 37% strongly agreeing that permissive parenting influences male student retention. Research by Pedditzi, Fadda, and Lucarelli (2022) confirms that this parenting style significantly contributes to male student dropout. Ultimately, the principals' responses in Table 4.18 indicated

that 92.3% agreed that cultural practices influence male student retention. To further explore these issues, a composite variable, 'Cultural Practice' (CPS), was computed in SPSS version 27 for each dataset.

Table 4.19: Means of Respondents' Opinions on Cultural Practices Affecting Male Student Retention

Respondents	N	Mean
Students	438	2.7991
Parents	46	2.0707
Teachers	27	2.8025
Principals	13	1.2308

The means were interpreted according to the ranges shown in Table 4.20

Table 4.20: Intervals

Interval	Interpretation
1.00 – 1.80	Very Poor
1.81 – 2.60	Poor Rating
2.61 – 3.40	Average Rating
3.41 – 4.20	Good Rating
4.21 – 5.00	Very Good Rating

Source: Ajit, J. (2020)

Teachers and students attained average mean ratings ($\mu=2.8025$ and $\mu=2.7991$ respectively) concerning the computed variable 'cultural practices. The mean rating obtained for the same variable as parents responded was poor ($\mu=2.0707$) and very poor from principals' responses. The outstanding mean from male students indicate that they understand best how cultural practices affect their rate of dropout compared to teachers, parents and principals. Pearson correlation test was then performed to determine how

cultural practices are associated with male student retention by testing the hypothesis ‘there is no significant association between cultural practices and male student retention’ Table 4.21 is combination of the tables extracted from the SPSS version 27.

Table 4.21: Correlations of Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention

		Students		Parents		Teachers		Principals	
		CPS	MSR	CPS	MSR	CPS	MSR	CPS	MCR
CPS	Pearson Correlation	1	- .423**	1	.086	1	.011	1	.122
	Sig – 2-tailed		.000		.568		.955		.691
	N	438	438	46	406	27	27	13	13
MSR	Pearson Correlation	- .423**	1		0.086	0.011	1	0.122	1
	Sig – 2-tailed	.000			.568	.955		.691	
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13

**Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (Sig- 2 tailed)

Perfect	Strong	Moderate	Weak		Weak	Moderate	Strong	Perfect
Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative		Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Correlation	Correlation	Correlation	Correlation		Correlation	Correlation	Correlation	Correlation
-1	-0.5	-0.3	-0.1	0	0.1	0.3	0.5	1

Source: (Weinberg & Abramowitz, 2008; Monedero et al., 2018)

Figure 4.10: Scale to Interpret Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Table 4.21 presents a moderate negative correlation between cultural practices and male student retention in school, based on student responses ($r = -.043$, $p < .001$). This suggests that, according to male students, cultural practices adversely impact their continued enrollment and contribute to increased dropout rates. Participation in such practices may ultimately lead some male students to disengage from formal education. These findings align with those of Awour (2012) who similarly found that cultural factors significantly influence male student dropout. However, the same table shows no statistically significant relationship between cultural practices and male student retention as perceived by parents ($p = .568$), teachers ($p = .955$), and principals ($p = .691$), indicating a divergence in perspectives. These results stand in contrast to previous studies (e.g., Ntaiya et al., 2021; Koskei, 2021), which have identified socio-cultural practices as influential in shaping male student retention.

The discrepancy in findings may be attributed to the context of the present study, which was conducted in schools predominantly attended by students from the Kamba community. The cultural practices of this group differ markedly from those of pastoralist communities referenced in earlier research, potentially explaining the variance in perceived influence. As Sang et al. (2013) observe, cultural practices are inextricably linked to individual identity and cannot be easily separated from lived experiences. Thus, while male students perceive cultural practices as a barrier to their academic continuity, other stakeholders; teachers, parents, and principals may lack awareness of these nuanced impacts.

Given that male students are directly affected and most vulnerable to dropping out, their perspectives warrant serious consideration. These findings underscore the need for stakeholders, particularly educators and parents, to cultivate a deeper understanding of

the socio-cultural realities facing male learners. Dinu (2015) emphasizes that dropout among male students is often exacerbated by a lack of empathy and understanding from authority figures. Consequently, interventions aimed at improving male student retention should prioritize cultural sensitivity and responsiveness to student experiences, both within schools and in the broader community.

4.9 Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention

Table 4.22: Students' Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention

Peer Factor	Pressure	SA		A		U		D		SD	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Boys engage into drugs and substances abuse due to peer pressure.		241	55.0	152	34.7	5	1.1	13	3.0	27	6.2
Students who use drug and substance abuse drop out of school		176	40.2	152	34.7	37	8.4	39	8.9	34	7.8
There are people who come around the school fence to sell drugs		125	28.5	104	23.7	125	28.5	43	9.8	41	9.4
Few of the boys carry drugs to school to share with their peers		71	16.2	64	14.6	52	11.9	134	30.6	117	26.7
Peer pressure has influenced change of attitude of the boys.		209	47.7	157	35.8	23	5.3	28	6.4	21	4.8
Change of attitude towards schooling makes the boys to dropout.		159	35.5	189	43.2	29	6.6	32	7.3	31	7.1
N=438											

Table 4.23: Teachers' Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention

Peer Pressure Factor	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
There are signs of school boys getting influenced by drugs	15	55.6	11	40.7	0	0	1	3.7	0	0
The peer pressure hinders the boys from completing school	10	37.0	14	51.9	1	3.7	2	7.4	0	0
Boys who use drugs and substance abuse they do not concentrate in class	16	59.3	7	25.9	3	11.1	1	3.7	0	0
In the school there are boys who use drug and substance abuse.	16	59.3	8	29.6	2	7.4	1	3.7	0	0
Some school neighbours they sell drug and substance abuse.	5	18.5	14	51.9	6	22.2	1	3.7	1	3.7
Peer pressure influences boys to change their attitude towards learning.	14	51.9	11	40.7	0	0	2	7.4	0	0
N=27										

Table 4.24: Parents' Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention

Peer Pressure Factor	YES		NO	
	F	%	F	%
Do boys help you in household chores?	46	100	0	0
Some boys have involved themselves with drug and substance abuse?	46	100	0	0
Peer pressure can lead to drop out of school	45	97.8	1	2.2
Attitude change can be influenced by the peer pressure	29	63	17	37

N=46

Table 4.25: Principals' Responses on the Influence of Peer Pressure on Male Student Retention

Peer Pressure Factor	YES		NO	
	F	%	F	%
Do use of drugs and substance abuse affect learner's retention?	13	100	0	0
In your school do you have boys who drop out of school due to drugs?	13	100	0	0
Have you identified some boys who use drugs in your school?	12	92.3	1	7.7
Can peer pressure lead to change in attitude?	13	100	0	0
Have you identified some outsiders who sell drugs and substances to your boys?	8	61.5	5	38.5

According to Table 4.22, a substantial majority of students (89.7%) either agreed (n = 152; 34.7%) or strongly agreed (n = 241; 55.0%) that male students are lured into drug and substance abuse due to peer pressure. This perception was supported by teacher responses in Table 4.23, where 78.9% confirmed that some male students in their schools were engaged in drug use. Similarly, all parents (100%) in Table 4.24 acknowledged that some boys in secondary schools used drugs. Among principals (Table 4.25), none disagreed with the assertion that drug use occurs among male

students, further validating the consensus across respondent groups. Table 4.22 also reveals that 74.9% of students either agreed (n = 176; 40.2%) or strongly agreed (n = 152; 34.7%) that students involved in drug and substance abuse often drop out of school. Furthermore, 82.5% of students believed that peer pressure alters male students' attitudes. This view is echoed by all principals (100%) in Table 4.25, who agreed that peer pressure affects students' attitudes toward education and can lead to dropout. Notably, 77.7% of principals further reported that this shift in attitude often results in school attrition.

The overarching finding is that peer pressure contributes significantly to drug abuse and the development of negative academic attitudes, both of which are detrimental to male student retention in secondary schools. This outcome supports the conclusions of earlier studies by Awour (2012) and Omollo and Yambo (2017) who highlighted peer influence as a critical factor in student dropout. Interestingly, more than half of the students (51.2%) agreed that drugs are sometimes supplied through the school fence. However, 19.2% disagreed, while a significant number (n = 125; 28.5%) were undecided. Overall, 57.3% expressed disagreement or uncertainty, indicating that many students are either unaware of or reluctant to disclose knowledge of such distribution methods. This finding partially contradicts Mitaru (2021) who reported that 81% of students were unaware of how drugs were covertly delivered to schools. Nonetheless, both studies concur that boys typically access drugs in discreet or hidden ways, underscoring the systemic nature of the issue.

Nearly all teachers (96.3%) reported observing signs of drug influence among male students, with only 3.7% dissenting. While a small percentage (7.4%) believed drug use does not impact male student retention, the majority (85.2%) asserted that it leads to

dropout, and 11.1% remained undecided. These results closely mirror earlier findings by Awour (2012) who reported that 79% of teachers attributed dropout to peer pressure, and Omollo (2017), who found similar patterns among teachers (43.75%). According to Dinu (2015) such undecided responses may indicate a lack of teacher engagement with students' social and emotional well-being—an area often overlooked in academic environments. Furthermore, responses to the statement "Some school neighbours sell drugs and substances to students" showed that 70.4% of teachers agreed, 22.2% were undecided, 3.7% disagreed, and another 3.7% strongly disagreed.

This suggests that teachers may be more observant or better informed than principals regarding external threats to student welfare. Table 4.25 shows that only 61.5% of principals acknowledged identifying outsiders who sold drugs to students—an appreciably lower proportion than that reported by teachers. These discrepancies among stakeholders may reflect a breakdown in internal communication and a lack of coordination among school management teams. Mitaru (2021) attributes such disparities to the absence of structured dialogue among key actors in the education system. Moreover, all parents (100%) agreed that boys both assist with household chores and, in some cases, engage in drug use. The dual impact of household responsibilities on school retention is worth noting. While chores may cultivate responsibility and life skills, excessive domestic demands can also overwhelm students and interfere with academic commitments. This complexity underscores the need for balanced support structures both at home and in school environments.

Descriptive statistics for the above findings were analyzed using SPSS version 27. The mean responses from the four participant groups—students, teachers, parents, and principals are presented in Table 4.26, offering further insight into stakeholder

perceptions regarding the influence of drug abuse and peer pressure on male student retention.

Table 4.26: Means of Respondents' Opinion on Peer Pressure Affecting Male Student Retention

Respondents	N	Mean
Students	438	3.6891
Parents	46	1.5000
Teachers	27	1.7284
Principals	13	1.0923

Students' responses yielded the highest mean ($M = 3.69$), followed by teachers ($M = 1.73$), parents ($M = 1.50$), and principals ($M = 1.09$). These findings suggest that students have the most direct understanding of the influence of peer pressure on male student retention. To further examine this relationship, a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted, and the results are presented in Table 4.28. The test aimed to determine whether peer pressure (indexed as IPP) significantly influences male student retention in school, as perceived by students, parents, class teachers, and principals.

Table 4.27: Correlation between Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention

		Students		Parents		Teachers		Principals	
		IPP	MSR	IPP	MSR	IPP	MSR	IPP	MCR
IPP	Pearson Correlation	1	-.217**	1	.031	1	-.204	1	-.195
	Sig – 2-tailed		.000		.840		.309		.523
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13
MSR	Pearson Correlation	-.217**	1	.031	1	-.204	1	-.195	1
	Sig – 2-tailed	.000		.840		.309		.523	
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The students’ responses yielded a statistically significant result, with a p -value less than the alpha level of .05 ($p = .000$), and a Pearson correlation coefficient of $r = -.217^{**}$, indicating a weak negative association between peer pressure and male student retention. This suggests a positive correlation between peer pressure and school dropout among boys. In other words, as peer pressure increases, male student retention tends to decrease—albeit weakly. This finding is consistent with the results of Mola, (2019) who found a moderate positive relationship between peer influence and male student dropout ($r = -.30$, $p = .000$), underscoring the detrimental impact of peer dynamics on boys’ educational persistence.

In contrast, data from the other respondent groups—teachers, parents, and principals—did not yield statistically significant correlations, with all p -values exceeding the .05 threshold: teachers ($p = .840$, $r = .031$), parents ($p = .309$, $r = -.204$), and principals (p

= .523, $r = -.195$). These results suggest that, according to these stakeholders, peer pressure does not significantly influence male student retention. The discrepancy in perspectives highlights a critical insight: students themselves are more attuned to the nuanced effects of peer pressure on their academic engagement, possibly because they experience it directly and frequently, unlike adults who may only observe its consequences secondhand.

