The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between secondary school dropouts and crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya. The objectives were to: discuss the criminal activities by secondary school dropouts in Vihiga County, Kenya, assess the factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya and examine the correlation between dropouts and crime escalation among secondary school students in Vihiga County, Kenya. The Study was anchored on two theories namely: Labeling Theory and Conflict Theory.
Juma Injendi

School Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Kenya
Juma Injendi

School Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Kenya

LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing
SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' DROPOUTS AND CRIME
ESCALATION IN VIHIGA COUNTY, KENYA

Juma Injendi

July, 2014
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family: my dear wife Sussy, my sons Praise and Precious and my daughters Prevailer and Patience.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.................................................................................................................................................. iii

**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

TABLE OF CONTENTS............................................................................................................................ iii

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.................................................................................................................. viii

CHAPTER ONE.................................................................................................................................................. 1

INTRODUCTION.................................................................................................................................................. 1

1.1 Background to the Study............................................................................................................................... 1

1.2 Statement of the Problem............................................................................................................................. 7

1.3 General Objective........................................................................................................................................ 8

1.4 Research Questions.................................................................................................................................... 8

1.5 Justification of the Study............................................................................................................................. 9

1.6 Scope of the Study..................................................................................................................................... 11

CHAPTER TWO................................................................................................................................................ 12

LITERATURE REVIEW..................................................................................................................................... 12

2.1 Nature of criminal activities by Secondary School Dropouts................................................................. 12

2.1.1 Types of criminal activities.................................................................................................................... 12

2.1.2 Link between alcohol and drug abuse with criminal activities......................................................... 14

2.2 Dropout Rate of students......................................................................................................................... 17

2.2.1 Dropout Rate of students....................................................................................................................... 17

2.2.2 Perspectives of Dropout Rates............................................................................................................. 22

2.3 Crime Escalation and Secondary School Dropout Rate........................................................................ 23
2. 4 Factors influencing high Dropout Rate of Students in relation to crime

escalation.................................................................27

2.4.1 Factors influencing high Dropout Rate of Students..............................27

2.4.1.1 Social-cultural factors......................................................28

2.4.1.2 Sex Discrimination........................................................29

2.4.1.3 Social-Economic factors..................................................32

2.4.1.4 Male and Female Empowerment........................................33

2.4.1.5 Social Parity.................................................................35

2.5. Relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime

Escalation.................................................................36

2.6 Correlation between Dropout Rate and Crime.......................................37

2.7 Gaps in the Literature Review.............................................................41

2.8 Conceptual Framework.................................................................44

2.9 Summary.................................................................48

CHAPTER THREE...........................................................50

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY..................................................50

3.1 Study Area........................................................................50

3.2 Research Design......................................................................55

3.3 Study Population......................................................................56

3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedure..................................................57

3.5 Instruments of Data Collection......................................................63
3.5.1 Questionnaires ......................................................................................... 64
3.5.2 Interview Schedule ................................................................................. 64
3.5.3 Document Analysis Schedule ................................................................. 65
3.6 Pilot Study .................................................................................................. 66
3.6.1 Validity of the Instruments ..................................................................... 66
3.6.2 Reliability of the instruments ................................................................. 67
3.7 Data Collection Procedures ....................................................................... 69
3.8 Data Analysis ............................................................................................. 70
3.9 Limitations of the study ............................................................................ 72
3.10 Ethical Considerations ............................................................................. 73
3.11 Summary .................................................................................................. 74
CHAPTER FOUR ............................................................................................ 76
NATURE OF CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES COMMITTED BY SECONDARY SCHOOL DROPOUTS ......................................................... 76
4.1 Nature of crimes committed by the dropouts ........................................... 76
4.2 Pattern of Crime Rate ............................................................................... 103
4.3 Crime Rate of Students ............................................................................ 106
4.4 Dropout Rate of students in secondary schools ...................................... 111
4.5 Summary .................................................................................................. 121
CHAPTER FIVE ............................................................................................. 123
FACTORS INFLUENCING DROPOUT RATE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO CRIME ESCALATION

5.1 Factors influencing Dropout Rate among Secondary School Students

5.1.1 Sex Discrimination

5.1.2 Gender Stereotype

5.1.3 Social- Economic factors

5.1.4 Socio-Cultural Factors

5.2 Comparison of responses on factors influencing Dropout Rate of students

5.3 Relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime Escalation

5.4 Summary

CHAPTER SIX

CORRELATION BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL DROPOUTS AND CRIME ESCALATION

6.1 Correlation between Secondary School Dropouts and Crime Escalation

6.2 Correlation of crime rate between boys and girls
6.3 Correlation between Boys’ and Girls’ Dropout rates.................................................................190
6.4 Summary.................................................................................................................................192

CHAPTER SEVEN.........................................................................................................................193
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.........................................................193
7.1 Summary of Findings...............................................................................................................193

7.1.1 Nature of Criminal Activities by secondary school dropouts.........................................................193

7.1.2 Factors Influencing Dropout Rates among Secondary School Students in relation to crime Escalation...............................................................195

7.1.3 Correlation between Dropout Rate and Crime Escalation.................................................198

7.2 Conclusion..............................................................................................................................199

7.3 Recommendations................................................................................................................200

7.4 Suggestions for Further Research......................................................................................201

REFERENCES..............................................................................................................................202
### ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMESA</td>
<td>Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DQASO</td>
<td>District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAC</td>
<td>East African Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEBC</td>
<td>Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGAD</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Authority on Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCSE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNEC</td>
<td>Kenya National Examinations Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMUST</td>
<td>Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPAD</td>
<td>New Partnership for Africa’s Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCPD</td>
<td>Officer Commanding Police Division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCS</td>
<td>Officer Commanding Police Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDE</td>
<td>Provincial Director of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SACMEQ</td>
<td>Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern Africa Development Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCDE</td>
<td>Vihiga County Director of Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Affray  Refers to crime of fighting by school dropout in public and causing bodily harm to each other or the third party.

Alcohol and drug abuse  Refers to consumption of either illicit local brews and drugs or consuming both.

Assault  Refers to crime of causing bodily harm by dropouts to another person.

Cohort:  A group of students who enrolled in form one of secondary school Cycle of four years and sat for KCSE in form four.

Crime  Refers to acts committed by the dropouts that the society labeled deviant in the sense that they were harmful not only to some Individual, but also to the community or the state.

Crime Rate  Refers to frequency of occurrence of labeled deviant and harmful activities that secondary school dropouts committed.

Crime Escalation  Refers to increasing frequency of deviant and harmful activities that secondary school dropouts committed.

Cultural Keepers  Refers to people in a society who are the custodians of the community’s way of life and its practices. They are also referred to as opinion leaders.

Defilement  Refers to the full range of forced sexual acts, including forced touching or kissing; verbally coerced intercourse; and vaginal, oral, and anal penetration by the dropouts.

Dropout Rate  Refers to frequency of occurrence of secondary school students below 20 years dropping from a particular school that they joined in Form One before sitting for KCSE and they did not join any other school. Those students must have committed criminal activities after dropping from school.

Drunkenness  Refers to drinking of illegal brews like chang’aa and busaa. It also includes drinking of beer and subsequently engaging in criminal activities.
School Dropouts  Refers to secondary school students below 20 years who engaged in criminal activities after dropping from a particular school that he/she joined in form one before sitting for KCSE examination and he/she did not join any other school.

Socio-cultural factors are the larger scale forces within cultures and societies that affect the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals towards the expectations from boys and girls.

Stealing  Refers to crime of dropouts fraudulently and without claim of right taking anything capable of being stolen.

Social-Economic Factors Refers to income related factors that can be make students drop from School.

Omusala  Refers to qat or “bhang” or “marijuana.”

Nature of crime  Refers to types of unlawful activities committed by secondary school dropouts.

Personal Crimes  Refers to deviant activities committed by dropouts that result in physical harm to another person.

Police Division  Refers to an area in the Police Force Establishment that is equivalent to a sub county. It is led by an Officer Commanding Police Division (OCPD). For the regular police who deal with petty offences like stealing.

Property Crimes  Involve an interference with another person’s right to use or enjoy property.

Robbery with Violence  Refers to the act of dropouts stealing anything, and at or immediately before or immediately after the time of stealing it, uses or threatens to use actual violence to any person or property in order to obtain or retain the thing stolen or to prevent overcome to its being stolen or retained.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter addressed background to the study, statement of the problem, study objectives and research questions, justification of the study, scope of the study and summary of the chapter.

1.1 Background to the Study

Crime escalation that is linked to secondary school students’ dropouts in the 21st century has received unprecedented attention at international forums in the recent past (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2013; Sutherland, 2013). This is supported by United Nations Report (2012) which states that, there is a correlation between the escalating crime rate and dropouts among secondary school students globally.

Every year, close to one-third of boys aged eighteen years do not finish high school in East Africa and subsequently engage in crimes (World Bank, 2010). This is not just a problem affecting certain individuals and schools; it is a regional problem that is affecting everyone. Oyugi (2011) argues that, high school students who dropped out of secondary schools committed about 75 percent of crimes in Central Africa and were much more likely to be on public assistance than those who completed high school. The cost to the public for these crime and welfare benefits was close to $200 billion annually. In Uganda, World Bank (2010) says that, a mismatch existed between the aspirations of young people and the opportunities available to them. The
majority of young Ugandans had high hopes and ambitions. However, a demographic bulge of dropouts, poor macro-economic performance, and an education system that suffered from problems of access, and a society that negated the self-expression of young people meant that many young people were unable to translate their aspirations into a productive and fulfilling future. High expectations, disappointing employment and life prospects, and marginalization among those dropouts fuelled frustration and desperation. In response, some of them turned to criminal behavior like drunkenness, substance and drug abuse, stealing, robbery with violence and defilement (Younge et al., 2007; King & Murray, 2001).

In the analysis of crime escalation and secondary school dropout rate within the Kenyan Context, Mudege et al. (2013) and Droulet, (2007) found out that, 54 percent of dropouts who engaged in criminal activities were aged between 16 to 22. According to the Kenya Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2013), insecurity and secondary school dropout rate are the key issues that have been identified by many Kenyan communities as a source of poverty. In support of this statement, the Kenya Economic Recovery Strategy for Employment (2013) states that, addressing safety, insecurity, rule of law and school dropout rate are fundamental if economic growth is to be achieved.

According to the Kenya Police Department 2006 in Statistical abstract (2013) highest incidences of offences reported over the five years are alcohol and drug abuse, stealing, break-ins and robbery which contributed 65%, 25%, 17% and 15%.
respectively of all offences reported to police stations with 57% having an economic motive. This was followed by terrorism, youth radicalization and offences against morality. The least reported incidences of crime were corruption, offences against police and offences against tourists which contributed 0.3% and 0.1% respectively of total crime incidences reported.

According to the report of the Kenya Police Statistical Analysis of Crime Incidences Reports (2013) from the last five years across all the Provinces in Kenya, North Eastern has the highest robbery incidences with 87.4%, followed by Nairobi Province with 79%, Coast Province with 77%, and Central Province with 67%. The Provinces that experienced the least number of robbery incidences are Eastern Province and Western Province with 41% and 33% respectively. Over the years, incidences of crime reported were highest in 2003 with 8711 incidences. This was followed by 2002, 2004, 2005 and 2006 with 8504, 7863, 5811 and 5234 incidences reported respectively. Differences in robbery offences between the provinces can be explained in terms of geographical location, economic activities and population. North Eastern Province for instance, which recorded the highest robbery incidences neighbours Somali which has suffered civil war for long and given the fact that the boarder is porous, there is likelihood that Somali Militia Groups conscript the school dropouts into their gangs. Nairobi being the capital city of Kenya attracts many youth who drop from school and once they fail to get employment, they resort to crime (Gimode, 2011). In addition, robbery incidences have been exacerbated by availability of
firearms with more robberies reported involving the use of guns and high unemployment levels despite economic improvement (Muhammed, 2010).

Vihiga County Security Committee (2012) report says that, among the youth who engaged in criminal activities in Vihiga County, 73 percent were teenagers who had dropped from school. The same report said that crime rate among teenagers seemed to have escalated in the county between 2007 and 2012. The report further says that in 2008, 60 percent of the teenagers below 18 years participated in criminal activities. In 2009, 74 percent of the teenagers below 18 years participated in crime. In 2010, 52 percent of the same participated in crime. In 2011, 80 percent of the same participated in crime and in 2012, 89 percent of the teenagers below 18 years participated in crime.

MOEST (2012) Report on the Management of Primary and Secondary Education Curriculum says that, the right age for a student to join form one should be 13 years. It means that a student could sit for KCSE at age 17. This suggests therefore that, perhaps the dropouts were the ones who were contributing to crime escalation.