The overall findings of this study confirm that peer pressure manifests in various forms including drug abuse and changing attitudes toward education and is present across all secondary schools examined. Notably, a majority of students, teachers, and principals acknowledged that drugs are often smuggled into schools covertly, including through the school fence. Some principals even reported having identified the individuals responsible for bringing in these substances. Taken together, the data suggest that while educators and administrators are aware of drug-related issues and the presence of peer pressure, they may underestimate its full impact on male student retention. The significant correlation observed among student responses implies that male learners possess critical firsthand knowledge about peer influence that should not be overlooked. Therefore, interventions aiming to reduce dropout rates must prioritize student voices and experiences when designing peer-related support systems and behavior management strategies.

4.10 Influence of Parent's Level of Education on Male Students Retention

Table 4.28: Students' Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Students Retention

Parent Level Factor	Education	SA		A		U		D		SD	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Parents did not complete primary school education		36	8.2	40	9.1	24	5.5	125	28.5	213	48.6
Your parents completed secondary education		184	42.0	125	28.5	18	4.1	55	12.6	56	12.8
Your parent level of education can affect secondary completion		149	34.0	108	24.7	49	11.2	94	21.5	38	8.7
Your educated parent is not concerned with your secondary education		215	49.1	125	28.5	27	6.2	32	7.3	39	8.7
Uneducated parent doesn't educate the male student		186	42.5	140	32.0	41	9.4	33	7.5	38	8.7
Male student of uneducated parent completes their education.		36	8.2	27	6.2	52	11.9	120	27.4	203	46.3
N=438											

Table 4.29: Teachers Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Retention

Parent Education Level Factor	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Uneducated parents don't educate male student in secondary school.	2	7.4	6	22.2	6	22.2	10	37.0	3	11.1
Male student of uneducated parents do not complete secondary school	1	3.7	7	25.9	3	11.1	11	40.7	5	18.5
Most drop-out boys are from homes whose parents have not gone to school	4	14.8	14	51.9	2	7.4	5	18.2	2	7.4
Educated parents encourage their sons to complete secondary education	17	63.0	6	22.2	4	14.8	0	0	0	0
Male students whose parents are educated drop out of school	3	11.1	7	25.9	2	7.4	11	40.7	4	14.8
Educated parents don't have time for their children	3	11.1	9	33.3	6	22.2	7	25.9	2	7.4

N=27

Table 4.30: Parents' Highest level of Education

Highest Level of Education	Primary	Secondary	College	University	Total
Frequency	10	21	10	5	46
Percentage	21.7	45.7	21.7	10.9	100.0

Table 4.31: Parents' Responses on the Influence of Parent Level of Education on Male Students Retention

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	87.0
No	6	13.0
Total	46	100.0

Table 4.32: Average Parent Education Level as Predicted by the School Principal

	Frequency	Percentage
High	1	7.7
Average	5	38.5
Low	7	53.8
Total	13	100.0

Table 4.33: Many Male Students who Drop out of School are From Parents with Low Level of Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	9	69.2
No	4	30.8
Total	13	100.0

Table 4.28 indicates that the majority of students' parents had attained basic education, which in Kenya includes up to the secondary school level. Specifically, 77% of students disagreed with the statement that "parents did not complete primary school education," while 17.3% agreed and 5.5% were undecided. In response to the statement, "Your

parents completed secondary education,” 70.5% agreed, 25.4% disagreed, and 11.2% were undecided. These responses suggest that many parents had completed high school, which is a compulsory education level in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2013). These findings align with those of Kaindi (2015), who reported that 97.2% of fathers and 86% of mothers had attained at least secondary education. However, according to principals’ perspectives captured in Table 4.32, the majority (53.8%) indicated that parents had attained low levels of education, 38.5% reported average education levels, and only 7.7% considered parents to have high levels of education.

Table 4.30, based on parental self-reports, shows that 78.3% had attained secondary education and above, while 21.7% had only completed primary education. Of this, 21.7% had primary education, and 45.7% had secondary education—meaning 67.3% of parents had at least the basic, compulsory education. Despite this, such levels of education may not qualify individuals for well-paying jobs (Kaindi, 2015), thereby limiting their ability to financially support their sons in secondary school. Students were also asked whether their parents’ level of education could affect their ability to complete secondary education. As shown in Table 4.28, 58.7% agreed with the statement, 30.2% disagreed, and 4.1% were undecided. Interestingly, although a majority of students (77.6%) acknowledged that their parents were educated, they also felt these parents were not actively concerned with their education. Similarly, 74.5% agreed that uneducated parents were not concerned about their sons’ education, while 16.2% disagreed. Furthermore, 73.7% believed that boys whose parents were uneducated were less likely to complete secondary education, with only 14.4% disagreeing.

These mixed responses suggest varying perceptions among students regarding the influence of parental education on their school retention. This inconsistency can be

attributed to the fact that most parents had only acquired basic education (primary or secondary), which typically does not lead to high-income employment. To triangulate these findings, responses from teachers, parents, and principals were also analyzed (Tables 4.29 to 4.33). Among teachers, 37% disagreed and 11.1% strongly disagreed with the statement that uneducated parents do not educate their boys in secondary school—making a combined 48.1%. Only 22.2% agreed and 7.4% strongly agreed (29.6% total), while 22.2% were undecided, which is a significant portion. Regarding whether male students of uneducated parents complete secondary school, 59.2% of teachers disagreed, while only 29.5% agreed. Moreover, 66.7% agreed that most dropouts come from homes of uneducated parents, with 25.6% disagreeing. Notably, 85.2% of teachers agreed that educated parents encourage their sons to complete secondary education. However, 44% also believed that educated parents often lack time for their children—likely due to professional commitments.

Teachers generally indicated that parental education is a critical factor in determining male student retention in secondary schools. As class teachers, they have a closer understanding of students at a personal level (Dinu, 2015). In Kenya, the minimum qualification for teaching in a secondary school is a diploma in education (Odhiambo, 2021), implying that teachers themselves are educated and appreciate the value of education. Parents' views were analyzed based on two aspects: their own education level and their response to the question, "Do you like educating the male student?" Table 4.30 reveals that most parents had basic education 21.7% with primary and 45.7% with secondary education. While this may be sufficient for literacy, it often does not secure well-paying employment, possibly limiting their ability to support their sons in school.

According to Table 4.31, 87% of parents expressed that they liked educating their sons, and only 10% did not—demonstrating that most parents value boys’ education. Principals were also asked to indicate the general education level of parents in their schools. As shown in Table 4.32, 53.8% of parents were reported to have low education levels, 38.5% average, and only 7.7% high. This somewhat contrasts with parental self-reports in Table 4.30. Principals were further asked to comment on whether most dropouts came from homes with low parental education levels. Table 4.33 confirms that the majority of boys who dropped out were from such homes.

The data clearly suggest that parental education level has a significant, though complex, influence on boys’ retention in secondary school. On one hand, the majority of parents have attained at least a basic education, which correlates with their expressed interest in educating their sons. However, the economic implications of low educational attainment (i.e., lower-paying jobs) often hinder their ability to financially support consistent school attendance and retention. Interestingly, while students perceive their parents as educated, they also feel a lack of active engagement in their education—possibly due to economic pressures or time constraints, especially among career-focused parents. This contradiction highlights the difference between valuing education and being able to support it materially and emotionally.

Teachers and principals corroborate the concern that boys from uneducated or low-education households are more prone to dropout, likely due to a combination of limited parental support, low motivation, and financial difficulties. Despite the mixed reactions from students, the overall trend from triangulated data suggests that higher parental education is generally associated with greater student retention, both directly (through support) and indirectly (through better household economic stability). Furthermore, the

findings point to an important policy implication: improving parental literacy and economic empowerment could be key levers in enhancing school retention rates for boys, especially in low-income or rural areas. Community sensitization on the importance of active parental involvement in education—regardless of formal education level—could also help close the engagement gap.

Using datasets collected from students, teachers, parents, and principals, a variable—Parental Education Level (PEL)—was computed in each case using SPSS version 27. The computed means were presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Means of Respondents’ Opinion on Parent Level of Education Affecting Male Student Retention

Respondents	N	Mean
Students	438	2.7070
Parents	46	1.6739
Teachers	27	2.7963
Principals	13	1.8846

Teachers recorded the highest mean ($M = 2.80$), followed by students ($M = 2.71$), principals ($M = 1.88$), and parents ($M = 1.67$). These results suggest that the perception of the influence of parental education level on boys' school dropout was most strongly acknowledged by class teachers, likely due to their frequent interactions with the students and deeper understanding of their academic and personal challenges. To further examine this relationship, the data were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis, specifically the Pearson correlation coefficient test. This statistical test was used to determine whether there was a significant association between parental education level and male student retention. The results of these tests, based on the four data sets, are presented in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35: Correlations between Parent Education Level and Male Student Retention

		Students		Parents		Teachers		Principals	
		PEL	MSR	PEL	MSR	PEL	MSR	PEL	MSR
PEL	Pearson	1	.039	1	-	1	.103	1	.365
	Correlation				.279				
	Sig – 2-tailed		.411		.060		.608		.220
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13
MSR	Pearson	.039	1	-	1	.103	1	.365	1
	Correlation			.279					
	Sig – 2-tailed	.411		.060		.608		.220	1
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13

All the *p*-values were greater than the α -value of 0.001; therefore, there was no statistically significant association between parental level of education and male students' retention in the secondary schools included in the study. This suggests that although male student dropout is evident in these schools, the underlying causes may be attributed to other factors rather than the educational attainment of their parents. Supporting this finding, Amdany (2017) conducted a study on socio-economic factors affecting male student participation and retention and found that 53% of respondents agreed that parental level of education influences male students' retention. However, this factor was closely associated with parental income level and was ranked lower compared to other socioeconomic determinants. Similarly, Atambo et al. (2016) acknowledged that the educational level of parents is a contributing factor to boys' retention in secondary education, yet emphasized that stronger influences—such as the parents' economic status—play a more dominant role.

4.11 Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention

Table 4.36: Students' Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention

Parental Factor	Income	SA		A		U		D		SD	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
You are always sent home to collect lunch money		133	30.4	100	22.8	24	5.5	76	17.4	105	24.0
You stay at home for more than 3 weeks waiting for fees		136	31.1	116	26.5	51	11.6	58	13.2	77	17.6
Your parent struggle to cater for education		172	39.3	141	32.2	40	9.1	34	7.8	51	11.6
Your parent level of income affects your retention in secondary school.		102	23.3	112	25.6	40	11.0	93	21.2	83	18.9
You use bursary money to pay your lunch fee		134	30.6	105	24.0	40	7.8	110	25.1	55	12.6
Your parents make you skip classes to work so that you earn money		291	66.4	83	18.9	48	5.2	10	2.3	29	6.6

Table 4.37: Teachers' Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention

Parental Factor	Income	SA		A		U		D		SD	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Parental income influence on male student retention.		8	29.6	10	37	2	7.4	6	22.2	1	3.7
Parents who are financially stable don't have time for their male student education		3	11.1	7	25.9	2	7.4	14	51.9	1	3.7
Boys from well-up families have little chance of dropping out of school		5	18.5	16	59.3	1	3.7	4	14.8	1	3.7
Parents who are financially stable their male student drops out of school.		1	3.7	4	14.8	3	11.1	14	51.9	5	18.5
Male students who drop out of school are from homes whose parents have little income		3	11.1	9	33.3	3	11.1	10	37	2	7.4
Uneducated parent encourages their sons to go to school as way of compensation		8	29.6	11	40.7	4	14.8	4	14.8	0	0

N=27

Table 4.38: Parents' Response on Approximate Monthly Parent Salary

Salary Range (x 1000)	Frequency	Percent
1-4	24	52.2
5-9	9	19.6
10-14	4	8.7
15-19	2	4.3
Above 20	7	15.2
Total	46	100.0

Table 4.39: Parents' Responses on the Influence of Parental Income on Male Student Retention (N = 46)

Parental Income Factor	Yes, f (%)	No, f (%)
Do you involve your male student in some activities to assist you in raising some money?	12 (26.1%)	34 (73.9%)
Do you pay the money required in school on time?	14 (30.4%)	32 (69.6%)
Is your son frequently sent home for school fees?	33 (71.7%)	13 (28.3%)

Note. *f* = frequency. Percentages are based on total N = 46.

Table 4.40: Principals Response on Approximate Monthly Parent Income in Thousands

Salary Range (x 1000)	Frequency	Percent
1-4	7	53.8
5-9	4	30.8
10-14	1	7.7
15-19	1	7.7
Total	13	100.0

Table 4.41: Action taken on Parents who don't pay School Fees in Time

Parental Income Factor	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Send Students Home	11	84.6	2	15.4
Give Parents Time to Pay	13	100	0	0

According to Table 4.36, over half of the students either agreed (22.8%) or strongly agreed (30.4%) that they are frequently sent home to collect money for lunch (a proxy for school fees). An even higher proportion agreed (31.1%) or strongly agreed (26.5%) that they remain at home for more than three weeks while waiting for school fees. This suggests that being sent home due to fee arrears is not only a frequent occurrence but also a prolonged interruption that potentially hinders academic continuity and performance. The fact that this situation reportedly occurs more than once per term highlights the gravity of the issue, with students spending a significant amount of time outside the classroom. Additionally, a majority of students agreed (32.2%) or strongly agreed (30.4%) that their parents struggle to meet the financial demands of their education.

Notably, 85.3% of students indicated that they are sometimes required to skip classes and engage in income-generating activities to raise school fees. This directly compromises their school attendance and focus, revealing a cycle where poverty undermines educational retention. However, a substantial minority (41.4%) acknowledged that their school fees are paid in full and on time, suggesting a disparity in financial stability among households. This finding reflects a broader trend of inadequate financial capacity among parents. Specifically, 54.6% of students reported depending on bursaries to cover their school fees. This aligns with data from Table

4.38, which shows that 71.8% of parents earn less than Ksh. 10,000 per month—an income insufficient to cover both household needs and educational expenses.

Teachers' perspectives further reinforce this concern. As shown in Table 4.37, 29.6% of teachers strongly agreed and 37% agreed that parental income influences male student retention, totaling 66.6%. Meanwhile, 25.9% disagreed with the statement, suggesting some level of variation in perception. Interestingly, when responding to whether male students from well-off families are less likely to drop out, 59.3% of teachers agreed and 18.5% strongly agreed—supporting the notion that financial stability enhances retention. Conversely, a majority of teachers (51.9% disagreed and 18.5% strongly disagreed) rejected the idea that boys from financially stable homes drop out of school, reinforcing the role of income in school continuity.

Despite this, teachers showed divided opinions regarding whether boys who drop out primarily come from low-income homes. Equal proportions (44.4%) agreed and disagreed with the statement. Such ambiguity may stem from teachers' experiences with dropout cases that are driven by other non-financial factors such as discipline issues, peer influence, or lack of parental engagement. Interestingly, when asked whether uneducated parents encourage their sons to remain in school to compensate for their own educational deficiencies, 40.7% agreed and 29.6% strongly disagreed—highlighting divergent beliefs about the value of education within low-educated households.

Parental income data further support these findings. As Table 4.38 indicates, 71.8% of parents earned less than Ksh. 10,000 per month (approximately USD 66 at the time of the study), and only 15.2% earned above Ksh. 20,000 (USD 131.40). Principals' reports

were consistent with this, with 84.6% affirming that most parents earned below Ksh. 10,000 (Table 4.40). These figures indicate that the majority of the parents are low-income earners, making it difficult for them to meet educational costs—even with the existence of Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) in Kenya. Although FDSE covers tuition, parents are still required to pay for lunch and other essential needs. The economic vulnerability of these households, therefore, poses a considerable threat to the retention of male students.

Three additional statements were administered to parents to assess how their income affects male students' retention. As summarized in Table 4.39, the majority (73.9%) reported that they do not engage their sons in income-generating activities to raise school fees. This sharply contrasts with students' responses, where 85.3% indicated that they are actively involved in such activities, even to the extent of missing school. This discrepancy suggests either a lack of parental awareness or underreporting due to social desirability bias. It could also imply that boys independently seek work opportunities to support their education—an area that warrants further qualitative investigation.

Principals' responses on parental income levels are also telling. Table 4.40 shows that 53.8% believed most parents earned between Ksh. 1,000 and 4,000 per month, with another 30.8% estimating parental income between Ksh. 5,000 and 9,000. Only 7.7% believed that parents earned between Ksh. 10,000 and 14,000, and another 7.7% between Ksh. 15,000 and 19,000. According to the World Bank (2023), the overall poverty line for rural Kenya is set at Ksh. 3,995, indicating that a significant portion of parents in the study fall below the poverty threshold. Such families are likely to struggle with meeting both essential needs and educational expenses, placing male student retention at risk. Although principals (100%) indicated that they allow parents some

grace period to settle school fees, 84.6% admitted that students are still sent home when payments are delayed (Table 4.41). This underscores the tension between institutional policy and financial reality, where even minor unpaid obligations can result in school exclusion.

The findings present a clear and concerning narrative: low parental income significantly undermines male student retention in secondary schools. Students from financially constrained households are disproportionately affected, often missing classes or being excluded due to unpaid fees, despite the presence of FDSE. This not only interrupts their learning but also psychologically distances them from school, potentially leading to long-term disengagement.

Moreover, while parents express a willingness to support their sons' education, the limited economic means render this intention largely ineffective. The divergence between parents' self-reports and students' realities—especially regarding work to raise fees—suggests that children may bear a disproportionate burden of financial survival within the household. Teacher and principal insights further validate the role of income, although they also recognize that poverty interacts with other factors, such as parental education, value for schooling, and institutional policies.

The implication is that addressing male student retention requires a multifaceted intervention—one that includes economic support, parental engagement, and school-level flexibility in handling fee-related exclusions. In light of this, policymakers should consider expanding bursary programs, improving the enforcement of FDSE guidelines, and implementing targeted interventions for low-income families. Further research is

also necessary to explore the psychosocial effects of economic hardship on boys' educational trajectories.

Finally, computed means from responses to questions on parental income were tabulated and presented in Table 4.42, offering further insight into the patterns discussed.

Table 4.42: Means of Respondents' Opinion on Parental Income Affecting Male Student Retention

Respondents	N	Mean
Students	438	2.7717
Parents	46	1.7066
Teachers	27	2.7469
Principals	13	1.2821

The highest mean was reported by students ($M = 2.77$), followed by teachers ($M = 2.75$), then parents ($M = 1.71$), and the lowest by principals ($M = 1.28$). Two variables—Parent Income (PIN) and Male Student Retention (MSR)—were computed using the four data sets. For each data set, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated using SPSS version 27, and the results are presented in Table 4.43

Table 4.43: Correlations between Parental Income and Male Student Retention

		Students		Parents		Teachers		Principals	
		PIN	MSR	PIN	MSR	PIN	MSR	PIN	MSR
PIN	Pearson Correlation	1	.019	1	-.388**	1	.030	1	.125
	Sig – 2-tailed		.695		.000		.882		.683
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13
MSR	Pearson Correlation	.019	1	-.388**	1	.030	1	.125	1
	Sig – 2-tailed	.695		.000		.882		.683	
	N	438	438	46	46	27	27	13	13

**Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (Sig- 2 tailed)

The *p*-values for all data sets—except for the parents’—were greater than the alpha level of .0001, as presented in Table 4.43. This indicates that the correlation between parental income and male student retention was not statistically significant for students, teachers, and principals. However, data obtained from parents revealed a moderate negative correlation between parental income and male student retention ($r = -.388$, $p = .000$). This suggests that higher parental income levels are associated with fewer days the male student is absent from school, and therefore a higher retention rate. This finding is consistent with Atembo (2016), who found that parental income alone significantly influences the number of days a boy remains in school.

4.12 Male Student Retention

Table 4.44: Students' Response on Male Student Retention

Male Student Retention Factor	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
You always have guidance and counseling every week	147	33.3	135	30.5	18	4.1	58	13.2	80	18.3
Your parents always check whether you have been given assignments	42	9.6	60	13.7	34	7.8	178	40.6	124	28.3
When boys drop out of school community leader is made aware of.	84	19.2	58	13.2	49	11.2	151	34.5	96	21.9
Your parents are always keen to ensure you attend school daily	19	4.3	12	2.7	14	3.2	112	25.8	281	64.2
When you are absent from school you are accompanied by a parent	62	14.2	40	9.1	41	9.4	143	32.6	152	34.7
Your teachers are always free to share your problems with you	87	19.9	28	6.4	27	6.2	117	26.7	179	40.9
N=438										

Table 4.45: Teachers' Responses on Male student Retention

Male student Retention Factor	SA		A		U		D		SD	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Guidance and counseling are frequently done in your school	9	33.3	13	48.1	1	3.7	2	7.4	2	7.4
You invite external motivational speakers in your school	11	40.7	12	44.4	1	3.7	2	7.4	1	3.7
Boys who have chronic absenteeism their parents are invited in school	6	22.2	17	63.0	2	7.4	0	0	2	7.4
You involve community leaders in case boys drop out of school	4	14.8	11	40.7	6	22.2	3	11.1	3	11.1
Parents make follow up to know the progress of their son in the school	4	14.8	17	63.0	4	14.8	1	3.7	1	3.7
Teachers carry out roll call to ensure the boys are still within the school area	18	66.7	8	29.6	0	0	0	0	1	3.7

Table 4.46: Parents Responses on Male Student Retention

Male Student Retention Factor	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Do you create time to advice your son on importance of completing secondary education?	36	78.3	10	21.7
Do you always know his where about and company when not in school?	10	21.7	36	78.3
Do you visit school to ensure the progress of your son in school?	7	15.2	39	84.8
Do you check the performance of the boy-child every term after closing?	38	82.6	8	17.4
Do you check whether he has assignments so that you confirm he was really in school?	8	17.4	38	82.6
Is the community leader involved in case the boys drop out of school in order to engage themselves in other activities outside the school?	31	67.4	15	32.6
N=46				

Table 4.47: Guidance Sessions Done During the Term

Number of Times	Frequency	Percent
1.00	1	7.7
2.00	3	23.1
5.00	5	38.5
6.00	2	15.4
7.00	1	7.7
10.00	1	7.7
Total	13	100.0

N=13

Table 4.48: Principals Responses on Male Student Retention

Male Student Retention Factor	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Do you have guidance and counseling in your school?	13	100	0	0
Do you involve parents of boys with chronic absenteeism?	13	100	0	0
When boys drop out of school do you inform the community leaders	3	23.1	10	76.9
FDSE has improved secondary completion rate	11	84.6	2	15.4
FDSE learners drop out due to lack of lunch fees	9	69.2	4	30.8

During students' responses, several factors concerning male student retention were examined, including the availability of guidance and counseling services for boys, parental and community involvement in boys' education, and the monitoring of boys while in school. To examine levels of boy retention, students, teachers, and parents responded to six statements, as presented in Tables 4.44, 4.45, and 4.46. From Table 4.44, many students (63.3%) admitted that they received weekly guidance and counseling. A small proportion (4.1%) were undecided, while the remaining 31.5% disagreed with the statement. This demonstrates that while a majority of students

benefit from these programs, a considerable portion do not experience them regularly, indicating inconsistency in implementation.

In Table 4.45, the majority of teachers (81.4%) acknowledged that guidance and counseling are frequently conducted in their schools. Table 4.48 supports these findings, showing that all principals (100%) agreed that guidance and counseling programs are adequately offered to boys. Furthermore, many parents in Table 4.46 (78.3%) affirmed that they create time to advise their sons on the importance of secondary education. One item in Table 4.45 required teachers to indicate whether external motivational speakers were invited to schools for counseling purposes. According to the table, 85.1% of teachers agreed that such external speakers were indeed invited, while only 11.7% disagreed, indicating that many schools strive to enhance counseling by incorporating external support. While these figures suggest that guidance and counseling programs are available at school level, the quality and perceived effectiveness of these services may vary among stakeholders within the secondary school setting. These differences may explain the variation in percentages across groups.

According to Wambu and Fisher (2015) the quality of guidance and counseling offered in Kenyan schools should be improved to better address students' specific needs. Many schools lack standardized systems and trained counselors to address issues such as dropout, drug abuse, and psychosocial challenges (Wambu & Fisher, 2015). Table 4.46 also highlights parental practices that may negatively influence male students' retention. Most parents (68.9%) did not check whether their sons had homework, 90% were not keen to ensure school attendance, and 67.3% never accompanied their sons when they missed school. These indicators point to inadequate parental involvement in

male students' education—a factor that poses a serious threat to their retention. In addition, many students (67.6%) reported that they were not free to share their problems with teachers. This implies a lack of trust in teacher-student relationships, which may prevent students from seeking guidance and support, further jeopardizing their chances of staying in school.

This situation reflects findings by Koskei et al. (2022), whose study established that 87.2% of parents agreed they were not sufficiently involved in their sons' education, a factor that potentially suppresses retention and increases the risk of dropout. On the contrary, findings from Aga, Mwirichia and Murithi (2022) paint a different picture, where 82% of students agreed that their parents were fully supportive of their secondary education. The discrepancy between these studies may stem from regional, socio-economic, or cultural differences, or from varied school-community relationships. Community involvement in boys' education was also explored and found to be a critical factor influencing their retention. In Table 4.44, more than half of the students (56.6%) disagreed with the statement that community leaders were aware of boys who drop out of school, while 32.4% agreed.

By contrast, Table 4.45 reveals that more than half of the teachers (55.5%) believed that community leaders were involved in cases of boys dropping out. This suggests that teachers, by virtue of their position, may be more aware of the behind-the-scenes efforts involving community actors, while students remain largely unaware of such involvement. Additionally, Table 4.46 indicates that many parents (67.4%) involved community leaders when boys dropped out, while 32.6% did not. However, a substantial proportion of principals (76.9%) reported that they do not involve community leaders in issues of absenteeism, which can ultimately lead to dropout. This

finding diverges from that of Fatimah et al. (2021), whose study in Indonesia revealed strong community support and encouragement for boys' retention in schools. Conversely, the current findings align more closely with those of Ntaiya et al. (2021), which exposed a lack of community involvement as a factor that negatively affected boys' retention.