Report from the OCPD, Vihiga Division (2012) on crime between 2007 and 2012, further shows that vice peaks were during the months of April, August and December when most schools closed and preceded to the period when school fees was required. Perhaps these vices were committed by students since they were at home and most of them were committed by teenagers. The World Bank (2010) report says that, there was a possibility of the students who dropped out of secondary
school engaging in crime in Africa. In line with the recommendations of Mbari (2008) and Banerjee, (2006) that further research on relationship between school dropout rate and crime rate ought to be done, the current study sought to examine the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.

The dropout rate of students in secondary schools varies from one region to another internationally. This is because different nations are in different stages of extending universal secondary education (Booth & Bruce, 2009). Brown (2009) argues that, among developed countries the high school completion rates are generally as high as or higher than in the United States, though the nature of the secondary programs varies considerably. Rates in other countries lag behind those in developed countries, but secondary enrollments and graduation rates have been increasing worldwide (Bryk & Thum, 2009). There are also differences in dropout rates associated with socio-economic and demographic factors. One notable demographic difference concerns the dropout rates for males and females.

Females are less likely to drop out in developed countries, Latin American and the Caribbean although they are more likely to drop out prior to high school completion in the rest of the world (Botvin & Eng, 2011; Connel, 2010; Eagly, 2009).

In Kenya, Reports by the Ministry of Education revealed that, despite enormous gains on access in education; there are dropouts of female and male students in secondary school and a decline in completion rates in Kenya (MOEST, 2007). Abagi (1997)
points out that, girls’ enrolment at the secondary school levels has been more dramatic since early 1960’s. The enrolment of girls by 1980’s for example increased from 30,120 in 1963 to 658,253 in 1996. The girls’ share of total enrolment at independence was 31.8 percent. This improved to 41.8 percentages in 1996. The increase in the male to female student ratio at secondary school level reflects a higher dropout rate for girls (Fatuma & Sifuna, 2006).

Most of the secondary schools in Vihiga County, registered a significant higher dropout rate of boys than girls (MOEST, 2012). The same report reveals that, in the year 2009, out of the 12,000 of students who enrolled in F1, 7,258 only, slightly more than half the male secondary school entrants finished their F4. Similarly, the same report reveals that in the county of study, the dropout rate of boys was 70% while that of girls was 66 % in 2009. In 2010, the dropout rate of boys was 65 % while that of girls was 56 %. In 2011, the dropout rate of boys was 63% while that of girls was 58% with a reverse gender gap dropout rate of 5 %. On the overall, the dropout rate of secondary school students was increasing in Vihiga County in spite of the free secondary education (Vihiga County Directors of Education Report on Examinations, 2012).

This justified the study to find the factors influencing dropouts in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

Criminal Escalation and Secondary School Students’ Dropouts are two global concerns as they can result not only in economic stagnation but loss of lives (Becroft, 2013; Oyugi, 2011; Bailey, 2010; Ritze, 2007). School dropout has been closely associated with lower economic growth, youth unemployment and politics (Junger-Tas et al., 2010; Minglian, 2009; Farrington, 2009; Scitovsky, 2008; Cohen, 2007). In addition, Nyagah (2010) argues that dropout rate of students is increasing highly in Africa which might be a source to insecurity. However, the studies do not give the statistical relationship between dropout rate and criminal escalation. Worrell (2012) argues that, there is need for studies to be conducted on the relationship between school dropout rate and crime escalation.

The Government of Kenya Report (2009) on tribal clashes in Kenya revealed that 65% of the youth who had dropped out of school participated in the post-election violence of 2008/2009 in Kenya. Similarly, the period between 2009 and 2012 had seen the number of children aged between 15 years to 19 years in conflict with the law steadily rise in Vihiga County (Provincial Security Committee, Western Kenya, 201; Vihiga County Security Report, 2012). Since most of the criminal activities were committed by youth who were below 19 years, perhaps they had dropped from school. It was against that backdrop that the current study was undertaken to examine the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.
1.3 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to examine the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.

The specific objectives of the study were to:
(i) Discuss the nature of criminal activities committed by secondary school dropouts in Vihiga County, Kenya.
(ii) Assess the factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.
(iii) Examine the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation among secondary school students in Vihiga County, Kenya.

1.4 Research Questions

(i) What is the nature of criminal activities committed by secondary school students in Vihiga County, Kenya?
(ii) What are the factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya?
(iii) What is the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation among secondary school students in Vihiga County, Kenya?
1.5 Justification of the Study

From a research and academic perspective a survey of available literature such as (ICPD, 2009; Kimani, 2005; Danet, 2002; Obagi, 1997), it indicated that extensive research on secondary school students’ dropouts had been done.

The findings had a commonality of indicating that dropout rate of secondary school was increasing in Africa. This was supported by Hadley (2010) in his argument that in most schools in Africa, when out of the 70% students enrolling in Form One, 45% was dropping on before finishing the secondary cycle. The trend seemed the same in Vihiga County, Kenya. Statistics show that the dropout rate of students was on the increase between 2009 and 2012. Similarly, the same report revealed that in Vihiga County, the dropout rate of boys was 70% while that of girls was 66 % in 2009. In 2010, the dropout rate of boys was 65 % while that of girls was 56 %. In 2011, the dropout rate of boys was 63% while that of girls was 58% with a reverse gender gap dropout rate of 5 %. In 2012, the dropout rate of boys was 69% while that one of girls was 54% (KNEC Analysis Report, 2012). Although the dropout rate of girls was comparatively lower, it was still high. There was need to research on the factors leading to the high dropout rate of secondary school students.

Furthermore, World Bank (2010) reported that there was a possibility of the students who dropped out of secondary school engaging in crime globally. In Africa, most of the youth who dropped out of school were abusing drugs (Oyugi, 2011). In Kenya, some school dropouts were engaging in terrorist activities (Barasa, 2011). There was an escalation of criminal activities by the youth between 2007 and 2012 in Vihiga.
County (Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012). Most study findings had attributed the crime prevalence to politics (Government Report on Crime, 2012; Muchai 2010; KEPSHA, 2009). Research on crime escalation in the current area of study has been done (Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012; Oyugi, 2011; Nyagah, 2010; Ondego, 2002). However, there seems to exist insufficient literature on the relationship between crime escalation and dropout rate of secondary school students, hence making the current study relevant.

From a practical and policy perspective, it was envisaged that the current study would add more information to the current database of knowledge on escalating dropout rate of secondary school students and its effects on crime. This was likely to remain a permanent record and would be used to advance knowledge by future researchers. It was therefore anticipated that by using the findings of the current study, security and education agencies would benefit in two ways: they would understand better the current nature of crime that is committed by unsuspecting teenagers who have dropped from school and new trend of escalating student dropout rate from schools that are engaging in crime respectively and lastly they would recommend alternative ways to relying on prisons in reducing crime.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study basically addresses the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropouts and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya between 2005 and 2012. This period recorded an increase in the number of students who dropped from

It focused mainly on students below 19 years who dropped from public secondary schools and engaged in criminal activities within the county. Students below 19 year were to be studied because if a student joins class one at age 7 as recommended by the Ministry of education, he is supposed to finish form four by age 18 (MOEST, 2012).

One more year was added in case a student repeated. This was supported by McNeal (2007) who says that, an average student academically may repeat for two years in a high school. Secondary schools in Vihiga County were selected for the study because of prevalence of criminal activities and high dropout rate of secondary school students in Vihiga County, Kenya between 2009 and 2012 (KNEC Analysis Report, 2012; Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012). Dropouts from public secondary schools were selected for the study because they respondents from the same environment give reliable information about the issue under investigation (Jessor & Jessor, 2010; Johnson & Turner, 2010).
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter assessed and reviewed relevant literature on the topic of study. The study adopted a thematic approach in line with the study objectives as follows:

Nature of Criminal Activities by Secondary School Dropouts and Factors influencing Dropout rates of Secondary School Students. The literature assumed the practical position of the dropout rate of students and its influence on the escalating crime rate. This assumption provided the basis for the study to fill the gap.

2.1 Nature of criminal activities by Secondary School Dropouts

2.1.1 Types of criminal activities

The question of crime and insecurity has become paramount for the development nationally and internationally. Alcohol and drug abuse account for the majority of arrests and incarcerations in USA (Bratton, et al., 2011). The current study argues that, this could be because USA is developed and therefore most of the crimes committed there are leisure related crimes. In Africa, most of the crimes are related with business activities in an effort to develop. Crimes in Africa therefore include corruption and illegal businesses that are associated with poaching, illicit alcohol, abduction and terrorism (Donna, 2012; Shephard & Blackley, 2012). However, it seems crimes against humanity that are carried out by drug traffickers as they relate with secondary school dropouts have not been explored in any depth in the existing research on crime escalation in Africa. Gottfredson, et al. (2013) reveals 80%
increase in fraud cases from South African companies in between 2005 and 2011. Among the crimes committed, 83% were committed by school dropouts. Likewise, out of the 78% crimes committed in Kenya, only 65% was committed by dropouts (Chiti, 2010).

Kenya is considered a ‘beacon of stability and peace’ in the horn of Africa, greater Eastern Africa region and Africa plays an important role (The Police Accountability Report in Kenya, 2012). It serves as an economic and business hub for both national and international investors. It is a tourist destination and its geographical positioning has made it a key player in international trade serving many landlocked countries. Kenya also serves as a central point for humanitarian aid to the large number of displaced victims of war in its neighboring countries (Nguzo na Haki, 2011). High incidences of crime and insecurity thus have a strong bearing on the overall development in Kenya. They influence levels of investment both nationally and internationally, the ability of citizens to engage in sustainable businesses; both small and medium enterprises, agricultural production and facilitate movement of goods and services across international borders (Singo et al. 2013). Crime and insecurity undermine the freedom of association and movement of citizens, create a sense of fear and intimidation and hamper the spiritual, economic and social development of individuals.

Crime is notoriously hard to measure, and problematic alcohol and drug abuse even more so. Both activities are illegal, and so are hidden from view (Botvin & Eng,
Combining the measurement of both activities into a figure for drug-related crime promises to be a very inexact science indeed, and has tended to produce exaggerated claims of precision and scale. The security situation in Vihiga County was characterized by a significant increase in all categories of crime between 2005 and 2012 (Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012).

The county experienced increased cases of theft of stock, breaking, motorcycle and other thefts, other offences against persons, criminal damage, theft by servant, possession of dangerous drugs, consumption of local brews, affray, robbery, homicide, stealing, offences against morality and economic crimes (Vihiga County, Police Commissioner’s Report, 2012). The crime that seemed to be common was abuse of alcohol and drugs. The trend of crime and insecurity has been orchestrated by, among others, proliferation of small arms and light weapons, inequitable distribution of resources, organized crimes, high unemployment rate, drug and substance abuse, high illiteracy levels and sophistication of technology (Gimode, 2011; Okello, 2011; Chiti, 2010). Since, abuse of alcohol and drugs was common, the research looked at literature that seemed to discuss alcohol and drug abuse in relation to other criminal activities.

2.1.2 Link between alcohol and drug abuse with criminal activities.

Research both in Australia and internationally which that a significant proportion of those apprehended for a range of criminal offences are frequent alcohol and drug abusers (Arrestee Drug Abuse Monitoring Program, 2011). This is supported by Ball
et al. (2012) who says that, statistics indicate that 60% to 80% of all crime is alcohol and drug related (Bratton, 2012). Such high claims from researchers have tended to be repeated by drug policy campaigners.

Boyum & Kleiman (2012) attribute half of crime to the idea that a lot of crime is committed by alcohol and drug users. This is also supported by research on people who are in prison or drug treatment (Brotheton, 2011; Buchanan & Younge, 2010). Studies repeatedly find that high proportions of prisoners have used drugs and have had drug problems, and that drug treatment clients report that they have committed a lot of crime.

Translation of these studies into policy has tended to assume that, because there is an overlap between reported levels of crime and drug use in these populations, a high proportion of crime is caused by alcohol and drug abuse. However the current study sought to argue that this is an over-simplistic view of the alcohol and drug-crime link. Prisoners and arrestees may be using more alcohol and drugs than the rest of the population. And it is likely that their offending accelerates during periods of heavy alcohol and drug use (McSweeney & Hough, 2013), and also that many problematic drug users finance their drug use by offending. While the figures indicate that some offending is directly linked to illicit drug use, they do not necessarily show that drug use is a precursor to crime. Criminals often start offending before they use drugs, and they sometimes continue after they have stopped using drugs (Seddon, 2013). A Canadian team of researchers asked prisoners about the links between their use of
substances and their crimes and a high proportion of the prisoners reported using drugs, but fewer linked this to their offending (Lavine, 2013). Bailey & Hubbard (2013) found out that, males who used illicit drugs during their lifetimes were more likely to have committed offences prior to drug use, whereas women were almost equally as likely to have commenced either first. The majority of young people surveyed started drug use and offending at an early age, with drug use beginning before or around the same time as offending.