Aga, Mwirichia and Murithi (2022) found that 29% of their respondents strongly agreed and an additional 51% agreed that the community was supportive and wished students well during their schooling—an observation that differs from the present study, where community engagement appears limited or inconsistent. To monitor boy retention, class teachers (96.3%) confirmed that they conduct roll calls to ensure that boys remain in school. However, Table 4.46 reveals poor parental monitoring practices. The majority of parents (78.3%) failed to track their sons' whereabouts and were unaware of the company their sons kept, while only a few (21.7%) did so. Furthermore, 82.6% of parents never checked whether their sons had homework, and 84.8% never visited the school to inquire about their sons' academic progress.

These indicators demonstrate a significant lack of parental monitoring—an important factor that elevates the risk of school dropout. Most parents were only concerned with their sons' academic performance at the end of the term (82.6%) and created time to advise them (78.3%). This finding resonates with the study by Ronak, Rashmi, and Srivastava (2022), which found that adolescents with unsupportive or uninvolved parents were at a 1.15 times greater risk of school dropout than those whose parents were actively engaged in their education.

According to principals' responses (Tables 4.47 and 4.48), all schools in the study offered guidance and counseling services during the data collection term, which had at least six learning weeks. Table 4.47 shows that most schools (38.5%) conducted five guidance sessions during the term, which translates to roughly once per week. Additionally, 15.4% of the schools conducted counseling once per week, and another 15.4% conducted it more than once per week. However, a significant proportion (30.8%) had fewer than four sessions within the term. This variation in the frequency of counseling sessions suggests a lack of uniformity in how schools implement these programs.

The inconsistency supports Wambu and Fisher's (2015) observation that guidance and counseling in Kenyan schools are not conducted in standardized ways. The introduction of these programs was intended to address distractions to learning, offer psychosocial support, and ultimately prevent dropout; however, irregularity in delivery may limit their effectiveness. The Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE) program appears to have had a positive impact on student completion rates, according to 84.6% of the principals involved in this study. Nevertheless, a majority (69.2%) still reported that students continue to drop out despite the implementation of FDSE. This paradox implies that while access to education has improved, completion remains a challenge.

A study by Olang'o, Malechwanzi, Murage, and Amuka (2021) conducted two years prior to this one highlighted several challenges linked to FDSE, including overwhelming enrollments, inadequate facilities, teacher shortages, and insufficient funding. These factors collectively elevate dropout rates despite the program's intentions. This suggests that addressing male student retention requires more than just fee subsidies—it calls for a comprehensive strategy that includes infrastructure

development, human resource enhancement, and social support systems both within and beyond the school.

In summary, the findings of this study reveal that although there are commendable efforts to provide guidance and counseling, as well as parental recognition of the value of education, gaps remain in the consistency, quality, and integration of these services. Weak parental monitoring, inconsistent community involvement, and non-standardized counseling programs all contribute to poor male student retention. Moreover, while policies like FDSE have improved access, they have not eliminated dropout, largely due to structural and support deficiencies. The study highlights the need for more coordinated, multi-level interventions involving schools, parents, community actors, and policymakers to create an ecosystem that supports sustained educational engagement for boys in secondary schools.

Table 4.49: Means of Respondents on Male Student Retention

Respondents	N	Mean
Students	438	3.6811
Parents	46	1.5290
Teachers	27	2.0494
Principals	13	1.7308

According to responses provided by the boys involved in the study, male student retention was rated relatively high ($M = 3.68$). In contrast, teachers rated boy retention as low ($M = 2.05$), while principals and parents rated it even lower ($M = 1.73$ and $M = 1.53$, respectively). This variation in mean scores suggests a perceptual gap between students and other stakeholders regarding the severity of retention challenges. The higher rating by boys may indicate a level of tolerance or normalization of the factors that lead to school dropout, possibly due to limited awareness or denial of the long-term

consequences. Conversely, teachers, principals, and parents appear to have a more critical understanding of the risks and challenges boys face, making them more aware of how these experiences threaten boys' retention in secondary school. This disparity in perception underscores the importance of fostering open dialogue between students and stakeholders to bridge understanding and implement targeted interventions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the major research findings, conclusions drawn from the data, and recommendations based on the findings of the study. The purpose of the study was to investigate the socio-economic determinants of male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya. The study employed a descriptive survey design. The key variables explored were cultural practices, peer pressure, parental level of education, and parental income.

5.2 Summary of Research Findings

This section provides a summary of the findings of the research objectives which include; cultural practices, peer pressure, parental education level and parental income affecting male student retention in public secondary schools.

5.2.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention

The study's findings indicate a significant and positive relationship between cultural practices and male student retention. Feedback from the students involved revealed that certain cultural practices contribute to increased dropout rates among boys, as these practices often lead to decreased retention. A majority of parents reported that boys are expected to assist with household chores, which can overwhelm them and push them to leave school. Interestingly, male students expressed differing views from other respondents regarding the impact of cultural practices on their school retention. While the male student felt these practices hinder their ability to stay in school, other participants did not see a strong connection between culture and dropout rates. Given that all participants in the study were male and thus directly affected, the findings

suggest that teachers, school leaders, and parents need a deeper understanding of the challenges boys face both at home and in school.

5.2.2 Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention

The study reveals a positive correlation between peer pressure and male student dropout. According to responses from male students, peer influence often leads them into drug and substance abuse. Half of the boys reported that drugs are smuggled into schools through the fence, a claim also supported by teachers, who acknowledged that some students are drug users and that drug dealing occurs secretly within or near the school. Teachers also indicated awareness of nearby community members who sell drugs to students. School principals confirmed identifying external individuals supplying drugs to the male students, while parents agreed that some male students are involved in substance abuse. The study further found that peer pressure contributes not only to drug use but also to students' negative attitudes toward education. These issues were present in all the secondary schools examined. Both students and staff were aware that drugs were being covertly brought into school premises. Interestingly, the male student appeared to have a more nuanced understanding of peer pressure's effects, as their responses indicated a negative but weak correlation between peer pressure and their own behavior.

5.2.3 Parental Level of Education and Male Student Retention

The study found no significant link between the educational level of parents and the retention of male students in the secondary schools surveyed. This suggests that while dropout among boys was evident, it may be caused by factors other than parental education levels. According to student responses, most parents had at least a basic education (secondary level in Kenya), yet many boys felt that even educated parents

showed little interest in their academic progress, which negatively impacted their ability to complete school. A large number of students also reported that male student from uneducated families were more likely to drop out, as these parents often showed little concern for their education. Teachers supported this view, noting that most dropouts came from homes where parents had low educational backgrounds. They also observed that educated parents tend to encourage their sons to complete school, but often lack the time to be actively involved due to demanding careers. From the parents' perspective, while many were literate, they still struggled to secure well-paying jobs. This low economic status hindered their ability to support their sons financially, which contributed to school dropouts. Principals added that most parents had low levels of education, with only a few reaching higher education levels.

5.2.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention

The study found no significant correlation between parental income and the retention of male students in secondary school. Despite this, student responses indicated that many parents struggle to afford school expenses, often requiring their sons to miss classes and work to help raise money for fees. As a result, most male students rely heavily on bursaries to continue their education. Teachers, however, believed that parental income does play a role in retention. They observed that boys from wealthier families are less likely to drop out, while those from low-income households are more at risk. Parents reported earnings below Ksh. 10,000 per month, highlighting their financial struggles to support their sons' education. This often results in male student being sent home due to unpaid school fees, affecting their retention. Principals echoed this concern, confirming that most parents are poor. Even with the Kenyan government's free day secondary education, parents are still required to pay a small fee

to cover meals. When these minimal costs are unmet, principals are compelled to send students home, further threatening their continuity in school.

5.3 Conclusion

5.3.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention

The study concluded that cultural practices influence male students' retention in school. It is important to note that retention is an institutional measure used to evaluate a school's effectiveness. When students drop out, it represents a loss to society in terms of human capital and potential productive labor. This study was conducted in schools predominantly located within the Kamba community, whose cultural practices differ from those of pastoralist communities. This suggests that the causes of male student dropout may vary and are not necessarily cultural in all contexts. Responses from teachers, principals, and parents supported this view. However, since male students are the most affected group, their perspectives revealed that gender roles, large family sizes, and early marriages contribute significantly to their inability to remain in school.

5.3.2 Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention

Specific aspects of peer pressure have significantly influenced male students' retention in school. Drug and substance abuse, as well as negative attitudes toward education, are major concerns contributing to the low retention rates among teenage male students compared to other factors. The study reveals that boys who engage in drug use often discontinue their education, leading to school dropout. Drug and substance abuse remains a serious challenge in many schools and is difficult to control. Many male students drop out of school because their peers have done so. Similarly, some engage in income-generating activities that keep them out of school, influenced by friends who are already making money. Peer influence also leads many boys into drug and alcohol

abuse, criminal behavior, and risky sexual activity. The study further indicates that high crime rates are linked to school dropouts, who typically have lower levels of education. Those who complete secondary school are less likely to engage in criminal activities compared to those who drop out. Therefore, school dropout contributes significantly to increased crime rates due to limited education among affected boys.

5.3.3 Parental Level of Education and Male Student Retention

While male student dropout is evident in the schools, the cause may be influenced by factors other than the parents' level of education. Although many parents may have attained a secondary level of education, this does not necessarily ensure that their sons will complete their own education. Parents may be educated but still have a low economic status, which makes it difficult for them to meet the financial needs required to keep their sons in school.

5.3.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention

Many parents are low-income earners, which contributes to a high dropout rate among male students. Although government capitation is provided to schools, many parents still struggle to pay the required lunch fees. When students are sent home to collect these fees, they often stay out of school for extended periods before returning, if at all.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Cultural Practices and Male Student Retention

School principals should develop and implement strategic interventions aimed at improving male student retention and completion rates in public day secondary schools. This may include establishing male student welfare programs to address gender-specific challenges and introducing motivational initiatives tailored to boys' needs. Additionally, compulsory parent-teacher meetings should be held to sensitize parents

on the importance of education. These forums would facilitate early identification and resolution of factors contributing to student dropout. Teachers are encouraged to build a deeper understanding of their male students by learning about their backgrounds and challenges. Furthermore, the government should establish and enforce legislation targeting individuals or cultural practices that contribute to male student absenteeism and school dropout. In collaboration with this effort, the Ministry of Health should enhance public awareness on the benefits of family planning, enabling parents to better manage family resources and support the education of their children, particularly boys.

5.4.2 Peer Pressure and Male Student Retention

Many schools lack a standardized guidance and counseling framework, as well as trained personnel to address the issue of peer pressure among male students. Schools should therefore engage guest speakers to mentor and guide students on how to positively navigate peer influence. In addition, legislation should be enacted and strictly enforced to combat drug and substance abuse in schools, with appropriate sanctions for those who violate the rules. The Ministry of Education should coordinate with Curriculum Support Officers (CSOs), local administrators, and other educational stakeholders to build the capacity of school managers, teachers, and parents. This can be achieved through seminars, workshops, and community forums, which emphasize the importance of providing guidance to male students on resisting negative peer influence.

5.4.3 Parental Education Level and Male Student Retention

Parents should be educated on the critical role they play in their children's education through mandatory school-based sensitization meetings. They need to understand that parental involvement encompasses more than paying school fees. It includes creating a

supportive learning environment at home, regularly monitoring their children's academic progress, and actively engaging in their education journey. Increased parental engagement contributes significantly to male student retention in secondary schools.

5.4.4 Parental Income and Male Student Retention

Parents should be encouraged to develop new income-generating strategies to enhance their ability to pay school fees and meet their sons' educational needs. This message should be communicated clearly during parent meetings at school. Training programs, such as those focusing on alternative farming techniques, can be introduced to help families diversify their sources of income. The government and private agencies should provide increased financial support in the form of bursaries and scholarships to male students from low-income households. Additionally, the government should prioritize investment in income-generating projects within Mbooni West Sub-County to uplift household economic status. Teachers are encouraged to work closely with parents to ensure that the basic needs of male students are met consistently.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

This study recommends that similar research be conducted in other sub-counties to determine whether the findings are consistent across different geographic and socio-economic contexts. Additionally, future studies could employ different research instruments to enhance the depth and reliability of the findings. It is further recommended that similar studies be carried out in private secondary schools to investigate whether the socio-economic determinants affecting male student retention differ from those in public schools. Lastly, more comprehensive studies should be conducted to explore other potential socio-economic determinants contributing to male student dropout in secondary schools.