Another theory related to the alcohol and drug abuse-crime link suggests that there are factors which increase both the risk of becoming involved in offending and the taking of illicit drugs (Donnelly et al., 2012). Perhaps factors such as an abusive childhood or parental absence may predispose individuals to involvement with crime and drugs or that lifestyle influences may be a driver.

The researcher sought to argue that, whether the literature does not statistically show that alcohol and drug abuse was a precursor to crime, but there was a relationship between alcohol and drug abuse. This is supported by Sheeran et al. (2011) who say that, substance abusers are common among street children and urban city secondary schools. Cooper (2012) further says that, drug abuse, violence and reckless sexual behavior have a close relationship with consequences of unwanted pregnancies, Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and HIV & AIDS. Since school dropouts were
among the crime offenders, the research looked at the literature related to secondary school dropout rate.

2.2.1 Dropout Rate of students

The dropout rate of boys was higher than girls in America, according to a new study from the Manhattan Institute (Ritzer, 2007). The studies found out that not only were the girls in the nation's 100 largest school districts graduating at a 72 percent rate versus 65 percent for their male counterparts, but that the gender gap was even wider among minority students. According to the Manhattan Institute study, "Leaving Boys Behind: Public High School Graduation Rates," the overall national public school graduation rate for the class of 2003 was relatively steady at 70 percent, with white students graduating at a rate of 78 percent while Asian students came in at 72 percent, blacks at 55 percent and Hispanics at 53 percent.

However, among black and Hispanic populations, the gender gap was wider, with 59 percent of black female students graduating, compared to only 48 percent of their male counterparts and a 58 to 49 percent ratio for Hispanic females and males, respectively. Banerjee (2006) in his research found out that, that 59 percent of African-American girls and 48 percent of African-American boys earned their diplomas that year. Among Hispanics, the graduation rate was 58 percent for girls, but only 49 percent for boys.
In some African countries, the percentage of high school students reaching final grade in 2006 and 2010 ranged between 47 and 99 percent, with Mauritius having the highest and Ethiopia the lowest. The percentage of girls reaching final grade was higher than boys in Botswana, Algeria, Mauritius, Namibia, Niger and Tunisia. Mauritius had the highest percentage of 99 percent for girls reaching final grade, while Chad had the lowest percentage (Herring, 2009). A comparison of transition rates of boys and girls in some selected African countries showed major variations across countries. Statistical Abstract Nairobi (2003) revealed that, Ethiopia, Swaziland, Algeria, Mauritania, Morocco, and Namibia had transition rates of more than 70 percent. Djibouti, Cote d’ Ivoire, Niger, and Senegal had a lower transition rate than Kenya. On gender variations, girls had a higher transition rate than boys in Algeria, Mauritius, Morocco, Niger, and Tunisia. As countries sought to increase educational participation, higher enrolment was not their only concern. They also sought to ensure that students progressed through the education system smoothly, and that they achieved higher levels of education rather than repeating classes or dropping out of school.

In Michigan, as the dropout rate of boys increased, that one of girls decreased (Neild, 2009). Table 2.1 that follows overleaf shows the graduation rate and dropout rate of Michigan Public Secondary Schools.
### Table 2.1: Michigan 2011 Graduation Dropout Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Gap</th>
<th>Males 2</th>
<th>Females 2</th>
<th>Gap 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All students</td>
<td>69.6%</td>
<td>79.3%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>76.4%</td>
<td>84.1%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>65.8%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>10.4%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>84.6%</td>
<td>89.5%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>7.6%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
<td>65.5%</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native America</td>
<td>56.9%</td>
<td>67.2%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE**: United States Department of Education

From table 2.1, the Michigan dropout rate had a gender gap of 8.9% for the blacks and it favoured the girls. It is clear also the races in the state registered higher dropout rate for boys than girls. The researcher sought to establish if there was a concurrence with the area of study because both of them were blacks.

According to the study carried out by the Ministry of Education in 1993, North Eastern Province in Kenya had the highest drop-out rate for both boys and girls in the country, which was partly explained by the nomadic way of life that the school-going-age population led (Republic of Kenya, 2005). The province had a dropout rate of 19.89 percent, with girls having the highest rate of 11.18 percent and boys 8.71 percent.
The national drop-out rate was 5.40 percent, with boys dropping out at 5.46 percent while girl’s rate was lower at 10.79 percent. Central Province had the lowest drop-out rate of 2.25 and 3.15 percent for boys and girls respectively.

One persistent constraint in attaining the goals of education for all (EFA) is the rate of drop out from education systems (UNICEF, 2010). Many developing countries practice gender streamlining in secondary school to retain girls (Mutambai, 2013). According to KNEC Analysis Report (2012), dropout rates in 2009 in Kenyan Secondary Schools registered 41.3% for boys and 51.5% for girls. In spite of the government policies to enhance enrolments in secondary sub sector, the girl’s participation, retention, transition and completion at secondary school education level are lower than boys. This became a contention which the current study sought to address.

Reports by the Ministry of Education revealed that despite enormous gains on access in education; there are dropouts of female and male students in secondary school and a decline in completion rates (MOEST Report on Management of the Primary and Secondary Curriculum, 2010) as indicated in Table 2.2 that follows:
Table 2.2: Dropout rate of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Form 1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 4</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOEST (2010)

From the findings the gender gaps were 64, 76, 37, 22 and 19 for 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005 respectively. This indicates that the gender gap was narrowing as the drop out of boys increased. It was against this backdrop that the current study sought to examine the dropout rate of boys and girls in secondary schools. Having looked at secondary school dropout rate, the researcher therefore looked at literature related with crime escalation and secondary school dropout rate.
2.2.2 Perspectives of Dropout Rates

Description of dropout of certain levels of education varies from country to country. In some countries, Coyle (2009) explains that, dropout occurs as a result of not passing an examination or a series of examinations, while in other countries dropout occurs after a requisite number of course hours have not been accumulated.

In other countries, dropout is associated with the students not obtaining a degree, certificate or diploma after a final examination. In other countries it is defined by the completion of programmes without a final examination (Gordo, 1998). Dropout, according to the current study is a condition of failing to achieve the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education in the school in which the student joined form one. It includes the percentage of students withdrawing from a school cycle before they attempted Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination. The students who joined the school of study between form two and form four were not selected.

Dropout rates have been examined from several perspectives. Event dropout rates measure the proportion of students who drop out of school in a single year without completing a certain level of school (Becroft, 2013). Status dropout rates measure the proportion of the entire population of a given age who have not completed a certain level of school life and are not currently enrolled (Davis, 2013). Cohort dropout rates measure dropping out among a single group or cohort of students over a given period (Egyed et al., 2012). This study adopted a cohort dropout measure because it was
capable of giving statistics that were not captured in status dropout rates measure and event dropout rates measure (Coyle, 2009).

Cohort dropout rates are calculated for various cohorts studied as they make their way through secondary school. The most recent large-scale secondary school cohort examined the cohort dropout rates for the eighth-grade class of 1988 followed up at two-year intervals through 1994. For this national sample of United States of American secondary school students, the cohort dropout rate in the spring of 1992, when they were scheduled to complete high school, was 10.8 percent.

The rate declined to 10.1 percent by August 1992 after some of the students completed high school in the summer. The rate declined further to 7.2 percent by August 1994, two years following their scheduled completion of high school.

2.3 Crime Escalation and Secondary School Dropout Rate

The age-crime curve shows that the peak age of criminal behavior is in adolescence, between age of 15 and 19 (Gimode, 2011; Garnier & Stein, 2008). This indicates that most of them should either be at school or would have dropped out. The vast majority of existing studies on the relationship between education and crime do not consider differences between age groups, and have a mixed-age research population. However, youth crime can differ from adult crime in several respects, and therefore its relationship to education might be also different (Donna, 2012).
First of all, young people appear to be involved in a greater variety of criminal behavior, but also less serious and less sophisticated crime, compared to adults (Irwin, 2004). For example, the most frequent arrests among United States youth are for minor crimes against property, vandalism, drugs dealing, disorderly conduct, and obstruction of justice (Edwards, 2012). In European countries, group fighting, carrying weapons, drugs dealing, shoplifting, vandalism and computer hacking predominate (Ekstrom et al., 2009). Secondly, young people and adults can differ in their motivation to exhibit offending behavior. In accordance with the economic theory, adults have an economic interest to be engaged in crime (Hudson, 2012).

Although adolescents tend to report that the main motivation of their criminal involvement is gaining economic and financial benefits, there are many other reasons of their criminal behavior, such as, enjoyment, excitement, entertainment and pleasure (Elliott et al., 2011). Abraham et al., (2009) consider that, mischief crimes committed by juveniles often result from boredom rather than calculated criminal thought. Similarly, Grobe & Hamilton, (2010) believes that, violence in school largely occurs due to feelings of boredom and a lack of activities at school. Peer group pressure, mood swings, and lack of reflection on emotional situations are significant factors that can stimulate offending behavior of juveniles (Marcotte et al., 2012).

Finally, a criminal act is frequently viewed by young people as a risk-taking adventure that gives offenders status and particular respect within their group of peers (Conell, 2010). The third distinct aspect of youth crime is that adolescents are
relatively more likely to commit crime with others or in groups compared to adults (Grogger, 2011). In contrast to adult criminal associations, groups of juvenile offenders are typically formed by territorial affiliation, and they are usually random and less stable over time (Gimode, 2011). Therefore, social interactions at school and on the street seem to have a great impact on behavior of young people.

There were roughly 75 million juveniles in The United States as of 2012 (Donna, 2012). That is, one in four Americans have the potential of being labeled as juvenile delinquents. More specifically, in 2009 there were 74.5 million juveniles in the United States, which was 2 million more than in the year 2007 which was 72.5 million due to sexual child abuse (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa135.html). The population of juveniles in the United States is projected to increase until 2015 (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa250.html).

In fact, the Federal Interagency on Child and Family Statistics reported that the number of juveniles would reach 101.6 million by 2050. If the juveniles’ delinquency rates were to increase with the population, or even plateau, this would translate into thousands of more juvenile delinquents (http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa261.html).

There are criminal tendencies where we have escalating dropout rates of students from secondary schools (Thompkins, 2010). Vihiga County has seen a rapid growth in crime, drug and substance abuse among the youth (Erulkar & Matheka, 2010). Alcohol, cigarettes, khat (miraa), and cannabis sativa have remained the most popular
abused substances (Mugisha, 2006). There is a fast emerging trend of injecting drug use especially narcotic (Elliot et al., 2011). Moreover, abuse of drugs is highly associated with the risks of contracting HIV/Aids and other sexually transmitted diseases especially among the youth (Ensiminger, 2012). It is against this backdrop that the current study sought to establish if violent criminal attacks, including rape, mugging, armed carjacking and home invasions were increasingly being associated with the youth who had dropped out of school.

The number of students who dropped out of school increased between 2006 and 2007 internationally (Natale, 2012; Neild, 2009; Little, 2008). At the same time, crime associated with student dropout seems to have increased during the same period (Mudege et al., 2013; Mills, 2008). Key findings of the Consolidated Report show that, the annual dropout rate increased 3.75 percent to 4.27 percent between 2007 and 2009 in Africa. Seventy percent of all school districts demonstrated an increase in dropout rates. (Oyugi 2011; Muhammed, 2010) say that the number of acts of crime and violence increased 4.4 percent from 7.59 acts per 1,000 students to 7.97 acts per 1,000 students who dropped out in Kenya.

Total acts went from 11,116 in 2008-09 to 11,608 in 2009-10. Having looked at the literature related with crime escalation and dropout rate, the researcher looked at the literature related with factors influencing high dropout rate of students in relation to crime.
Banerjee, (2006) recommends that, there is need to study critically the behavioural pattern of students who drop from school. Dee & Evans (2013) say that, some students continue living the life that made them drop from school like that of stealing and drinking. Machel (2010) supports the argument by saying that, some of the students who drop from school participate in criminal activities ranging from petty offences to hard core offences. In most places the dropouts were reported engaging in criminal activities like, robbery with violence, alcohol and drug abuse, cyber crime and stealing (Gimode, 2011; Morrison & Skiba, 2011; Bastow, 1986). Since Okello (2011) argues that, the nature of crime varies from one region to another, the current study sought to discuss the nature of criminal activities in Vihiga County, Kenya.