REFERENCES

- Abdigafar, M., Mberia, K., & Muturi, W. (2017). *Influence of socio-cultural practices on girl child participation in secondary schools in Garowe, Puntland in Somalia*. Research report for Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences. Vol. 22, Issue 5, Ver.7
- Abuya, B., Oketch, M., & Musyoka, P. (2013). *Why do pupil's dropout when education is "free"? Explaining school dropout among the urban poor in Nairobi. Compare: Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 43(6), 740–762 doi: 10.1080/03057925.2012.707458
- Adams, A. (2023). *Influence of Peer Pressure and Drug Abuse on Dropouts Among Senior High School in Adansi North District* (University of Cape Coast Thesis)
- Adhanja, R., Nyakan, P., & Yambo, J.M. (2016). *Family based socio-economic factors that affect students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Rongo Sub-County, Migori County, Kenya*. Journal of Business Management Science.
- Ajit, J. (2020). *A comprehensive guide for design, collection, analysis and presentation of Likert and rating scale data*. Seattle, WA: Amazon.
- Alhassan, E. (2010). *Socio-economic and cultural determinants of girl-child education Gushegu/Karaga District of the Northern region of Ghana*. Research report for university for development studies Wa Ghana.
- Alkens, T. & Barbarin, W. (2022). Perceptions of socioeconomic mobility influence academic persistence among low socioeconomic status students. *Journal of Experimental Social. Psychology*, 72, 45-52
- Alvarez, B., Gillies, J., & Bradsher, M. (2003). *Beyond Basic Education: Secondary Education in the Developing World*. Washington, D.C. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development /The World Bank.
- Amdany, E. (2017). *Boy-Child Participation and Retention in Public Secondary Schools: The Role of Socio-Economic Factors with Examples from Baringo County*. Research report of M.Ed. Moi University.
- ASER Pakistan. (2022). *Perspective of dropped-out children on their dropping out from public secondary schools in Pakistan*. International Journal of Education Development.

- Atambo, D. N., Mwebi, B., & Onderi, H. (2016). Factors influencing boy child retention in public day schools in Nyamira Sub-County, Kenya. *International Journal of Novel Research in Interdisciplinary Studies*, 3(6), 65-83.
- Atemnkeng, J.T. 2010. "Household-level social capital in Cameroon and children's schooling. A gender analysis". *Africa Development*, 35(4): 211–36.
- Atieno, E. (2013). *Socio-economic factors influencing public secondary school students' dropout in Rongo Sub-County, Migori County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Atieno, J.L.S; Simatwa, E.M. W. & Ayodo, T.M.O. (2012). *Impact of Family Social-Economic Status on Girl Students' Academic Achievement in Secondary Schools in Kenya; A case study in Kisumu East District; Academic journal on education research* 3(3) 297.
- Awour, R. (2012). *Factors influencing dropout among boys in public primary schools in Dagoretti division, Nairobi County*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Bailey, K. D. (2008). *Methods of social research, 4th edition*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Begi, M. (2009). *Research monitoring and evaluation*. Nairobi: Blesmo Research and Publication.
- Benard .M (2015). *Socio-economic factors influencing boy- child dropout rate in public day secondary schools in Chemarer zone, Bomet east sub-county, Bomet county*. Research report for M.Ed. of Mount Kenya University.
- Berg, B. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education.
- Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (2016). *Research in education*. India: Pearson Education.
- Boit, M., Njoki, I. A., & Chang'ach, J.K. (2012). *The Influence of Examination on the Stated Curriculum Goals*. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2(2): 179-182.
- Brown, T., Wilson, r., & Clark, P. (2021). Peer influence and adolescent behaviour: A comprehensive review. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 50(3), 450-465.
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social Research Methods* (5th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Bundi, P. (2015). "Why girl child empowerment is killing the boy child". Retrieved on 20th June 2016 from <http://www.sde.co.ke/thenairobi/article/2000166511/why-girl-child-empowerment-is-killing-the-boy-child?> Page No=2.
- Bundi, P. (2018). Why girl child empowerment is killing the boy child. Retrieved on August 20, 2018 from <http://www.sde.co.ke/thenairobi/article/2000166511/why-girl-child-empowerment-is-killing-the-boy-child?> Page No=2.
- Campbell, W. (2013). *We need to rescue our boys*. The Jamaica Observer. Retrieved from http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/columns/We-need-to-rescue-our-boys_13713971. Accessed on 20/4/2021
- Chang'ach, J. K. (2012). "*An Unfinished Agenda: Why Is the Boy Child Endangered?*" *Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences* 2 (4): 181–186.
- Cheneket, J. (2017). *Factors influencing dropout rate among boys in public primary school in Saboti Sub-County, Trans Nzoia County*. Research report of M.Ed. of University of Nairobi.
- Chenge, P., Chege, E.& Maunganidze, L. (2017). *Family factors that contribute to dropout in rushing district in Zimbabwe*. Africa University of Zimbabwe.
- Chin, M. (2018). *Educating Boys in Jamaica: In Search of New Len* Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University of San Diego. Accessed on 16/4/2021 from <https://digital.sandiego.edu/dissertations/104>.
- Choudhary, A. (2015). *Economic Effects of Student Dropouts: A Comparative Study*. *Journal of Global Economics*, 03(02). <https://doi.org/10.4172/2375-4389.1000137>
- Connelly, L. M. (2008). *pilot studies*. *Medsurg Nursing*, 17 (6),411-2.
- Cooper, D., & Schindler, S. (2014). *Business Research Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Creswell, J. W. (2011). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.
- Denning, S. (2010). *The Leaders Guide to Radical Management: Reinventing the Workplace for the 21st Century*. San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

- Deolallikar, A.B. (1999). *Primary and secondary Education in Kenya. A Sector Review*. (Education News, 2012) www.org.educationnews.htm. Accessed on 20th April 2012.
- Desai, V., Du Toit, J., & Mthethwa, N. (2023). Understanding why youth drop out of school in South Africa. Research Gate. <http://www.researchgate.net/publication/377298658> Understanding -Why- Youth-Drop-Out-Of-School -In-South-Africa.
- Digest of Education. (2014). *National Centre for Education Statistics*, Washington DC: USA.
- Dinu, B. (2015). Impact of teacher-student communication on ‘High Risk Dropout’ students. *Developing County Studies*, 5(18), 88-100.
- Dube, A. K. (2012). *Factors Affecting Transition, Performance and Retention of Girls in Secondary Schools in Arid and Semi-Arid Land: A Case of Rhamu Town - Mandera County, Kenya*. Unpublished MA Thesis, Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- Dunga, H. & Mafini, C. (2019). *Socio-economic factors influencing the education of the girl-child in Zomba, Malawi*. Research report for Vaal University of Technology. International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies. Vol.11, No.2 2019 ISSN 1309-8063.
- Edlund, J. E., & Nichols, A. L. (2019). *Advanced research methods for social and behavioural sciences*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Education News (2012) <http://www.globalscienceresearchjournals.org>.
- Education News (2013): *International Day of the Girl Child: UN urges ‘innovating for girl education*.
- Emuria, E. M. (2016) Effects of Cattle Rustling on Boy-Child Participation in Primary Education in Public School in Turkana South Constituency, Kenya. <http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke/bitstream/handle/11295/97496>.
- Englund, M. Egeland, R. & Collins, P. (2023). The effects of parental involvement on students’ academic self-efficacy, engagement and intrinsic motivation. *Educational psychology*, 30(1), 53-74.
- Fall, A. & Roberts, G. (2012). *High school dropouts: Interactions between social context, self-perceptions, school engagement, and student dropout*. *Journal of Adolescence*, 35(4), 787–798. doi: 10.1016/j.adolescence.2011.11.004.

- Fall, W. & Roberts, R. (2022). Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: A growth modeling analysis. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 70(1), 27-61.
- Farre, L. & Gray. (2012). *The Role of Men for Gender Equality*. World Development Report 2012. Gender Equality and Development. Background Paper. Assessed on 15/05/2019 from [pdfs/semanticscholar.org](https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org).
- Frick, W.B. (2000). *Remembering Maslow: Reflections on a 1968 interview*, *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 40,128-147. Excerpts from an interview with Maslow and comments on his problem with his work as well as the likely impact of the Concept of the self-actualization and humanistic psychology.
- Gachoki, T. N. (2005). *An investigation into the causes of drop out among male students in secondary schools in Kipiriri division of Nyandarua District*. Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2010). *Applying educational research*. Boston: Person Education.
- Garises, P. (2013). Strategies For reducing inequalities and improving developmental outcomes for young children in low income and middle-income countries, *The Lancet*, 378(9799).
- Gathiga M. (2010). *Students' dropout in increase despite free education*. Retrieved from www.globalissues.org/news/2011012/8062.
- Gatwiri, J., Boit, L., & Njuguna, F. (2019). Socio-Economic Factors That Influence Dropout among Boys in Secondary School in Muthambi Division. *The International Journal of Humanities & Social Studies*, 7(3), 45-50.
- Goolammally, N., and Ahmad, J. (2011). *"Boys Do Poorly in Schools: The Malaysian Story"*. Unpublished Manuscript.
- Government of Kenya. (2013). Basic Education Act No. 14 of 2013. Government Printer.
- Hall, T. E., Meyer, A., and Rose, D. H. (2012). *Universal design for learning in the classroom: Practical application. What works for special-need learners' series*. New York, NY.
- Hamasi, L (2018). *The Boy Child and New Gender Imperatives in Kenya: Investigating school dropout among boys in Marakwet County*. Retrieved on August 21, 2018.From: <https://kenyasocialscienceforum.files.wordpress.com/2014/07/rev-kenya-studies-reviewvolume-6-number-2-culture-language-and-disability.pdf>.

- Hanlon, C. M. (2017). *Parent's Cultural Belief Systems: Their Origins, Expressions, and consequences*. New York: Guildford.
- Haugan, J. A., Frostad, P., & Mjaavatn, P.-E. (2019). *A longitudinal study of factors predicting students' intentions to leave upper secondary school in Norway*. *Social Psychology of Education*, 22(5), 1259–1279.
- Hennink M. Hutter I., & Bailey A. (2011). *Qualitative Research Methods*. Sage Publications Ltd, London.
- Hunsaker, S. (2013). *High involvement of mothers of high achieving children: potential theoretical explanations*. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1045672.pdf>.
- Hussein, J., & Benhin, J. (2015). Public and Private Investment and Economic Development in Iraq (1970-2010). *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 5(9), 743.
- Inganga, I. (2012). *Factors that influence the drop out of boys in public primary schools in Kenya Case of Kakamega Central District*. Unpublished Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Ileri, N. D. (2016). *Causes of school dropout among male students in public secondary schools of Embu County*. Unpublished Masters' Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Juma (2016). *Influence of parental socio-economic status on students' academic performance in Public secondary schools in Tana River County, Kenya*
- Kainuwa, A., Yusuf, N.B.N. (2013). *Influence of socio-economic and educational background of Parents and their children's education in Nigeria*. *International Journal Scientific and Research publication*, 3(10) 1-7.
- Kamanga, P. W. (2012). *Factors Influencing the Boy-Child Secondary Education in the Rice-Growing Region of Kirinyaga South District, Kirinyaga County, Kenya*. Unpublished Med Thesis, Kenyatta University, Nairobi.
- Kamanja, P. (2012). *Factors influencing the boy-child secondary education in the rice-growing region of Kirinyaga south district, Kirinyaga County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Kenyatta University.
- Kamau, J. (2017). *Conflict-related factors influencing boy-child retention in public primary school in Lamu East Sub-County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.

- Kane, M. (2018). Constructions of boys and girls on gender and achievement. *Gender and Education*. 19(4).
- Kaneko, H, & Matsumoto, H. (2016). *A pairwise independent random sampling method in the Ring of p -adic integers*. *Osaka Journal of Mathematics*, 533 (3),775-798.
- Kasomo, D. (2010). *Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods Made Simple*. Germany: LAP. Academic Publishing.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. (2022). *Economic survey, 2022*. Nairobi, Kenya: Author.
- Kerlinger, F. N., & Lee, H. B. (2000). *Foundations of behavioural research*. New York: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Kerlinger, F.N, (1998). *Foundation of Behavioural Research*. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.
- Ketgeronye, C. (2018) *Influence of parents' socio-economic status on enrolment and retention among pre-primary school pupils in Kericho county, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Kenyatta University.
- Kiboi, W. (2018). *Effects of parental socio-economic status on students' academic performance in secondary schools in Bungoma county, Kenya*. Research report of M.Ed. Kenyatta University.
- Kihumba, K. (2007). Sessional paper no.1 of 2005: *Setting an agenda*. An article Teachers image (volume 14 2007). Nairobi. Teachers service Commission.
- Kimanzi, A. K. (2022). *Influence of selected management practices on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Kitui County, Kenya*. Doctor of Philosophy Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Kipkemo, S. (2017). *Influence of socio-economic factors on girls' completion rates in secondary school education in Chepalungu Sub-County, Bomet County Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Kiruki, S. (2022.) *Influence of state involvement on boy-child empowerment through education in Meru County, Kenya*. Research report for B. A (St. Paul's university), M.A (Egerton University), higher national diploma (HRM-knec) B. M. Ed. (Kenyatta University).

- Kitetu, C. (1998). *Gender in Education: An overview of developing trends in Africa*. Retrieved from www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/groups/crile/docs/crile54kitetu.pdf on April 5th, 2012,
- Kiunacarol L. (2018). *Empower boy-child to strengthen future fathers*. Retrieved on August 23, 2018 From: <http://www.mediamaxnetwork.co.ke/people-daily/152028/empower-boy-child-to-strengthen-future-fathers/>.
- Koech, G. K. (2015). *Factors Contributing to the Primary School Drop Out Phenomenon in Pastoral Communities: A Case Study of the Masai Community of Magadi Division, District*, International Review of Education. 5
- Kombo, D., & Tromp, L. (2006). *Proposal and thesis writing: An introduction*. Nairobi: Pauline Publishers.
- Korir, A. K., & Kiptum, C. (2023). Influence of school resources on boy child dropout rate in public secondary schools in Chepalungu Sub-County, Bomet County, Kenya. *Journal of Educational Management and Leadership*, 2(1), 100-110.
- Koskei, B., Tonui, R., & Simiyu, C. (2015). School – based factors as determinants [10] of secondary School learners’ dropouts in Bomet County, Kenya. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3(3), 535-548.
- Koskei, S. (2021). *Socio-cultural practices and their influence on retention of boys in public primary schools in West-Pokot County, Kenya*. Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy Thesis, Kenyatta University, Kenya.
- Koskei, S., Itegi, F., & Muchanje, P. N. (2022). Parental support and boys’ retention in public primary schools in Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 11(30), 51-69.
- Kothari, C. (2011). *Research Methodology; Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age. International Publishers.
- Kumari, S. (2020). *The impact of cultural practices on educational attainment in rural communities*. *International Journal of Education and Development*, 40(2), 123-135.
- Kurgat, G. (2017). *The age-sets system of the pastoral Pokot*. *The African Journal of Anthropology*, 2(2).
- Langat, K. (2019). *Home-based factors influencing students’ dropout rate in public mixed day secondary schools in Buret Sub-County, Kericho County, Kenya*. Unpublished Master of Education in Planning, University of Nairobi.

- Larzelere, R. E., Morris, A. S. E., & Harrist, A. W. (2023). *Authoritative parenting: Synthesizing nurturance and discipline for optimal child development*. American Psychological Association.
- Legewie, J. and DiPrete, T.A. (2012). *School Context and the gender Gap in Educational Achievement* New Yor: SAGE Publishers. American Sociological Review, 77(3).
- Lydia, L.M., and Nasongo, J.W. (2009). *Roles of the Head teachers in Academic Achievements in Secondary Schools in Vihiga District*, Research Journal of Social Sciences.
- Machebe, C. H., Ezegbe, B. N., & Onuoha, J. (2023). *The Impact of Parental Level of on Students' Academic Performance in High School in Japan*. Universal Journal of Educational Research, 5(9), 1614-1620.
- Magnusson, G. (2019). An amalgam of ideals: *Images of inclusion on the Salamanca Statement*. In International Journal of Inclusive Education 23, pp. 677-690. doi.org/10.1080/136031116 .2019.1622805.
- Magodu, M.S. (2011). *Factors Influencing Students Transition Rates to Secondary School: A case of Kieni East, Nyeri County Kenya* Retrieved from: <http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke>
- Magonda, W. W. (2020). *Factors influencing truancy of boys in public primary schools in Nyali Sub-County, Mombasa County, Kenya* [Thesis, Strathmore University] <http://hdl.handle.net/11071/10240>
- Maina, M. (2011). *Influence of socio-cultural and economic factors on retention of boy-child in public primary schools in Kiambu West, Sub-County, Kiambu County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Maslow, A.H. (1943). *A theory of human motivation*, Psychology Review
- Mbekenga, G. T. (2013). *The impact of gender roles on girls' participation in primary education in Bunda District*, Unpublished Master's thesis, The Open University of Tanzania.
- Mbwesa, J.K. (2016). *Research Methods*. University of Tilburg: Hans Wergard.
- Melanie, P., & Tereso, S. (2011). *Explaining the sociological factors associated with the children's school participation in elementary level in Philippines*. Research report for De La Salle University.

- Mitaru, J. (2021). *Deteminants of dropout rate of the boy child in day public secondary schools in Kirinyaga County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Kenyatta University.
- Mkutu, K. A. (2017). *Guns and governance in the Rift Valley-pastoralist conflict and small arms*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- MOEST and MOPHS, (2009). *National School Health Policy Guidelines*.
- Mohamoud. A. (2017). *Influence of socio-cultural practices on girl child participation in secondary schools in Garowe, Puntland*. IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS) Volume 22, Issue 5, Ver. 7 (May. 2017) PP 78-85 e-ISSN: 2279-0837, p-ISSN: 2279-0845www.iosrjournals.org.
- Monedero, L., Biscarri, J., & Millan, R. (2010). Using regression analysis to identify patterns of non-technical losses and power utilities. In R. Setchi., Jordanor, R. J., Howett., & L. C. Jain (Eds.). *Knowledge-based and intelligence information and engineering systems*. London, UK.
- Moraa, E. (2018). “*The Tragedy of the Boy Child Amid Soaring Girl Child Empowerment*”. *East African Scholars Journal of Education, Humanities and Literature*, 1, (1), 16-21.
- Mosiori, E. M., & Thing’uri, R. W. (2015). A critical analysis of the school head teacher’s capacity in provision of quality education in primary schools in Kenya. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3(7), 307-320.
- Mudemba, E. V. (2013). *Causes of Dropout among Boys and Girls from Secondary Schools in Ugenya District, Siaya County, Kenya*. Unpublished MA Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Mudis, P. A. & Yambo, J.M.O. (2015). *Role of Peer Counseling on the Relationship between Prefects and the Students’ body in public Secondary schools in Migori Sub-County, Migori County, Kenya*. *International journal of Academic Research in 149 Progressive education and Development* 4(4):136 -149.
- Mueni, R. K. (2015). *Socio-economic factors influencing boy-child dropout rate from public day Secondary schools in Kilungu Sub-County-Makueni County*. Research report for M.Ed. South Eastern Kenya University.
- Mueni, R. K., & Maithya, R. (2018, April 17-19). *Family size and boy-child dropout rate in public secondary schools in Makueni County, Kenya*. Proceeding of the 1st Annual International Conference, Machakos University, Machakos, Kenya.

- Mugenda, A. G., & Mugenda, A. G. (2013). *Qualitative research methods*. Nairobi: Act Press.
- Mugenda, O. M., & Mugenda, A. G. (2012). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Mukherjee, A., & Sekher, T. V. (2017). 'Do only girls suffer? We tool': Early marriage repercussions on boys in rural India. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 52(1), 75-82.
- Mulindi, H. (2019). *Influence of psychosocial factors on academic performance of secondary school boys in Kenya: the case of Bungoma east sub-county*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Eldoret.
- Mumbua, J. (2020). *Factors influencing girls' academic performance in secondary schools an of Masinga Sub-County, Machakos, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. GRETSA University.
- Mureithi, E. (2010). *Red Flag raised for Kenyan Boy child*. Capital News. Nairobi: Kenya.
- Murugi, S. (2022). *Influence of Home-Based Factors on Discipline of Students in Public Boys' Secondary Schools in Makueni Sub-County, Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).
- Mutahi, E. (2019). *Effect of affirmative action on the academic performance of the boy-child in public primary schools in Kieni east sub county – Nyeri county*. Research report for M.Ed. Kenya Methodist University.
- Mutwol, L, Cheserek, G, Boit, J, & Mining, P.J. (2012) *Socio-Economic Factors Influencing Participation and dropout of students in public secondary schools in Marakwet District, Kenya*. Un-published M. Ed. Thesis Kenyatta University.
- Mutwol, L. C. (2013). *Socio- Economic Factors Influencing Participation and Dropout of Students in Public Secondary Schools in Marakwet District*. Kenyatta University.
- Mwangi, J. (2017). *Socio-economic factors affecting the enrolment of male student in public secondary school in Kirinyanga County*. Research report for Doctor of Philosophy University of Nairobi.
- Mwango, C. (2013). *Evaluation of determinants of boy child participation and retention in public secondary schools. A case of Kisumu East Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.

- Mwihia, C. (2019). *Factors influencing boy-child dropout from public secondary schools in Kinangop Sub-County, Nyandarua County, Kenya*. European Journal of Education Studies, 6(7). <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3563184>.
- Mwikya, V. N. (2018). *Influence of Socio-Economic Factors on Pupils Transition from Primary to Secondary Schools in Machakos Sub-County*.
- NACADA (2016). " *National Survey on Alcohol and Drug Abuse Among Secondary School Students in Kenya*". Accessed on 30/4/2021 from www.nacada.go.ke
- NACADA/KIPPRA (2019). *Status of Drugs & Substance Abuse among Primary School Pupils in Kenya. Special Paper No.20 of 2019*. Accessed on 30/4/2021 from www.nacada.go.ke.
- Nadenge, G. (2015). *Relationship between parental socio-economic status and student academic achievement: the case of selected secondary schools in urban informal settlements in Westlands division, Nairobi County*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Namukwaya, V.A., & Kibirige, S. (2014). " *Factors Affecting Primary School Enrolment and Retention of Pupils in Kotido District Uganda*. Mediterranean Journal of Sciences 5(8). Accessed on 30/12/2016 from www.mcser.org
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2022). *Household income and expenditure survey*. Government Printing Office.
- Ndawa, F. (2014). *Factors that influence girl-child access to primary school education: A case of Mwitika division, Mutito district Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. United State International University.
- Ndengwa. D. (2019). *Factors affecting the completion rate of boys in public day secondary schools in Mbeere south Sub-County, Embu County*. Research report of M.Ed. of Chuka University.
- Ngondi, A.S. (2010). *Alarming Dropout Rate Threat to Internal Efficiency in Tanzania Education (MOEVT)*.
- Njoki K. (2013). " *Drug & Substance Abuse in Secondary Schools in Kenya. A Case Study of Kiambu County. Unpublished Masters Dissertation.*" University of Nairobi. Accessed on 30/4/2021 from www.repository.uonbi.ac.ke
- Njue, R. (2015). *Factors that influence retention of primary school pupils in Maparasha, Kajiado County*. Research report for University of Nairobi.

- Njuguna, W. & Muchanje, N. (2019). *Socio-Economic factors affecting retention of the boy-child in secondary schools of Mathioya, Kenya*. Research report of M.Ed. Kenyatta University.
- Ntaiyia, S. J., Onyiko, K. K., & Akuma, J. M. (2021). Socio-cultural practices that influence the Maasai boys to drop out in public primary schools in Kenya: the case of Osupuko Division, Narok County. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 26(12), 57-66.
- Nyaboke, W., Dr. Mwebi, B. & Dr. Onderi, H. (2016). *Factors influencing boy-child retention in public day secondary education in Nyamira sub-county, Kenya*. International Journal of Novel Research in Interdisciplinary Studies Vol. 3, Issue 6, pp: (69-85), Available at: www.noveltyjournals.com
- Nyagah, A. M. (2010). *Factors Leading to Dropout Among Students in Secondary Schools in Runyenjes Division of Embu East District Kenya*. Research report for Chuka University College.
- Nyakan, P. (2016). *Family based socio-economic factors that affect students' academic performance in public secondary schools in rongo sub-county, migori county, Kenya* Research report for PhD Kisii University.
- Nyanga, J. (2017). *The impact of motorcycle taxi transport (boda boda) in accessing the Kenyan rural areas; A case study of Meru South Sub-County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi. International Journal of Engineering and Management Science Vol.4 (3) 2013.
- O'Flaherty, J., & Liddy, M. (2018). *The Impact of Development Education and Education Sustainable Development Interventions: A Synthesis of the Research*. Environmental Education Research, 24(7), 1031-1049.
- Oanda, I. & Akudolu, L. (2010). *Higher Education in Africa: Equity, Access Opportunity*. New York: Institute of International Education (IIE).
- Odhiambo, D. O. (2021). *Teacher education in Kenya and their reflection in government policies*.
- OECD. (2019). *Education at glance 2019: OECD indicators*. OECD Publishing.
- Okoth, E. A. & Yambo, J. M.O. (2016) *Determining Causes of conflicts in secondary schools and their Influence on students' academic achievement in Kisumu City, Kenya* Journal of Harmonized Research (JOHR) April, 2016. 2(2)135-142 ISSN 2454-5384

- Okumu, W. (2014). *Socio-economic factors influencing students' access to secondary school education in Rongo County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Ombuya, B. D; Yambo, J.M.O. & Omollo T. M. (2012). *Effects of Orphan hood on Girl-child's Access and Retention in Secondary School Education: A case of Rongo Dist, Kenya*. International journal of Academic Research in Progressive education and Development 4(1):114-136
- Omollo, A. E. & Yambo, J. M. O. (2017). Influence of Peer Pressure on Secondary School Students Drop out in Rongo Sub-County, Migori County, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice* (9) 73-79.
- Onah, F.O. (2015). *Human Resource Management* 4th Edition. Enugu: John Jacobs classic Publisher.
- Onderi, H. (2016). *Factors influencing boy child retention in public day secondary education in Nyamira Sub- County, Kenya*. Report of Jaramogi Odinga Ondiga University of Science and Technology.
- Ongoto, J., Ogola, M., Malusu, J. (2019). Effectiveness of the induction course in education management practices of head teachers in public primary schools in Nairobi County. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Sciences*, 3(9), 2454-2461.
- Ooko, J. (2012) *Challenges faced by the boy-child in education in Kibera informal settlement*. Research report for M.Ed. Moi University.
- Opiyo, P. (2013). *Influence of socio-economic and cultural factors on academic performance of hearingimpaired pupils at St. Martin primary school, Kakamega County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Catholic University.
- Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. (2018). PISA 2015 results in focus. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/pisa/pisa-2015-results-in-focus.pdf>
- Orodho, A. J. (2012). *Techniques of Writing Research proposals in Education and Social Sciences: Maseno. Kenya: Kanezja Publishers*.
- Osagie, S. E. (2023). *Student Engagement and Academic Success in Veterans' Post-Secondary Education* (Doctoral dissertation, Temple University. Libraries).
- Oso, W.& Onen, D. (2008). *Introduction to Writing a Research Proposal*. Kisumu: Option Printers and Publishers.