2. 4 Factors influencing high Dropout Rate of Students in relation to crime escalation

2.4.1 Factors influencing high Dropout Rate of Students

Brown (2009) points out that boys and girls are affected by unique factors in their studies. They rotated around gender issues in a society. It is in line with this that this section discussed factors which influenced dropout rate of students in public secondary schools.
The factors were discussed under the following sub themes: Social-Cultural Factors, Sex Discrimination, Social Cultural Factors, Male and Female Empowerment, Social Parity, Gender equality and education, Gender economies of education, Gender empowerment and Education, Gender parity and education and Gender stereotypes and education.

2.4.1.1 Social-cultural factors

Social- Cultural stereotype is a belief based on the beliefs various societies have established concerning the roles men and women play in those societies (Ruble & Martin, 1998). According to Van der Rheede (2009), much of the conflict in Africa centers on stereotypes and whether the different genders conform to those stereotypes. Attitudes toward gender roles create conflict because those attitudes support the notion that women are weak and men are strong (Kane, 2009; DeJaeghere, 2009). According to Kimani (2005), men and women are equipped to follow the expected and established modes of behavior or risk being regarded as deviants. The old belief held that men are born to lead while women are born to follow made boys to be aggressive while girls to remain docile and nurturing. The current study sought to establish if those changing dynamics were translating into boys falling behind girls in completing secondary school in Vihiga County.

A dominant male and subordinate female has brought a conflict between male and female relations in accessing educational resources and opportunities in the world
(Fuller & Liang, 1999). In Africa a woman’s right to use land lies with her husband or male relatives, while men have all legal rights to land even to sell with or without the knowledge of their wives (Booth & Bruce, 2009; Pande et al., 2005; Kratil, 2001). Women’s and men’s rights to property are socially unequal. The right to own, inherit, manage, and dispose of property is under constant customary controls, laws and individuals who believe that women cannot be trusted with property (Brown, 2009; Griffith, 2005). The devastating effects of property rights violations in Kenya are poverty, disease, violence, discrimination and homelessness, which negatively impact on education. Eshiwani (1990) elucidates that, Kenya’s customary laws are largely unwritten but, influential local norms co-exist with the formal laws based on patriarchal traditions through which men inherit and largely control land and other property while they are expected to protect women. Whereas there exist much information on male dominance in accessing resources and opportunities, there is a gap on the new emerging trend of female dominance in some regions. The current study investigated the paradigm shift as it seemed to be reflected in Vihiga County, Kenya.

2.4.1.2 Sex Discrimination

Sex discrimination in education is applied to women in several ways globally. First, many sociologists of education view the educational systems as an institution of social and cultural reproduction (Pearson, 2007; Bastow, 1986). The existing patterns of inequality, especially for gender inequality, are reproduced within school through
formal and informal process. Educational system discriminates towards females through course-taking, especially in high school (Abraham et al., 2009; Jacobs, 1996). This is in agreement with Tailor & Donna (2004) who say that, females tend to take fewer advanced mathematical and scientific courses in Africa, thus leading them to be ill-equipped to pursue these careers in higher education. Marklein, (2005) elucidates that, in Eastern Africa, course-taking represents a large gender gap in what courses males and females take, which leads to different educational and occupational paths between males and females.

Research reveals that in Feminist Epistemology, gender influences our conceptions of knowledge (Kane, 2004). It identifies ways in which dominant conceptions of practices of knowledge, attributes, acquisition and justification systematically disadvantage women.

Nasongo (2010) argues that:

…dominant knowledge practices disadvantage women by denying them epistemic authority, producing theories of women that represent them as inferior, deviant, or significant in only in ways they serve male interests, producing theories of social phenomenon that render women’s activities and interests, or gendered power relations and producing knowledge that does not equitably serve the interests of both gender.

From the argument the general trend observed is that the higher one moves on the ladder of education, the lower the level of education for girls and the higher it gets for men. However, the weakness with this argument is that that it tends to suggest that
knowledge that women possess cannot benefit men. Addressing gender equality in
the education system, with a focus on improving girls’ educational performance and
outcomes, is crucial to meeting the country’s development goals and to protecting
women’s human rights (Dodson, 2005).

According to Ogbayi (1999) and Christofides et al., (2006), girls have been under-
represented in government schools, and instead boys more likely attend more
expensive and higher quality private schools and universities. Despite an enabling
policy environment, a number of social and institutional barriers continue to prevent
girls and young women from attending schools and universities and from performing
equally to their male classmates. Koontz (2010) elucidates that there still exists a
significant gender gap access to educational opportunities.

According to Ogbayi (1999), women bear almost all responsibility for meeting basic
needs of the family in Nigeria yet are systematically denied the resources,
information and freedom of action they need to fulfill this responsibility. The vast
majority of the world's poor are women. Nafula et al. (2005) observes that, two-
thirds of the world's illiterates are females. The current world food price crisis is
having a severe impact on women. Around the world, millions of people eat two or
three times a day, but a significant percentage of women eat only once (World
Bank, 1990). And, now, many women are denying themselves even that one meal to
ensure that their children are fed. These women are already suffering the effects of
even more severe malnutrition, which Kenya's legal system incorporates many laws
concerning women. It was against that backdrop that the current study sought to investigate why boys’ dropout rate seemed to be higher than girls’ dropout rate in Vihiga County, Kenya against the cultural patriarchy.

### 2.4.1.3 Social-Economic factors

Economy directly influences secondary schools globally, from the time such schools were created (Onsomu et al., 2006). Access to transportation and family economic stability influences high school enrollment rates. Since jobs require more education, a higher number of students stay in high school. Betts (1999) argued that, youth unemployment emerged as a contentious political and social issue globally after the First World War. The current study seeks to agree with this because politicians and educators seemed to be advocating for students to remain in high school in order to reduce increased delinquency, crime, and political radicalization. With millions of youth unemployed during the Great Depression of the 1930s, every attempt was made to keep more students in school in Africa (Martino, 2008). At the same time, budgets were reduced, putting a major strain on most schools.

In the 1920s and 1930s the school curriculum became more custodial in nature in order to meet the immediate needs of youth. Consequently, emphasis shifted from academic courses to consumer-oriented classes, and life skills were emphasized.

The introduction of free secondary education has led to a dramatic increase in secondary school enrollment in Kenya, with rates going from 60.6 percent in 2007 to
87.6 percent currently (Economic Survey, 2012). To subsidize students from poor households and expand access to secondary education, the government has put in place bursary schemes. It covers the school fees of all students in public schools. Parents are expected to meet the cost of pupils’ uniforms, food and health care. During fiscal year 2008, the Kenya Government spent Ksh. 7.6 billion to meet the basic costs of this policy. The government’s development partners including the Department for International Development and the World Bank provided additional support (World Bank, 2005). It is against this provision that the current study was carried out to ascertain why completion rates were not equal among the gender types and more critically boys falling behind girls and yet they are were both benefiting from the government subsidies.

Massive poverty has also crippled many families' efforts to educate their children despite introduction of free secondary education (Kendall, 2006). With the limited resources that some families have, Toldson (2008) argues that, they prefer to send their boys to school since it is believed that they are the future wealth sources to their parents than the girls, as it is hoped they will go on to be breadwinners. However, the current study sought to investigate the sex that was preferred to be educated as a future investment.

2.4.1.4 Male and Female Empowerment

Education is important for everyone in the world, but it is especially significant for girls (Herring, 2009). This is true not only because education is an entry point to
other opportunities, but also because the educational achievements of women can have ripple effects within the family and across generations. Investing in girls' education is one of the most effective ways to reduce poverty and it yields high dividend. According to Bedi et al., (2002), girls who have been educated are likely to marry later and to have smaller and healthier families in Africa. Educated women can recognize the importance of health care and know how to seek it for themselves and their children (Sifuna, 2006). Educating girls and women helps them to know their rights and to gain confidence to claim them. This current study sought to justify this argument although its edge was that it was interested in empowering boys too so that a situation would not arise where boys would be disadvantaged. The current study sought to establish if educated women in Vihiga County were contributing to the increasing completion rates of girls.

Female education was recognized as a critical pathway in promoting social, political and economic development. In spite of the progress made in narrowing the gender gap in education at secondary level in Kenya, some parts of the country especially the arid and semi-arid areas record low female participation in education, leading to wider difference in educational institutions (Kombo, 2005). It can be argued that low girl participation in secondary and tertiary education deprives them of the opportunities and also sustains the gender gap in leadership, business and high salaried professions.
This has necessitated the campaigns about girl child education. However, there is a gap of what happens when there is a low participation of male in secondary school education. This necessitated the current study to observe the behavior pattern of the boys who had dropped out of public secondary schools.

2.4.1.5 Social Parity

Even if gender issues have been incorporated in most curriculums globally, parity is yet to be reached (Kimani, 2005). Gender parity in education is a human right, a foundation for equal opportunity and a source of economic growth, employment creation and productivity (Marklein, 2005). Countries that tolerate high levels of gender inequality pay a high price for undermining the human potential of girls and women, diminishing their creativity and narrowing their horizons.

Lilan et al., (2005) elucidates that women continue to face high levels of disadvantage in pay and employment opportunities, diminishing the returns they can generate from education in East Africa. At the same time, education can play a role in breaking down labor market disadvantages (Eshiwani, 1993). Policies ranging from offering financial incentives for girls’ education to developing girl-friendly school environments, improving access to technical and vocational programmes, and providing non-formal education can overcome the gender disadvantages that limit the development of women’s skills. According to FEMSA (2010), women now earn the majority of diplomas in some fields men used to dominate, from biology to business and have caught up in pursuit of law, medicine and other advanced degrees. The
current study investigated if it was translating into the escalation of the girls’ completion rate and the boys’ dropout rate in secondary schools in Vihiga County, Kenya.

2.5. Relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime Escalation

Crime is a negative externality with enormous social-economic costs (Heimer et al., 2009). If education reduces crime, then completing secondary school cycle will have social-economic costs benefits that can be taken into account. Siegel (2009) further argues that, given the large social costs of crime, even small reductions in crime associated with education may be economically important. The studies reviewed on a link between dropout rate due to economies of scale by students and crime is not very clear. However, there is a considerable literature on social-economies and dropout rate of secondary school students (Daly et al., 2011). There is need to fill the gap between gender economies, dropout rate of secondary students and crime.

Studies suggest that there seems to be a strong relationship between dropping from secondary school due to gender stereotype and incarceration, and they suggest that the impacts are greater for blacks than for whites (Burgess & Amanda, 2012). Gold & Reis (2009) argues that one extra year of going to school results in a 10 percentage point reduction in the probability of incarceration for whites, and a 37 percentage point reduction for blacks. The studies however, do not explain the cause of the disparities. It was for that reason that the current study was partly carried out.
The probability of imprisonment is substantially larger for boys than for girls, and this is due to more boys being reported than girls whenever they commit a crime due to sex discrimination (Heidensohn, 2010). Incarceration rates for girls with less than twelve years of going to secondary school are around 8% while they average about 3.6% for boys over the three decades (Paleri, 2009).

An important feature to notice is that the reduction in the probability of imprisonment associated with higher schooling is substantially larger for girls than for boys. For example, in 2010, the difference between high school dropout rates was 8% for girls and 3.5% for boys. Because high school drop outs are likely to differ in many respects from individuals with more education, these differences do not necessarily represent the causal effect of education on the probability of incarceration. However, the patterns indicate that the effect may differ for boys and girls. Having looked at the literature related with Relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime Escalation, the researcher looked at the literature related to Correlation between Dropout Rate and Crime.

### 2.6 Correlation between Dropout Rate and Crime

Boys and girls significantly differ in dropout rates globally. They seem to drop out for different reasons. Girls are most likely to drop out of school due to pregnancy and marriage, while boys are more likely to drop out to seek employment (Mondoh, 2008). Others engage in criminal activities when they fail to get employment (Moraha & Janet, 2008). This does not mean that girls who drop out of school do not
engage in criminal activities. It is against this background that the current study sought to establish the pattern of dropout rate of students and their relation to crime escalation.

In Ghana, crime rates have been decreasing for the last 7 years (Romm, 2010). Gold & Reis (2009) say that, this could be due to people in the 15-25 age group (those most prone to criminal activity) who graduate from high school and earn more money are less likely to enter the criminal justice system. Middle East gangs have developed extensive networks around the world.

Evidence also suggests that in the 21st Century, domestic criminal organizations in the region have started to diversify from activities such as motor vehicle theft, arms trading and mineral smuggling to the highly lucrative trafficking of illicit drugs (Paleri, 2009). As a result, there has been a dramatic increase in violence and organized crime.