- Oso, W.Y. & Onen, D. (2009). *A General Guide to Writing Research Proposal and Report*. A handbook for beginning Researchers. Nairobi: JKF.
- Oso, W.Y. & Onen, D. (2011). *A General Guide to Writing Research Proposal and Report; Handbook for Beginning Researchers*. Nairobi: Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.
- Otengo, S. (2016). *Influence of parental socio-economic status on students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Tana river County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Oteyo, J. & Kariuki, M. (2009). *Extent to which selected factors contribute to alcohol and cigarette use among public day secondary schools' male students: A case of Nakuru municipality, Kenya* 1344. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 4(6), 327–333. Retrieved from <http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-70349126356&partnerID=40&md5=223521299a226a593018caa16c458e94>.
- Othoo, H., Olel, M. A., & Gogo, J. (2019). Financial resources as determinants of academic performance in public secondary schools in Kuria East and Kuria West sub-counties in Kenya. *America Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(5), 392 – 406.
- Otieno, C. (2016). *Socio-economic factors influencing students' dropout rates in public secondary schools in Msambweni Sub-County, Kwale County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Owino, K., & Kurgat, M.T. (2014). Transactional relations between perceived family style, risk- status and mother-child interactions in two-year-olds. *Journal of Pediatric Psychology*, 12, 343–362.
- Pardede, P. (2019). Seeing Action Research Process in a Practice. *Jurnal Dinamika Pendidikan*, 10(3), 261-273.
- Parr, A. (2013). *Academic Achievement Motivation and High School Dropout: An Integrative Model* Academic Achievement Motivation and High School Dropout.
- Peedditzi, M. L., Fadda, R., & Lucarelli, L. (2022). Risk and protective factors associated with student distress and school dropout: a comparison between the perspectives of preadolescents, parents and teachers. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 22(19), 1-14.

- Perera, R. (2012). *School Dropout in Sri Lanka: A Sociological Analysis*. International Research Conference on Humanities and Social Sciences. Vol.1
- Pernerger T.V; Courvoiser D.S; Hudelson P.M, Gayet-Ageron A. (2014). “*Sample Size for Pre-tests of questionnaires.*” Accessed on 23/5/2018 from www.researchgate.net.
- Pitikoe, Selloane. (2018). *Turning the herding lifestyle into a learning opportunity: Experiences from Lesotho*. The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in South Africa, 14(1) Article a 521. DOI: 10.4102/td. v14i .521.
- Polesel, J., Nizi, A., & Kurantowicz, E. (2011). *Pathways to Completion for School Dropouts*, 357– 367. doi:10.1007/978-90-481-9763-7.
- Polesel, W. Nizi, R. & Kurantowicz, T. (2013). *The effects of change in family structure and income on dropping out of middle and high school*. Journal of Family Issues, 21(2), 147-169.
- Prewittz, T. (2010). *Influence of Social and Economic Disadvantage in the Academic Performance of School Students in Kenya; Case study of Bungoma District*; Academic Journal on Educational Research; 5 (2) 297-311.
- Rashidi & Malecela (2024). Influence of Peer Pressure on Secondary School Student Dropouts in Nanyamba Town Council, Mtwara, Tanzania. East Africa Journal of Education Studies- empirical study directly examining peer pressure effects in Tanzania district.
- Rathunde, K. (2001). *Towards a psychology of optimal human functioning: What positive Psychology can learn from the ‘experimental turn’ of James, Dewey. And Maslow* Journal of Humanistic Psychology. 41,135-153.
- Rolleston, C. (2009). *The Determination of Exclusion: Evidence from Ghana Living Standard Surveys 1991-2006*. Comparative Education, 45(2), 197-218.
- Rosemary Wachiye (2011). -06-0417:16:00
- Rumberger, R. W. & Rotermund, S. (2012). *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement*, 491–513. doi:10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7
- Rumberger, W. R., & Rodriguez, G. M. (2011). Chicano dropouts. In R. R. Valencia (Ed.). *Chicano School failure and success: past, present and future*, pp. 76-98. New York, NY: Routledge.

- Rutledge, P.B. (2011). *Social Networks: What Maslow Misses*. Retrived August 12, 2015, From <http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/positive-media/201111/social-networks-what-maslow-misses-0>
- Saifi, S. & Mehmood, T. (2011). Effects of socio-economic status on students' achievement. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Education*, 1(2), 119-128
- Samal, R. (2012). *Parents' attitude towards schooling and education of children (unpublished Master's dissertation. Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, National Institute of Technology, Rourkela India.*
- Sang, A. K. A., Koros, P. K. A., & Bosire, J. N. (2013). An analysis on dropout levels of public schools in Kericho District in relation to selected school characteristics. *International Education Studies*, 6(7), 247-259.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornbill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students* (5th ed.). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (5th ed.). New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons, Hoboken.
- Setyani, N. N. (2021). Implementasi Program Penanganan Korban Kekerasan Seksual Pada Anak Laki-Laki Di Kabupaten Karawang Tahun 2017-2019. *Gender Equality: International Journal of child and Gender*. <https://doi.org/10.22373/equality.v7i1.8410>.
- Shoola, T. (2014). The Effect of the Sub-Saharan African Gender Divide on the Rights and Status of Women in a Globalized World. *International Research Scape Journal: An Undergraduate Student Journal*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Siddhu, G. (2011). Who makes it to secondary school? Determinants of transition to secondary schools in rural India. *International Journal of Educational Development* 31(4), 394–401.
- Smith, A. M. (2012). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-step Guide for Beginners. Nurse Education in Practice*. doi: 10.1016/j.nepr.2011.11.008.
- Smith, J. A. (2018). *Cultural norms and education outcomes: A sociological perspective*. Routledge.
- Smith, L., & Jones, M. (2021). Economic factors influencing student retention in secondary schools. *Journal of Education Research*, 114(1)55-67.

- Smith, M. C. (2011). *Which in- and out-of-school factors explain variations in learning across different socio-economic groups?* Findings from South.
- Stacey Blackman & Dennis Conrad (2017). *Caribbean discourse in inclusive education Historical and contemporary issues*. United State of America.
- Stacey Blackman, Dennis A. Conrad, Launcelot I. Brown (2019). *Achieving inclusive education in the Caribbean and beyond*. Springer Nature Switzerland.
- Symeou, L. Martínez-González, R.-A., & Álvarez-Blanco, L. (2012). Dropping out of high School in Cyprus: do parents and the family matter? *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 19(1), 113–131. doi:10.1080/02673843.2012.717899.
- Taru, V. C. (2009). *A comparison of fathers' and mothers' contributions in the prediction of academic performance of school age children in Hong-Kong*. *International Journal of Psychology*, 44(2), 147-156.
- Teachers Proficiency Course (2012). *Training Manual*: Teachers Service Commission. Nairobi. Government Printers.
- Tekuh, A. K., Tanue, E. A., Asongalem, E. A., Njunda, A, L., & Nsagha, D.S. (2022). *Substance use among students of two high schools in Yaounde, Cameroon*. BMC Public Health. Retrieved from. <http://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC11971821/>.
- The Standard Newspaper*, Nov 8th, 2013. Dropout rate for boys is alarming.
- Thuba, E. (2018). *Effect of parental involvement on quality of education in public Secondary schools in Igembe central sub county, Meru County. Kenya*. Research report for PhD Kenya Methodist University.
- Timæus, I.M., S. Simelane and T. Letsoalo. 2013. *“Poverty, race, and children’s progress at school in South Africa*. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 49(2): 270–84.
- Tumwebaze, S. (2011). *The plight of the boy child*. Available at: <http://mobile.monitor.co.ug/Sundav+Life/-/l055104/1178234format/xhtml//dhhuq4/-/index.html>. Retrieved on 06th September 2017, 23:30hrs.
- UNESCO, D. (2019). *School Drops Out: Patterns, Causes, Changes, and Policies—UNESCO Digital Library*. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000190771>.

- UNESCO. (2011). *The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education*. Paris: UNESCO Publishers.
- UNESCO. (2015). *Education for all*; Dakar.
- UNESCO. (2018). *Meeting our Commitments to Gender Equality in Education*. Accessed on 20/8/2018 from www.unesco.org.
- UNGEI (2012). *Why are Boys Underperforming in Education? Gender Analysis of Four-Asia Pacific Countries*. Accessed on 14/4/2021 from www.https://resourcecentre.savethechildren.net/node/6905/pdf/6905.pdf
- UNICEF (2012). *Improving Quality Education and Children's Learning Outcomes and Effective Practices in the Eastern and Southern Africa Region*. Report for UNICEF ESARO.
- UNICEF. (2007). *Progress for Children: A world fit for children statistical review*. New York
- United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child UNCRC. (1989).
- Vygotsky L S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harvard University Press; Cambridge, MA: [Google Scholar]
- Wainaina. H (2021). *Challenges faced by boy-child in relation to school participation in Embu west Sub-County, of Embu County Kenya*. International Journal of Advanced Education and Research. www.alleducationjournal.com.
- Wall-Wieller, E., & Roos, L. L. (2017). *Family matters: siblings and high school graduation*. *International Journal of Population Data Science*, 2(1), 407-412.
- Wambu, C.W., & Fisher, T. A. (2015). *School guidance and counseling in Kenya: historical development, current status and future prospects*. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(11), 93-101.
- Wambua, D. (2014). *Influence of Socio-Economic factors on pupils' completion rate in primary School education in Mbeere North District, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Wambugu, J. (2012). *The effect of socio- economic and cultural factors on access and participation in secondary school education in Igembe north district, Meru County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Kenyatta University.

- Wamichwe, J. (2017). *Socio-economic factors affecting enrolment of male students in public secondary schools in Kirinyaga County, Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. University of Nairobi.
- Wang, M., Eccles, J. S. (2012). *Adolescent behavioral, emotional, and cognitive engagement trajectories in school and their differential relations to educational success*. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 22, 31-39. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-7795.2011.00753.x>
- Wang, M.T., Degol, J. L., & Henry, D. A. (2019). *Peer pressure influence and academic outcomes: A cross-national analysis in Asian secondary schools*. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 20(4),503-516.
- Weinberg, S. L., & Abramowitz, S. K. (2008). *Statistics using SPSS: an integrative approach*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Willard, N. (2007). *Cyber-safe kids, cyber-savvy teens: helping young people learn to use the internet safely and responsibly*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- World Bank Group. (2023). *Global financial development report 2014: Financial inclusion* (Vol. 2). World Bank Publications.
- World bank. (2017). *Definition of empowerment*. Accessed on 20/12/2018 from www.worldbank.org.
- World bank. (2017). *World development report 2020. Trading for development in the age of global value chains*. World Bank Publications. <http://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-1457-0>
- Wycliffe, A. (2015). *Effects of informal businesses on access and retention of boys in public primary schools in Kenya*. Research report for M.Ed. Moi University.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction to the Respondents

RUTH NTHAMBA MAUNDU

MACHAKOS UNIVERSITY

P.O.BOX 136-90100

MACHAKOS.

TO,

THE PRINCIPAL

P.O. BOX

Dear sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a postgraduate student at Machakos University conducting a study on **socio-economic determinants of male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County**. You have been sampled for the study and you have been selected as a respondent. I am requesting for your assistance and cooperation in collecting information regarding this study by completing the questionnaires attached. The results of this study will be used for academic purposes only and the collected information will be treated with a lot of confidentiality. Please give accurate and honest information. Your commitment and cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Ruth N. Maundu.

CELL PHONE NO.0726490594

Appendix II: Questionnaire for Class Teachers

This study seeks to establish the socio-economic determinants of male students' retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. The information that you will provide will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the study.