There are changes in the society that are influencing crime in society (Human Rights Watch, 2006). These changes can be attributed to many fluctuations. Negative changes in the economy greatly affect all crime rates because people are more likely to find themselves in pressing situation like unemployment. Changes in population affect juvenile delinquency rates as well because changes in population translate into more or less juveniles (Chiti, 2010). Shifts in population could also mean more general societal shift, like a wave of immigration. An influx of new people who are
unfamiliar with the legal system could negatively affect the juvenile crime rates (Irwin, 2004). Other social changes, such as educational system, could have a large impact on juvenile crime rates if they create a larger population of at-risk children (Erulkar & Matheka, 2010). The current study therefore attempted to correlate education and crime. The dropout rate of boys and girls from public secondary schools was specifically studied basing on the assumption that the students who dropped out of school engaged in crime (UNICEF, 2008).

The male phenomenon refers to the fact that a large majority of juvenile delinquents are men or boys (APHRC, 2002). In the United States, boys’ dropouts are five times more likely than girls’ dropouts to become juvenile delinquents (Eadie & Morley, 2011). Moreover, there are many suggested explanations as to why it is that boys commit more crimes than girls. One comes from theorists who believe men and boys are naturally more aggressive than women and girls (http://www.nationalgangcenter.gov/About/FAQ#q2).

Another theory communicates the idea that men and boys commit more crimes because of societal pressures to be masculine and aggressive (http://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/offenders/faqs.asp). A third theory suggests that the manner in which boys are treated by their families calls for more criminal action (Owens, 1998). The crime rates vary across boys of different races. African-American boys are more likely to become juvenile delinquents than White and Latino
boys. Latino boys are more likely to become juvenile delinquents than White boys are (Hoy & Miskel, 2009). One clear way to explain this difference in crime rates among different races of boys is by looking at their poverty rates (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Having looked at the literature related to nature of criminal activities by dropouts, factors influencing dropout rate of students and correlation between crime escalation and dropout rate, it was critical to identify the gaps. The research sought to fill the gaps.

Crime statistics revealed that crime rates in Kenya was going down in 2010 going down (Muhammed, 2010). However, other reports indicated that the Kenyan people still had a general feeling of insecurity (Manundu, 2010). In Kenya, as in many other countries, young people were viewed as being frequently among the main perpetrators of crime. Over 50 percent of all convicted criminals in Kenya were young males aged between 16 and 25 (Okello, 2011). As is with the case in other African countries, most crimes committed by young people in Kenya are financially motivated (United Nations, 2006). Even though youth crime and violence is a problem in Kenya, UN-HABIT (2011) revealed that little had been done in terms of dropout rate and crime escalation.

There was a high rate of crime in all regions of Kenya, particularly in Nairobi, Mombasa, Kisumu, and coastal beach resorts (Provincial Security Committee, Coastal Kenya, 2012).
The same report revealed that there were regular reports of attacks against tourists by groups of armed assailants. However, the commonest crime in Kenya was alcohol and drug abuse (Provincial Security Committee, Western Kenya, 2012). The study sought to find out if the dropouts in Vihiga County, abused alcohol and drugs. Sabala & Mkutu (2004) explains that, the increasing number of juvenile crimes in Ugunja district, Siaya County has been largely attributed to high poverty index and rate of school drop outs in the region. According to Hudson (2012), many children drop out of school due high level of poverty and get involved in illegal businesses that expose them to criminal activities. The current study is relevant because the average annual cost of maintaining a prisoner is at least three times higher than the annual dollars expended to educate a school-age child (Musambayi, 2004). This cost does not take into consideration the costs of adjudicating the crimes that sent these dropouts to prison and the monetary and personal costs of the crimes themselves.

2.7 Gaps in the Literature Review
Studies reviewed by (Oram, 2009; Rumberger, 2009; King 2007; Kratli 2001) revealed a paradigm shift in dropout rate of boys lagging behind girls in public secondary schools not only globally but also in Africa. Furthermore, Bastow (1986) and Gold & Rels (2009) elucidated that, boys were being discriminated against girls in accessing education in the name of gender empowerment. However, Kendal (2006) explains that, in the event of lack of funds girls are sidelined from school in favour of boys; a fact disputed by Toldson (2008) who argues that, boys are dropped from
school to start family life. In view of this, it was observed that existing literature proved in exhaustive since it did not reveal the real position of the pattern of dropout rate of the boys and girls in Vihiga County, Kenya. The current study attempted to fill the gap by providing data on the trend of girls and boys in public secondary schools in the area of study.

The reviewed literature tended to favour gender stereotypes (King 2007; Sifuna 2006). It overlooked the fact that for a society to develop, men and women had to work as partners. The effectiveness of third world countries’, development efforts and abilities are dependent on the full utilization of all human resources, which are men and women. Furthermore, findings from literature reveal that, leadership is dominated by men in the society (Jacobs, 2010; Koontz, 2010). This could be motivating boys to learn so that they can become future leaders to take after their male parents. The current study however, attempted to give the current situation as far as leadership was concerned in Vihiga County, Kenya. It attempted to study if women had the capacity to ascend to key positions of leadership, decision making and development in a patriarchal society. In brief, it sought to examine if the gender roles had changed in the county. In the literature, researchers report numerous reasons for student dropouts, for example Keegan (2011) and Johnson & Turner (2010) classified the dropout problems of students from public schools into four categories: political barriers, faculty barriers, organizational barriers, and course consideration. There
seems to be silence on student barriers particularly as regard to gender. This gap was one among others that this study attempted to fill.

Studies by Singo et al., (2013) and Sabala & Mkutu (2004) while looking at violent conflicts attributed them to poverty and politics in Africa. Muhammed (2010) and Porkhariyal et al., (2009) argued that, Kenya was a hub of peace until 2007 when we had the post-election violence. Most of the literature reviewed did not attempt to study the behavior pattern of students who dropped out of school in relation to crime. The current study has an edge because it studied the behavior of the boys and girls who dropped out of school in relation to crime.

The link between school dropout and crime that was established was majorly carried out by descriptive statistics (Gimode, 2011; Musambayi, 2004). Most of the studies in the literature review lacked statistical significance of dropout rates of students and crime. The current study filled the gap by providing the statistical significance of the variables. This was important because in an academic research, describing data as it appears by pie charts and percentages might not be adequate. There is need to correlate the variables.

Extensive research on violence in school settings or at least violence against educational institutions has been conducted (Gimode, 2011; Mugisha, 2006; Grogger, 1997; Irwin, 2004). In North America this has been prompted by a number of isolated high-profile shootings at schools and universities leading to the death of students or teachers. Others would deny that school violence is as rampant as is
reported in literature, and claim that the heightened sense of school insecurity is a result of media panic that magnifies isolated incidences of violence within schools (Thompkins, 2010). In most sub-Saharan African countries violence in schools has been studied at the state level, especially where the state uses its repressive mechanisms to quell student riots and put student leaders in prison under torture (O’Malley, 2007); other studies have focused on sexual abuse in schools (Leach & Humphrey 2007; Mirembe & Davies, 2010). There existed a gap on violence by students who had dropped out of school. This study sought to focus on violence among students that had dropped out of school. The researcher therefore looked at the conceptual frame work that would guide the study.

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The current study adopted two theories which were Labeling Theory and Conflict Theory. In sociology, labeling theory is the view of deviance according to which being labeled as a "deviant" leads a person to engage in deviant behavior (Sumner, 1994). According to Memmi (1968), the proponents of the theory were George Hebart Mead (1934), Becker Howard (1963) and Edwin Lemert (1951). Originating in Howard Becker’s work in the 1960s, labeling theory explains why people’s behavior clashes with social norms (Lemert, 1951). For example, a teenager who lives in an urban area frequented by gangs might be labeled as a gang member. Accordingly, the teenager might begin to behave like a gang member or become one (O’Grady, 2011). Labeling theory had its origins in Suicide, a book by French sociologist Émile
Durkheim (Mead, 1934). He found that crime is not so much a violation of a penal code as it is an act that outrages society. He was the first to suggest that deviant labeling satisfies that function and satisfies society's need to control the behavior.

Labeling theory is a vibrant area of research and theoretical development within the field of criminology. Originating in the mid- to late-1960s in the United States at a moment of tremendous political and cultural conflict, labeling theorists brought to center stage the role of government agencies, and social processes in general, in the creation of deviance and crime (Macionis & Gerber, 2010; Macionis & Linda, 2011). Cullen (1984) argues that, the theory represented both a theoretical and methodological break from the past, and it could reasonably be argued that it was one of the dominant theoretical perspectives in the study of crime and deviance from the late 1960s until the early 1980s.

Labeling theory is based on the idea that behaviors are deviant only when society labels them as deviant (Becker, H. 1963; Tannenbaum, 1938). As such, conforming members of society, who interpret certain behaviors as deviant and then attach this label to individuals, determine the distinction between deviance and non-deviance. Labeling theory questions who applies what label to whom, why they do this, and what happens as a result of this labeling. Powerful individuals within society like politicians, religious groups, judges and police officers typically impose the most significant labels. Labeled persons may include drug addicts, alcoholics, criminals,
delinquents, prostitutes, sex offenders, and psychiatric patients, to mention a few (Memmi, 1965; Macionis, 2012).

Conflict Theory was authored by (Collins, 1982). He says that the social order is based on cohesion and exploitation. Sociologist, Shleicher (2007) who is a conflict theorist argues that, to function most effectively, the family requires adults who specialize in particular roles. He views the traditional gender roles as arising out of the need to establish a division of labour between marital partners. Vartanian & Gleason (2010) contend that, women take the expressive, emotionally supportive role and men the instrumental, practical role, with two complementing each other. According to this theory, women become anchored in family as wives, mothers and household managers; men become anchored in the occupational world outside the home (Max & Engels, 1948). The weakness with this frame work is that it was only relevant in the 1950s when more women were full time home makers than is the case.

Conflict Theory assumes that social behavior is best understood in terms of conflict or tension between competing groups. Such conflict need not be violent; it can take a form of labour negotiations, party politics, and competition between religious groups for new members or competition between genders for the scarce resources.

Conflict Theorists, then, see gender differences as a reflection of the subjugation of one group (women) by another group (men) (Durkheim, 2005). If we can use an analogy to Marx’s analysis of class conflict, we can say that males are like the
bourgeoisie, or capitalists; they control most of the society’s wealth, prestige, and power. Females are like the proletariat, or workers; they can acquire valuable resources only by following the dictates of their bosses. Men’s work is uniformly valued; women’s work whether unpaid labour in the home or wage labour is devalued (Santrock, 2008; Bandura, 1997).

These theories have been adopted majorly by studies that involve variables that have causal effect and one of the variables seem to be deprived of the resources. Studies such as by Ngware et al. (2006), Kratl (2001) and Maharaj et al., (2000) have adopted Social Conflict Theory and Labeling Theory respectively to assess school dropouts in relation to crime escalation.

The Labeling Theory helped the researcher to identify the activities that the society labeled as deviant. The study identified what deviant activities basing on recommendations by what the religious groups, chiefs, police officers and judges typically imposed the most significant labels. Labeled persons included dropouts who abused alcohol and drugs, thieves, those who fought in public, sex offenders, robbers, murderers and those who broke traffic laws.

Conflict Theory helped the researcher to identify factors that emanated from the social cultural arrangement of the society which influenced students to drop out of school. They included sex discrimination, gender stereotypes and social economy.

A summary is seen in the conceptual model in figure 2.1 that follows overleaf:
INDEPENDENT VARIABLE 

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

VARIABLE

**School Dropout Rate**
- Pattern of dropout rate of students

**Crime Escalation**
- Alcohol & Drug Abuse
- Stealing
- Assault
- Defilement
- Robbery with Violence

**Factors influencing school dropout**
- Gender stereotype
- Sex Discrimination
- Social-Economic Factors
- Social- Cultural Factors

**Family Support**
- Spiritual support
- Youth Polytechnics

**INTERVENING VARIABLE**

*Figure 2.1. Conceptual Model of the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropouts and Crime Escalation.*

*Source: Author (2014).*

### 2.9 Summary

This Literature Review is composed of two sections: a review of crime escalation and a review of dropout rate of students in secondary school. The review of literature shaded light on the reality of increasing rate of crime in relation to increasing dropout.
rates of secondary school students. It pointed to the fact that there was variety of types of many criminal activities committed by dropouts. Key issues from these two broad areas of research were therefore, combined to explore the characteristics of the behaviour pattern of students who dropped out of school in relation to crime escalation.

This review of the literature on student dropouts was based social-factors factors. Girls reported that they dropped out to support families twice as often as boys did. Girls were nearly twice as likely as boys to give marriage or pregnancy as a reason for dropping out. However, among both middle and high school students, girls were more likely to drop out than boys when risk factors were included in the model. This drove the study to find out if the students who dropped from school participated in criminal activities. This led to the interrogation of the methodological underpinnings for the study that were discussed in the chapter overleaf.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter describes the following: study area, research design, study population, sample design and sampling procedures, research instruments, instruments for validity and reliability, collection procedure and data analysis techniques, limitations of the study, ethical considerations and summary.

3.1 Study Area

The current study was carried out in Vihiga County. The equator cuts across the southern tip of the county. The county is located between 1° 15” North and 30° 03” North latitude. To the West, it extends to 33° 15” West longitudes and to the East 35° 12” East longitude. The county covers an area of 530.9 Km² bordering Kakamega County to the North, Kisumu County to the South, Nandi County to the East and Siaya County to the West. The county has 2 National Schools which are Bunyore Girls and Chavakali High School. It has five constituencies, namely, Emuhaya, Hamisi, Sabatia, Luanda and Vihiga which oversee the allocation and disbursement of Funds to help needy students pay their fees (IEBC Report, 2013).

It has five local authorities, namely, Vihiga Municipal Council, Mbale County Council, Hamisi County Council, Sabatia County Council and Luanda County Council. Secondary schools are widely spread in the County as shown in Figure 3.1 overleaf.
Figure 3.1: Map of Vihiga County Showing Secondary Schools
SOURCE: Author (2014)
The county had an annual average rainfall of between 1,800mm and 2,000 mm with an average temperature of 24. It had a total population of 555,000 people that consisted of 47% males and 53% females according to the national census carried out in 2009. The population density was 1,045 people per Km. with a national percentage of 1.44%. Her annual growth rate was 3.3% with an age distribution of 0-14 years (44.2%), 15-64 years (49.4%), 65+ years (6.1%) (KFSSG, 2010). The number of youth (aged 15 to 25) in the county were 116,959.

The poverty level of the county was 62% with an Age Dependency Ratio of 100:102. The resources in the county included a forest, sand, rivers and stone quarry. Her tourist attraction was the “Hill of Vision.” The main economic activities included farming of the following crops: tea, maize, millet and cassava. Dairy farming was practiced too. The crops were consumed locally and some, like tea, were processed in local industries within the county (GOK, 2007).

The county had 412 public primary schools and 112 public secondary schools. See appendix one for the list of public secondary schools. The secondary school enrolment was 136,082 with a teacher to pupil ratio of 1:31 in public schools. It had more than 10 tertiary colleges (VCDE’s Report on Staff Establishment, 2013). It had 17 girls’ schools, 10 boys’ schools and 85 mixed schools.

The area of study was chosen because of the increased dropout rate of students and escalating criminal activities between 2009 and 2012 (V.C.D.E’s Report on
Examination, 2012: Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012). The completion rate for girls was 53% and for boys was 47% in K.C.S.E, 2011 unlike in 2008 when it was 39% for girls while 42% for boys, in 2009 it was 47% for girls and 45% for boys and in 2010 it was 50% for girls and 46% for boys (KNEC Analysis Report, 2012).

Table 3.1 below gives a summary of distribution of Completion Rates.

Table 3.1: Distribution of Secondary School Students’ Completion Rates in Vihiga County, Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Completion rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** KNEC Analysis Report (2012)

The distribution of secondary school dropout rate was 65% for boys and 61% for girls in 2008, 70% for boys against 66% for girls in 2009, 65% for boys against 56% for girls in 2010, 63% for boys against 58% for girls in 2011 and 69% for boys and 60% for girls in 2012 as shown in Table 3.2 overleaf.
Table 3.2: Distribution of Secondary School Students’ Dropout Rates in Vihiga County, Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** County Director of Education (2012)

From Table 3.2 above, the dropout rate of students was high hence justifying the current study to assess the factors that are contributing to the high dropout rate. Secondary school dropouts committed crime that included, stealing, robbery with violence, traffic offences, assault, defilement, alcohol and drug abuse in the period between 2006 and 2012 (Vihiga County Security Report, 2012). The crime was committed by 42% boys and 19% girls in 2006, 67% boys and 33% in 2007, 96.6% boys and 52% girls in 2008, 74% boys and 41% in 2009, 69% boys and 43% girls in 2010, 78% boys and 46% girls in 2011 and 82% boys and 46% in 2012, as shown in Table 3.3 overleaf.
Table 3.3: Distribution of Crime Rates by secondary school dropouts in Vihiga County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Crime rate in (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>96.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>508.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE**: Vihiga County Security Report (2012)

From Table 3.3 above, it is evident that both boys and girls participated in criminal activities but the percentage of boys was higher than girls. However, the crime rate by the dropouts was high on the overall hence necessitating the current study.

3. 2 Research Design

Okoth (2012) and Clark (1995) define research design as the means to collect data in order to answer questions concerning current status of the subject in the study. The study adopted correlation survey design. The research design tests for statistical

The researcher begins with the idea that there might be a relationship between two variables (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Butcher, 1994; Gay, 1981; Ackoff, 1961; Fisher, 1960). The researcher then measures both variables for each of a large number of cases and checks to see if they are in fact related. The design of the study provides information concerning the degree and direction of the relationship between the variables that are studied (Huberty, 2012; Frankel & Wallen, 2010; Bordens & Abbott, 2005).

The research design was employed to enable the researcher test for statistical relationships between dropout rate of students and crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya. The relationship between nature of criminal activities and dropouts was tested by T-test and descriptive statistics. The relationship between factors influencing dropout rate of students and crime escalation was tested by T-test, ANOVA and descriptive statistics. The relationship between dropout rate and crime escalation was tested by Pearson Correlation.

3.3 Study Population

Study Population refers to an entire group of individuals, events or objects having common observable characteristics from which a sample which is a smaller group is obtained. (Mugenda, 2003; Ahuja, 2001; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). It defines the
universe of the study. The study focused on Secondary Schools, Police Stations, Hospitals, Children Offices, Probation Offices and Provincial Administration Offices. The target population was 112 Principals, 112 Deputy Principals, 12,037 Class teachers, 5 District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers, 112 PTA Chairpersons, 16,704 Students in school. The dropouts were 1820 from Luanda, 1240 from Emuhaya, 997 from Hamisi, 941 from Vihiga and 570 from Sabatia. The total dropouts in the county were therefore, 5,568 (Director of Education, Vihiga County, 2012). The researcher got from the office of the Vihiga County Director a list of 64 Chiefs equivalent to the number of locations in the county, 5 District Public Health Officers and 5 Probation Officers, each representing a sub county, 5 Officers Commanding Police Divisions and 5 Divisional Criminal Investigating Officers were taken each representing a Police Division. Every Location had an office of 5 Cultural Keepers and therefore 64 locations had 320 Cultural Keepers. The target population for the study was therefore 35,055 which got by adding together all the target groups.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedure
A sample is a small part of a statistical part of population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole population (Bowley, 1989; Gay, 1981; Miller, 1979). Sampling is the process of obtaining information about an entire population by examining only part of it (Mugenda, 2003; Myers, 1997). Maxwell (1961) argues that, the more the sampling techniques are used the better the results. However, the sampling technique is determined by the type of information that is
sought (Kothari, 2004; Delamont, 2003; Mugenda, 2003). To select the sample for
the study, simple random sampling and simple random sampling, stratified random
sampling and purposive sampling techniques were used.

The study targeted 112 secondary schools in the county because it was reported that
they all registered high dropout rate between 2009 and 2012, (VCDE, 2012). Schools
were grouped into three strata which were 10 boys’ schools, 14 girls’ schools and 89
mixed schools. The researcher selected 10 boys’ schools and 13 girls’ schools by
purposive sampling since they were few and they had the needed information
(Dooley, 2001; Koul, 1992). 26 mixed schools were selected by taking 30 % of the
schools. This was because Kothari (2004) says that, 30% of a population that is big is
considered a good representative of the population.

Simple Random Sampling was used to select Principals, Deputy Principals, and
Students in school, Class Teachers, PTA Chairpersons, Cultural Keepers and Chiefs.
This sampling technique was considered appropriate based on Dooley (2001), who
says that, a study which probes deeply into the characteristics of a small sample, will
often provide more knowledge than a study which looks at the same problem by
collecting shallow information from a large sample. The simple random sampling
was used to give each respondent an equal chance to respond and be involved (Okoth,
2012; Tondon, 1979). Table of Random Numbers was used to select the respondents.
Purposive sampling was used to select the District Public Health Officers, District Probation Officers, Divisional Criminal Investigating Officers, Officers Commanding Police Stations and District Quality Assurance Officers. Purposive sampling allowed the researcher to subjectively use only those elements in the population that were considered to have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999; Gosh, 1971; Myers, 1997). Israel (n.d)’s formula was used for determining the sample size of students still in school and class teachers (Israel, 1992). The formula was used because it is suitable for a larger population that is more than 10,000.

Israel (n.d)’s formula of determining sample size is as follows:

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

Where,

\( n = \) sample size, \( N = \) population size, \( e = \) the level of precision

This formula was considered appropriate based on the view of Israel (n.d), that the formula could be used to determine a sample size for a larger population of over 10,000.

Students who dropped out of school were selected because they were the target group and they were hoped to provide the correct information that made them drop from school. The sample size was got as per the Sub County using 30 % of each population by simple random sampling technique. This is in regard to Rajaraman (1985) and
Fiebleman (1972) who say that, 30% is suitable for it reduces sampling error. Therefore, the sample sizes were, 546 which was 30% of 1820, in Luanda, in Emuhaya, 372 which was 30% of 1240, in Hamisi, 299 which was 30% of 997, in Vihiga, 282 which was 30% of 941 and in Sabatia 171 which was 30% of 570. The total sample size for school dropouts was therefore 1,670.

Students still in school were hoped to provide the data that minimized the bias of the school dropouts. It was assumed that some school dropouts might have understated or overstated the reasons why they dropped from school and others decided to blame shift.

Israel (n.d)’s formula of determining sample size as follows:

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

Where,

\[
n = \text{sample size, } N = \text{population size, } e = \text{the level of precision}
\]

The sample size for Students in school was therefore;

\[
n = \frac{125,647}{1 + 125,647(0.05)^2} = \frac{125,647}{315.1175} = 391 \text{ Student in school respondents}
\]

Class teachers were hoped to give information on how boarding facilities affected the study habits of students in the classroom because they were close to them.

Israel (n.d)’s formula of determining sample size as follows:

\[
n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}
\]
Where,

\[ n = \text{sample size}, \quad N = \text{population size}, \quad e = \text{the level of precision} \]

For Class Teachers; \( n = \frac{12.037}{1 + 12.037(0.05)^2} = \frac{12.037}{31.0925} = 387 \) Class teacher respondents

School principals were selected because they are the Chief Executive Officers of schools and therefore overall in charge of the day to day administration of the schools. They are therefore in charge of curriculum implementation and custodian of students’ records and teachers’ records in schools. Deputy Principals were selected because they are in charge of discipline in schools. PTA chairpersons were selected with hope that they would provide information about how parents influenced dropout rates of students in secondary schools.

This is because they provided a link between the parents and School Management Boards. Cultural keepers were selected to provide information on social-cultural obligations of males and females from which the research was to deduce their implication on dropout rate of students. Chiefs provided crime rate of school dropouts’ information in the village that could not be reported to the police.

According to Kothari (2004) and Kelingher (1983), 30% of a population that big is considered a good representative of a small number. In the current study therefore, 30% of 112 principals was 34, 30% of 112 of deputy principals was 34, 30% of 112
PTA Chairpersons was 34, 30% of 64 Chiefs was 19 and 30 % of 320 Cultural Keepers was 96.

District Public Health Officers were selected because it was hoped that they would provide information on influence of nature of school infrastructure on students’ dropout rate as they are charged with the responsibility of ensuring that the school has sufficient classrooms, dormitories and toilets. District Quality Assurance Officers were selected because they deal with inspection of schools and therefore it was hoped that they would give information on school factors that influenced the dropout rate of students from schools. District Probation officers were selected because they were the custodians of criminal records of teenagers who were preferred charges in the courts. The police gave criminal data of school dropouts of those students who were reported in police stations and preferred charges. Since they were few, 100% of the target group was selected (Okoth, 2012). Therefore, 100% of 5 District Quality Assurance Officers was 5, 100% of 5 District Public Officers was 5, 100% of 5 District probation Officers was 5,100% of 5 Divisional Criminal Investing Officers was 5, 100 % of 5 Officers Commanding Police Stations was 5 and 100% of District Quality Assurance Officers was 5.