DO NOT write your name or particulars in the questionnaire.

Please tick (✓) against the appropriate answer at the end of every item as required

SECTION A:

1. Indicate the no. of boys for 2020-2023 cohort.

	Enrolment	Transferred	Dropped out
Form one (2020)			
Form two (2021)			
Form three (2022)			
Form four (2023)			
Total			

Comment on the dropout trend

.....

.....

2. When boys are sent home for lunch fee how long do they take to come back to school?
Days ☐ weeks ☐ month ☐
3. Do some boys dropout of school due to lack of lunch money? Yes ☐ No ☐
4. How do you relate with the boys such that they can open up to you and share their Problems?

a) Very well [] (b) Well [] (c) Fair [] (d) Poor [] (e) Very poor []

SECTION B: Influence of cultural practices.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the following cultural practices that influence the male student retention of in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Boys from families of 2-5 members drop out of school					
2	Parents with 6 children and above don't pay lunch fee					
3	The cultural beliefs on boy child values of education hinders boy child retention					
4	Early marriage makes the boys to drop out of school					
5	Parents who side with boys' misbehavior influences boy child retention					
6	Boys from families with more than 7 members drop out of school					

SECTION C: Influence of peer pressure.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the peer pressure influence male students' retention in secondary school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	There are signs of school boys getting influenced by drugs					

2	The peer pressure hinders the boys from completing school					
3	Students who use drugs and substance abuse they do not concentrate in class					
4	In the school there are boys who use drug and substance abuse.					
5	Some school neighbours they sell drug and substance abuse.					
6	The peer pressure influences the student to change their attitude towards learning.					

SECTION D: Influence of level of education of parents.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the following level of education of parents influence male students' retention of the in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Uneducated parents don't educate boy child in secondary school.					
2	Boy child of uneducated parents do not complete secondary school					
3	Most drop-out boys are from homes whose parents have not gone to school					
4	Educated parents encourage their sons to complete secondary education					
5	Boys whose parents are educated drop out of school					

6	Educated parents don't have time for their children					
---	---	--	--	--	--	--

SECTION E: Influence of parental income.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the following parental income influence male students' retention of the in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	High parental income influence male student retention.					
2	Parents who are financially stable don't have time for their male student education					
3	Boys from well-up families have little chance of dropping out of school					
4	Parents who are financially stable their male student drops out of school.					
5	Boys who drop out of school are from homes whose parents have little income					
6	Some uneducated parent may encourage their sons to attend school in effort to compensate for their own limited educational opportunities.					

SECTION F: Male student retention

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent do the following intervention influence retention of the male student in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Interventions	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Guidance and counseling are frequently done in your school					
2	You invite external motivational speakers in your school					
3	Boys who have chronic absenteeism their parents are invited in school					
4	You involve community leaders in case boys drop out of school					
5	Parents make follow up to know the progress of their son in the school					
6	Teachers carry out roll call to ensure the boys are still within the school area					

What other measures are carried out in your school to ensure that male student is retained in school?

Thank you.

Appendix III: Questionnaire for Students

Instructions

Please answer all the questions.

DO NOT write your name or particulars in the questionnaire.

Please tick (✓) against the appropriate answer at the end of every item as required.

SECTION A: Background information

1. How old are you in years? A) 14 – 16 years ☐ (b) 17 – 19 years ☐ (c) Above 19 years ☐

2. Which Form are you in? (a) Form 2 ☐ (b) Form 3 ☐

3. Are there any of your classmate boys who have dropped out of school? (a) Yes ☐ (b) No ☐

i) If yes, how many boys?

ii) Give reasons why they have dropped out of school?

.....
.....
.....
.....

4. How many siblings do you have in your family? (a) 1-4 ☐ (b) 5-7 ☐ (c) Above 7 ☐

5. How many of your siblings are in

a) Primary ☐ b) secondary ☐ c) college ☐ d) university ☐

6. Do you have brother or classmate who has dropped out of school? a) Yes ☐ b). No ☐

What contributed to their drop out of school?

.....
.....

7. Do you like going to school a) yes ☐ b) No ☐

8. What is the level of education of your parent?

a) Primary ☐ b) Secondary ☐ c) College ☐ d) University ☐

9. What is the occupation of your parents?

(I) Father; a) Salaried ☐ (b) Self-employed ☐ (c) Farming ☐ (d) Casual ☐

(I) Mother; a) Salaried ☐ (b) Self-employed ☐ (c) Farming ☐ (d) Casual ☐

10. What is the approximate income of your parents in terms of thousands?

a) 1-4 ☐ (b) 5-9 ☐ (c) 10-14 ☐ (d) 15-19 ☐ (e) above 24 ☐

SECTION B: Influence of cultural practices.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the following cultural practices influence male student retention in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My family comprises of less than 4 members					
2	My family comprises more than six members					
3	Some boys engage themselves in early marriages					
4	Am left home to take care of the younger siblings					
5	Parents with more than 7 children and above don't pay fees for their son					
6	Inheritance of parent assets can make one drop out of school					

SECTION C: Influence of peer pressure.

Indicate with a tick (✓) to what extent the following peer pressure influence male student retention in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Boys engage into substances abuse due to peer pressure.					
2	Students who use drug and substance abuse drop out of school					
3	There are people who come around the school fence to sell drugs					
4	Few of the boys carry drugs to school to share with their peers					
5	Peer pressure has influenced change of attitude of the boys.					
6	Change of attitude towards schooling makes the boys to dropout.					

SECTION D: Influence of level of education of parents.

Indicate with a tick (✓) to what extent the following level of education of parents influence male student retention of in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Parents did not complete primary school education					
2	Your parents completed secondary education					

3	Your parent level of education can affect secondary completion					
4	Your educated parent is not concerned with your secondary education					
5	Uneducated parent doesn't educate the boy child					
6	Boy-child of uneducated parent completes their education.					

SECTION E: Influence of parental income.

Indicate with a tick (√) to what extent the following parental income influence male student retention in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Factor	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	You are always sent home to collect lunch money					
2	You stay at home for more than 3 weeks waiting for fees					
3	Your parent struggle to cater for education					
4	Your parent level of income affects your retention in secondary school.					
5	You use bursary money to pay your lunch fee					
6	Your parents make you skip classes to work so that you earn money					

SECTION F: Male student retention

Indicate with a tick (✓) to what extent do the following intervention influence retention of the male student in your school on a scale: **(5)** strongly agree (SA) **(4)** Agree (A) **(3)** Undecided (U) **(2)** Disagree (D) **(1)** strongly disagree (SD)

	Interventions	SA	A	U	D	SD
1	You always have guidance and counseling every week					
2	Your parents always check whether you have been given assignments					
3	When boys drop out of school community leader is made aware of.					
4	Your parents are always keen to ensure you attend school daily					
5	When you are absent from school you are accompanied by a parent					
6	Your teachers are always free to share your problems with you					

Thank you.

Appendix IV: Key Informant Interview Guide for Principals

This study seeks to establish the socio-economic determinants of male student retention in public secondary schools in Mbooni West Sub-County. The information that you will provide will be kept confidential and will only be used for the purpose of the study.

SECTION A:

1. Number of years you have worked as principal in Mbooni West Sub- County?
2. Length of stay in your current station?
3. Do you experience male student drop-out in your school? Yes () No ()
4. How many male students are enrolled in form one and sat for KCSE in the following years? Between 2020-2023 Form 1 ☐ Form 4 ☐
5. How is daily attendance for boy child in the school?
Very well ☐ Well ☐ Fair ☐ Poor ☐ Very poor ☐
6. Why do you think male student drop-out of school?

SECTION B: Influence of cultural practices

7. In your opinion do you think size of the family has influenced the male student retention?
Yes ☐ No ☐
8. Do the cultural practices influence the male student retention? Yes ☐ No ☐

SECTION C: Influence of peer pressure

9. Do use of drugs and substance abuse affect learner's retention? Yes ☐ No ☐
10. In your school do you have male students who drop out of school due to drugs?
Yes ☐ No ☐
11. Have you identified some male students who use drugs in your school? Yes ☐ No ☐
12. Can peer pressure lead to change in attitude? Yes ☐ No ☐
13. Have you identified some outsiders who sell drugs and substances to your male students? Yes ☐ No ☐

SECTION D: Influence of parent level of education

14. What is the level of education of parents who have their children in the school?
High ☐ Average ☐ Low ☐
15. High numbers of male students who drop out of school are from parents with low level of education? Yes ☐ No ☐

SECTION E: Parental income

16. How do you rate the parent income in terms of thousands?
a) 1-4 ☐ (b) 5-9 ☐ (c) 10-14 ☐ (d) 15-19 ☐ (e) above 24 ☐
17. What action do you take on parents who don't pay lunch fee on time?
a) Send students home? Yes ☐ No ☐
b) Give parents time to pay the money? Yes ☐ No ☐

SECTION F: Male student retention

18. Do you have guidance and counseling in your school? Yes ☐ No ☐
19. How many times is the guidance and counseling done in the school in a term?
20. Do you involve parents whom their male students have chronic absenteeism? Yes ☐ No ☐
21. When male students drop out of school do you alert the community leaders for assistance? Yes ☐ No ☐
22. What would you say is the impact of FDSE program by government in the school?
a) Has improved secondary completion rate? Yes ☐ No ☐
b) Learners drop out due to lack of lunch fee? Yes ☐ No ☐

Thank you.

Appendix V: Key Informant Interview Guide For Parents

SECTION A

1. Gender (interviewer to observe and circle) (a) Male ☐ (b)Female ☐
2. Occupation
3. How long have you been in this community.....?
4. what are some of economic activities carried out in this community?

.....
.....
.....

5. What can you say about the education of male student?

.....
.....
.....

SECTION B: Influence of cultural practices.

6. Do male students help you in household chores? A) yes ☐ b) No ☐
7. How many children do you have? []
8. Family inheritance and possession of assets has influenced male student retention in school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
9. Do early marriages hinder the retention of male student in school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

SECTION C: Influence of peer pressure.

10. Do male students drop out of school due to influence of peer pressure? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
11. Some male students have involved themselves with drug and substance abuse?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
12. Peer pressure can lead to drop out of school. a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
13. Attitude change can be influenced by the peer pressure? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

SECTION D: Influence of level of education of parents.

14. What is the level of your education?
a) primary ☐ b) secondary ☐ c) college ☐ d) university ☐
15. Do you like educating the male student? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

SECTION E: Parental income

16. What is your approximate income per month in terms of thousands?
a) 1-4 ☐ (b) 5-9 ☐ (c) 10-14 ☐ (d) 15-19 ☐ (e) above 24 ☐
17. Do you involve your male student in some activities to assist you in raising some money?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
18. Do you pay the money required in school on time? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
19. Is your son frequently sent home for school fee? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

SECTION F: Male student retention

20. Do you create time to advice your son on importance of completing secondary education?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
21. Do you always know his where about and company when not in school?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
22. Do you visit school to ensure the progress of your son in school?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
23. Do you check the performance of the male student every term after closing?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐
24. Do you check whether he has assignments so that you confirm he was really in school?
a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

19. Is the community leader involved in case the male students drop out of school in order engage themselves in other activities outside the school? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

Thank you.

Appendix VI: Research Authorization by Machakos University



MACHAKOS UNIVERSITY OFFICE OF THE DEAN GRADUATE SCHOOL

Telephone: 254-(0)735247939, (0)723805929

Email: graduateschool@mksu.ac.ke

Website: www.machakosuniversity.ac.ke

P.O Box 136-90100

Machakos

KENYA

REF. MksU/ASA/GS/3/3

8th August, 2023

The Director,
National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
P.O Box 30623,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir

RE: RUTH NTHAMBA MAUNDU (E55/12739/2017)

The above named is a Masters student in the second year of study and has cleared course work. The University has cleared her to conduct a research entitled: **"Socio-Economic Factors Hindering Boys Retention in Public Secondary Schools in Mbooni West Sub-County, Makueni County, Kenya."**

Kindly assist her with a Research Permit in order to undertake the research.

Thank you.



PROF. KIMITI RICHARD PETER, PhD
DEAN GRADUATE SCHOOL

KRP/em



ISO 9001:2015 Certified Soaring Heights in Transforming Industry and Economy

Appendix VII: Research Authorization by NACOSTI

 REPUBLIC OF KENYA	 NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
Ref No: 753264	Date of Issue: 24/August/2023
RESEARCH LICENSE	
	
This is to Certify that Ms.. RUTH NTHAMBA MAUNDU of Machakos University, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Machakos on the topic: Socio_economic Factors Hindering Boys in Retention in Public Secondary in Mbooni West Sub_County, Makueni County for the period ending : 24/August/2024.	
License No: NACOSTI/P/23/28829	
753264	
Applicant Identification Number	Director General NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
	Verification QR Code
	
NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.	
See overleaf for conditions	

Appendix X: Map of Mbooni West Sub-County Makueni County