The summary of the sample sizes and sampling techniques is shown in Table 3.4 that follows overleaf:
Table 3.4: Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Sampling Technique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Principals</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Deputy Principals</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Class Teachers</td>
<td>12,037</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>School dropouts</td>
<td>5568</td>
<td>1670</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Students in school</td>
<td>16,704</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>District Quality Assurance Officers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>PTA chairman</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Cultural Keepers</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>District Public Health Officers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>District Probation officers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Chiefs</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Simple Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>DCIO</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>OCPD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Vihiga County, Police Commissioner</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Purposive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>35,055</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,687</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2014)

### 3.5 Instruments of Data Collection

Instrumentation involves the tools used in the study to find out the required information. Researchers prefer using methods that provide high accuracy, generalizability and explanatory power, with low cost, rapid speed and maximum management demands and administrative convenience (Warwick & Lininger, 1975). Okoth (2012) and Fiebleman (1972) argue that, no single method of obtaining data is perfect. Basing on this fact, a combination of the following research instruments were used in the current study for complementary purposes: questionnaires, interview schedule and document analysis.
3.5.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were preferred because they were appropriate tools by which many respondents could be reached and facilitate easy and quick derivation of information within a short time (Borg et al. 2010; Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Sarantakos, 1998). The questionnaires were preferred because they allowed the researcher to get information from a large number of target group spread within a large geographical area in a short time. They were also relevant in collecting confidential information from the respondent since their names were not indicated in the questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered to the Principals, Deputy Principals, School Dropouts, and Students who were still in school and PTA Chairmen. The researcher used semi structured questionnaires to search for information about factors that influenced Dropout Rate of Students in Public Secondary Schools in relation to crime escalation. Part A included demographic data such as age, sex and academic qualifications while other parts included the responses of the specific target group in relation to the Research Questions.

3.5.2 Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was prepared and used to collect qualitative in-depth data from the field (Bordens & Abbott, 2005; Sharma & Mukherji, 1983). The interview schedules provide the researcher with greater opportunity to explain the purpose of the study (O’Sullivan & Rassel, 1999). Clark (1995) says that, interview schedules clarify what is in the questionnaires, a fact that was realized in the current study.
They were also found useful because they explored the needs, desire and feelings of the respondents (Kothari, 2004; Okoth, 2012).

This instrument was used to obtain data from Probation Officers, Public Health Officers, chiefs, District Quality Assurance Officers, Cultural Keepers, Divisional Criminal Investigating Officers, Officers Commanding Police Divisions and Probation Officers. The items in the interview schedule sought information on factors influencing dropout rates of students in public secondary schools and crime escalation. In the development of the interview schedule, the fixed-choice and open-ended formats of items were used to avoid limiting the respondents’ response and to facilitate guidance and probing for further clarification. The questions were designed on the basis of the objectives of the study, the research questions and conceptual model.

3.5.3 Document Analysis Schedule

Document analysis is a critical examination of recorded information related to the issue under study. It is used to obtain unobtrusive data at the pleasure of the researcher (Best & James, 2002; Fisher, 1960). School admission books, class registers and monthly returns from the Deputy Principals were examined with a view to finding out information on dropout rate by sex from 2005 to 2012. The data were used to determine the nature and pattern of student dropout rate from public secondary schools from 2005 to 2012.
3.6 Pilot Study

Delamont (2003) observes that, it is highly desirable to run a pilot test on a questionnaire and to revise it based on the results of the test. Piloting was done to establish whether the instruments could be used to collect relevant data, identify any problems likely to occur at the time of actual data collection process and to also check whether the instructions in the questionnaires were understandable to the respondents. The study used 3 schools for piloting which were 10% of the sampled schools. This is in line with Ahuja (2001) who says that, 10% of the subjects of study can give an adequate representation of the study.

The schools selected for pilot study were not considered for the main list. The responses from the pilot study were discussed with the supervisors to ensure that dropout rates and crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya were adequately captured by the instruments. The results were used to test the validity and reliability of the research tools and also to determine field experiences. The researcher therefore sought first to establish the validity of the study.

3.6.1 Validity of the Instruments

Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure for a particular purpose and a particular group (Okoth, 2012). It also refers to the degree to which a test appears to cover the relevant content it purports to (Fisher, 1958). Validity also assesses the extent to which something that is being measured is the intended construct, content or criterion (Dooley, 2001). In addition, it focuses on
the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of inferences that the researchers make based on the data they collect. According to Ackoff (1961), face validity is the commonly used way of estimating validity of data. It refers to the degree to which a test appears to cover the relevant content it purports to (Denis, 1960). The researcher developed the instruments based on objectives of the study and submitted to the supervisors who ensured that all the themes in the research objectives were covered. They also checked on the research questions, research design and methodology in order to determine the face and content validity and their views were used to improve the instruments. Having established the validity of the study, the researcher sought to establish the reliability of the study.

3.6.2 Reliability of the instruments

According to Kothari (2004), reliability refers to the degree to which an instrument consistently measures what it is meant to measure. Reliability assesses the extent to which a measure reflects some consistent aspect of people or events and not random error (Dooley, 2001).

The above instruments were piloted to determine their validity and reliability. Test-retest technique was applied to ascertain the reliability of the instruments whereby the instruments were administered at a two week interval. The responses were scored to obtain a set of scores (T1).
After 14 days, the instruments were administered to obtain another set of scores (T2). Scores were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation.

The method used was as shown below:

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{\sum X \sum Y}{\sqrt{(\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2) (\sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2)}} \]

Pearson’s \( r \) is an internal measure of relationship that reflects the proportional reduction of error when one shifts from the mean as the prediction rule to the linear regression equation. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was adopted for the study because it is a measure of correlation that shows the type and strength of the relationship between two variables under study (Mugende & Mugenda, 1999). Here the aim was to determine the relationship between the two test scores for each individual on two different occasions.

A correlation was established between the scores on the items. The Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient (\( r \)) was used to determine the coefficient of internal consistency of the test items in the test. The Pearson's (\( r \)) coefficients obtained were 0.833, for principals and 0.878, for students’ questionnaires. This was regarded as reasonable reliability index for the research instruments, since the values were above the minimum \( r \)-value which Koul (1992) pegs at 0.5. Sarantakos (1998) observes that, a high reliability value (0.70 or higher) shows that, the characteristic it was designed to measure (p.210) is actually measured. These results were considered to be high.
enough to be accepted as reliable internal measure of consistency of the questionnaire (Kerlinger, 1983).

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher submitted the research proposal to the School of Graduate Studies at MMUST for approval. This helped him get a letter of introduction to the National Council for Science and Technology in Nairobi, Kenya to which gave him a license to conduct the study in Vihiga County, Kenya. He used the license to seek authorization by the Vihiga County Commissioner. The commissioner gave permission the researcher to conduct the Vihiga County Director of Education and the Officer Commanding Police Division, Vihiga who gave him letters of introduction to visit schools, education offices, police stations, hospitals, chief camps, probation offices, and interview members of public. The researcher then went to the institutions sampled for the study for reconnaissance, to select the respondents for the study and to introduce the respondents to the topic of the study. Data collection was personally carried out by the researcher. Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and instructions read to them on how to respond to the various items within the instrument. Interviews were conducted by the researcher to get in depth information and understanding of the issues surrounding the secondary school students’ dropout rate and crime escalation. Admission Records and Crime Reports were analyzed based on the following: Secondary School Students’ Dropout Rate and Crime
Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya. Information obtained was recorded and analyzed accordingly.

3.8 Data Analysis
This covers the analysis of data collected. It involved both descriptive and inferential statistics. This is because the research instruments yielded both quantitative and qualitative data. Data obtained from the interviews and questionnaires from the field were sorted, edited, coded, classified and tabulated for analysis. Quantitative data were transcribed, put into various categories and thereafter reported according to emergent themes and sub themes. Qualitative data from the interview were tape recorded transcribed, analyzed and reported in form of text and verbatim. To facilitate the analysis, the raw data from the tests on the variables were summarized in tables and coded before they were entered into the computer for analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Computer Package Version 11.5. Descriptive statistics was used for objectives one and two whereas inferential statistics was used for objective three.

Objective one sought to discuss the nature of criminal activities by secondary school dropouts in Vihiga County, Kenya. Descriptive statistics such as pie-charts and frequency tables were applied in the presentation of findings by use of SPSS Computer Package Version 11.5. The researcher carried out also a t-test to establish whether the difference in the dropout rates of boys and that of the girls in the county was statistically significant. The second objective sought to assess the factors
influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County Kenya. Descriptive statistics such as pie-charts and frequency tables which were applied in the presentation by use of SPSS Computer Packages Version 11.5 was employed. Analysis of Variance was done at a level of significance (α) of 0.05 to compare means of responses given by the principals, class teachers and students on factors influencing Dropout Rate among Secondary School Students. Objective three sought to examine the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation among secondary school students. Inferential statistics like Pearson Correlation was used to examine the relationship between dropout rate and crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya. Data analysis and methods of presentation are summarized in Table 3.5 that follows:
Table 3.5: Data Analysis and Methods of Presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Specific Objective</th>
<th>Research Design</th>
<th>Measurable Variables/Indicators</th>
<th>Analysis Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>To assess the factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya</td>
<td>Correlational Survey</td>
<td>Independent: Factors influencing dropout rate of students Dependent: Crime Escalation</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics for example percentages and means.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Examine the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation among secondary school students.</td>
<td>Correlational Survey</td>
<td>Independent: Dropout rate of students Dependent: Crime Escalation</td>
<td>Inferential Statistics for example Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: (Field Data (2012))

3.9 Limitations of the study

As with any study that is conducted, there are, to some degree, limitations or aspects that are beyond the scope of a study, and this study was no different in that regard. It is important to point out that, even though the study had limitations, these limitations do not disqualify it from being a valid study because the researcher looked for ways of overcoming them.

Limitations of this study were highlighted along with suggestions of how the researcher attempted to overcome them. Some respondents feared to give some information for fear of leakage that would lead to victimization. This was overcome
by the researcher informing them that the information was for the purpose of research only. They were also neither allowed to write their names nor the names of their schools in the questionnaires. It might not have been easy to carry out the research in the whole country. It was hopped that Vihiga County would be representative enough for the country.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

The goal of ethics is to ensure that no one is harmed from research activities (O’Sullivan & Rassel, 1999). The study took note of ethical issues that are important in research. The major ethical issues of concern were informed consent from the participants so as to remove job insecurity, privacy and confidentiality on information supplied, anonymity to safeguard the identity of the respondents and the researchers’ sensitivity to human dignity (Bell, 2011). The research confidentiality was assured to all the respondents and all participants were informed to voluntarily participate in the research by filling an Informed Consent Form.

The researcher was sensitive to the needs of the respondents and accepted individual responsibility for conduct and any consequence of the research. The researcher therefore could not directly study the variable of interest (alcohol and drug abuse, stealing, robbery with violence, defilement and others). Instead, he used proxy measures. Dropouts were requested to read and respond to stories about the alcohol and drug abuse, stealing, defilement, affray, assault, murder and robbery with
violence. Some dropouts were requested to give crime information on criminal activities of other dropouts whom they knew.

The respondents were requested to be open and honest when dealing with the questions. The identity of the respondent was kept out of this documentation and data availed were used for the purpose of this study. Respondents were also encouraged to contact the researcher if further information was required. The study was carried out with the consent of the relevant authorities.

3.11 Summary

This study was designed to help shed more light on the topic of which variables have the greatest impact on high-school dropout rates and crime escalation, a topic that has been investigated and researched but remains one of the most challenging issues facing school systems today. As Kenya becomes part of a more global society, it is more imperative now than ever before, to make sure that students have the tools necessary to compete in the workforce of the 21st century peacefully. Therefore, schools, parents, community members, administrators, school system personnel, and local state and security agencies will have to join forces in a collaborative manner if they ever hope to improve the graduation rate by lowering the dropout rate which will hopefully reduce crime rate.

By acquiring the ability to use specific variables to predict dropout rates and crime escalation, legislators, security agencies and school system personnel can predict school dropout rates and crime escalation in order to prioritize the allocation of
resources and the focus of intervention efforts. Furthermore, by developing a better understanding of which variables have the greatest impact on current dropout rates and crime, schools and security agencies will have the requisite information necessary to prioritize intervention efforts and, ultimately, combat this most perplexing issue.

The research design was considered adequate for the study for purposes of discussing nature of secondary school students’ dropout rate and crime escalation in Vihiga County. It was envisaged it would help assess factors affecting dropout rate of students from public secondary schools in relation to crime. It also facilitated to examine the correlation between dropout rate of students and crime in the county. Notwithstanding the challenges faced during the research, all the procedures of document design, piloting, data analysis and interpretation were subjected to administrative and ethical considerations by the university and the Republic of Kenya. The findings and interpretations of the data collected are thus presented in chapter Four, Five and six commensurate with this study’s specific objectives. This commences with the presentation of results and discussions in Chapter Four that follows.
CHAPTER FOUR

NATURE OF CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES COMMITTED BY SECONDARY SCHOOL DROPOUTS

This chapter addressed the findings for objective one which was to discuss the nature of criminal activities committed by secondary school dropouts. The subtopics were: Nature of crimes committed by the dropouts, Pattern of Crime committed by Dropouts, Crime Rates committed by Dropouts, Crime Incidences committed by Dropouts, Nature of Dropout Rate of students in secondary schools, Crime and Dropout rate, and Summary.

4.1 Nature of crimes committed by the dropouts

The researcher asked the Vihiga County, Police Commissioner to name various crimes that were commonly committed by the general public and dropouts. Basing on his records the findings were as indicated in Table 4.1 that follows overleaf:
Table 4.1: Types of Criminal Activities committed between 2007 – 2012 in Vihiga County by the Vihiga County Police Commandant (n=1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Crime</th>
<th>crimes Committed by all criminals</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Crimes committed by Drop outs</th>
<th>Percentage%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol and Drug abuse</td>
<td>1512</td>
<td>27.15</td>
<td>841</td>
<td>55.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stealing</td>
<td>1851</td>
<td>33.24</td>
<td>1014</td>
<td>54.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>15.32</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>51.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affray</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>10.13</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>51.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defilement</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>29.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery with violence</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>50.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>63.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,569</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,865</strong></td>
<td><strong>51.45</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Field Data (2012)

From Table 4.1 above, a total of 5,569 cases of crime were reported, out of which 2,865 crimes were committed by the school drop outs. That constituted 2865(51.45%) of the total criminal activities that were reported. The criminal activities committed were, alcohol and drug abuse 1512(27.15%), stealing 1851(33.24%), assault 853(15.32%), affray 564(10.13%), defilement 454(8.15%), robbery with violence 175(3.14%), murder 127(2.28%) and others 33 (0.59%). Out of those criminal activities, those committed by dropouts were as follows: alcohol and drug abuse 841(55.62%), stealing 1014(54.78%), assault 435(51.00%), affray 288(51.06%),
defilement 132 (29.08%), robbery with violence 89(50.86%), murder 45(35.43%) and others 21(63.64%).

The criminal activities committed by the dropouts were high 2,865(51.45%). This was a high number since it was more than half the population. The rate is considered to be high because Kenya Police Department in Statistical Abstract (2013) elucidates that crime type committed by one group of persons that rate above 40% is considered to be high and should not be ignored. Uganda also recorded a high crime rate more than 40% between 2008 and 2010 (Kemple, 2011). There seems to be a similarity in crime rate between Vihiga and Uganda they are from the same region. This is supported by Jothie (2012) who says that, communities from one region that tend to influence one another while committing crimes. This is contrary to Sutherland (2013) who says that, it does not necessarily mean that if a country in a particular region is engaging in crimes, other countries in that region are engaging in crime. Jothie (2012) and Sutherland (2013) seem to differ because their studies were in different environments and at different times.

Edwards (2012) in support of high prevalence of crime rate by dropouts argues that, they do so because of their low level of education. The current study argues that a person who has completed secondary school may not engage in as much criminal activities as compared to the one who dropped from school because he has the power to be rational. This is supported by Headden (2009) who says that, an educated person is
able to think logically about the perplexing issues of life and make an informed decision.

The findings further reveal that, out of 1512 of all criminals that abused alcohol and drugs, 841(55.62%) were dropouts. Similarly, out of the 37 people who died in Eastern Province due to using illicit brews, 24 were secondary school dropouts (Kamau, 2014). This was similar to the study in South Africa by Leach & Humphrey (2007) which reveals that, 75% of dropouts abused alcohol & drugs.

The similarity might have arisen because it involves Africans. This implies that the problem of alcohol and drug abuse by dropouts is common in Africa. The dropouts might have started abusing alcohol and drugs while still in school and perhaps they found it difficult to stop the behaviour even after dropping from school. This is in line with Kramarae (2009) who argues that, students who are expelled from school tend to perpetuate the behaviour that they were expelled for into the community.

Criminals who committed theft offences rated 1851 from which 1041(54.78%) were dropouts. Stealing is a crime according to the Penal Code of the Laws of Kenya, Chapter XXVI (268) (Laws of Kenya, 1970). It seems stealing was favoured by many dropouts. This can be supported by Maier (2009) in his study on theft by juvenile which says that, most dropouts (89.3%) preferred stealing to any other crime because one could not be easily identified. They might have also engaged in theft to get money to buy local brews. Fagot & leinbach (2008) supports this by saying that, most
youth who drink local brews steal household items to get money for buying the drinks because they are not employed.

The findings further indicate that out of the rate of 853 that committed assault, 435 (51.00%) was committed by the dropouts. Moreover, out of the 564 that committed affray, 288 (51.06%) was committed by dropouts. Affray is a felony of fighting in public in accordance with the Penal Code of the Laws of Kenya, Chapter IX (92) (Laws of Kenya, 1970). They might have engaged in such like crimes because they used drugs that increased their adrenaline. Okello (2011) supports that, people who use bhang fight occasionally because it arouses adrenaline which makes them to have a lot of energy which they divert into crime.

The findings indicate that out of 454 that committed defilement, 132 (29.08%) was committed by dropouts. The number seems to be low because perhaps some of the cases were not reported because of the nature of the offence. Mwaguri & Oculli (2012) say that, cases of defilement are not reported because defilement causes stigma. Estimates of sexual assault prevalence have been based on a variety of sources, including police reports, national random samples of crime victims, interviews with incarcerated rapists and interviews with victims who seek hospital treatment, general population surveys of women and surveys of male and female college students (Fagan & Najman, 2012). According to Fisher (1953), the most reliable estimates derive from studies using correlation surveys that is, measures
containing several questions describing behaviors which constitute sexual assault in
simple and relate to other causal factors like drug abuse.

From the findings, out of the 175 who committed robbery, 89 (50.86%) were
dropouts. In spite of the robbery incidences being few, the cases committed by
dropouts were high. Robbery cases might have been few because the penalty for such
like an offence is severe. This is supported by Mugisha (2006) who says that, robbery
cases are few in Kenya because people fear to be sentenced to death. Out of the few,
people who committed robbery, the majority were dropouts. This might be because of
the influence of illicit brews and use of drugs which many dropouts engaged into.

Some dropouts were reported of committing murder. Out of 127 who committed the
offence, 459 (35.43%) was committed by dropout. This is a small rate and it is similar
to the study by Paleri (2009) who says that, murder cases in Tanzania are few.
This was committed by few dropouts because people who commit murder are marked
and feared by the society. This is supported by the family members of one of the
terrorist suspect who claimed that they had been isolated by the entire society
(Maiyio, 2013).

Lastly, out of the 33 who committed other crimes, 21(63.64%) was committed by the
dropouts. This implies that many dropouts participated in other offences. Becroft
(2013) supports this by saying that, many dropouts engage in low profile offences
which can appear negligible because of their age as most of them are in adolescence
stage. Low profile offences are commonly committed by youth who abuse drugs at
times for fun (Singo, 2013). This supported by Hahn & Danzberger (2009) who argues that, drug addicts at times steal to amuse people.

The most prevalent crimes reported to the Police were therefore, alcohol and drug abuse 84(55.62%), stealing 1014(54.78%), assault 435(51.00%) and affray 288(51.06%). There seemed to be a link between dropouts who abused alcohol and drugs, and other offences like stealing, assault, defilement and other crimes.

Having looked at the nature of crimes as reported by the police, the researcher looked at the nature of criminal activities committed by the dropouts as reported by the Chiefs to cater for some of the offences that could not be reported to the police. The researcher therefore sought to establish the crime prevalence per sub-county using data got from the Chiefs and the findings were as indicated in Table 4.2 that follows overleaf:
Table 4.2: Crimes committed by Drop out per Sub-County as reported by the Chiefs (n=19)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Crime</th>
<th>Sub-Counties</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Luanda</td>
<td>Emuhaya</td>
<td>Hamisi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol and Drug abuse</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stealing</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assault</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fighting</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defilement</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery with violence</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murder</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>528</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Field Data (2012)

From Table 4.2 above, out of the 2,865 crimes committed by the school drop outs, 1049(35.39%) and 841(29.35%) of the crimes constituted alcohol and drug abuse and stealing respectively while a further 435(15.18%) and 21(10.05%) of the crimes comprised of assault and fighting respectively. At the same time, defilement and robbery with violence comprised of 132(4.61%) and 89(3.11%) respectively while murder and other crimes comprised of 45(1.57%) and 21(0.73%) respectively. The criminal rate for the sub counties were as follows: Luanda 735(25.65%), Emuhaya 650 (22.69%), Hamisi 528(18.43 %), Vihiga 513 (17.91%) and Sabatia 439(15.32%). The findings show that Luanda (303) and Emuhaya (261) had high prevalence of
alcohol and drug abuse. Hamisi (102), Vihiga (294) and Sabatia (104) had a lower prevalence of crime. The Geographical Location of Luanda and Emuhaya indicate that they were on the Eastern Block of the county. It is possible that since the dropouts were from one direction, they influenced one another. This can be supported by GoK Report (2009) which says that, people from the same locality tend to commit similar offences.

The Sub Counties recorded the high prevalence of alcohol and drug abuse 1041(35.39%). This could be linked to the topography of Lwanda, Hamisi and Emuhaya which provided a good hiding place for local people who trade in illicit brews and bhang. This can be supported by Gimode (2011) who says that, geographical factors have a bearing on the nature of crime that is committed by a society. Sabatia and Vihiga had valleys and tea plantations which made bhang to thrive unnoticed by the security agents.

Luanda and Emuhaya had the highest rate of criminal activities which were 735(25.65%) and 650(22.69%). This implies that a society that has high criminal rate of alcohol and drug abuse also has high rate of criminal activities. The link between crime and drug use is complex. Many persistent offenders frequently use fraud, corruption and theft to pay for their drug purchases (Seddon, 2013; Donnelly et al., 2012).
Psychoactive drugs have pharmacological properties that affect mood, cognition and therefore offending (Bratton, 2012). It has been suggested that use of drugs causes violent crime by affecting metabolism and electrophysiological activity in the brain (Amen et al., 2012). It has also been proved that prolonged drug use causes long-term changes in the areas of the brain that are linked to cognitive functions that may have an effect on criminal behaviour (Shepad & Blacley, 2012).

There is continuing debate over the effects of particular drugs on psychopharmacological violence, with cocaine as the most commonly cited suspect. Cannabis and intoxication are thought to have high association with crime, since withdrawal and related mental health problems may be linked to increased aggression in some cases (Boyum & Kleiman, 2012). Bhang use is thought to be linked more to property crime than to violence among its users while non-prescribed use of tranquillisers is rarely associated with crime, which may be due to a combination of their psychoactive effects and their low price (Baron, 2013).

Stealing was rated second 841 (29.35%) in all the Sub Counties. This could be because they stole to get money to buy the local brews and bhang since they were not in stable employment as they had dropped from school. It is often suggested that addicted users of illicit alcohol and drugs are compelled to commit crimes in order to get money to buy them (Brotherton, 2011). This economic-compulsive link was perhaps the most widely supposed link between alcohol and drugs, and crime.
There was a low rate of defilement 432(4.61%) in the county. Luanda and Umuhaya recorded the lowest rates of defilement which were 12 and 11. This could be attributed to abuse of alcohol and drugs. This can be supported by Brook et al. (2013) who alludes that, approximately 80% of all sexual assault victims reported that they were not alcoholic and drug addict. Perhaps too much alcohol and drug abuse lowers down libido in the victims. This can be supported by Brown (2011) whose findings indicate that, the spouses of males who abused alcohol and drug had secret extra marital affairs for sexual satisfaction.

Robbery with Violence and Murder had the lowest rating of 89(3.11%) and 45(1.57%). This could be attributed to the fact that these were cases reported to the police and not the chiefs. This is supported by Collins (2010) who says that, it is only a court that can hear cases involving high profile crimes like murder and robbery. However, the current study argues that since chiefs stay with these criminals, they should be involved in the judicial processes of murder trials.

The findings from the chiefs therefore reveal that there were prevalent criminal activities by dropouts in all the Sub Counties of Vihiga County. The total number of criminal activities was 735 in Luanda, 650 in Emuhaya, 528 in Hamisi, 513 in Vihiga and 439 in Sabatia. Luanda and Emuhaya had the highest incidences of crime. The most prevalent crimes committed by the dropouts in all the sub counties were alcohol and drug abuse 1014(35.395), stealing 841(29.35%) and Assault 435(15.18%). The findings also relate strongly abuse of alcohol and drugs with other crimes.
Having studied the nature of criminal activities committed by the dropouts as revealed by the police and the chiefs as the major security agents in the county, the researcher, looked at the nature of criminal activities by dropouts by asking them to give information about criminal activities. This was hoped to give information that the security agents could not give.

The study therefore sought to establish the prevalence of the types of crime that the drop outs had committed.

To do this, the drop outs were asked to either Strongly agree (5), Agree (4), Neutral (3), Disagree (2) or Strongly agree (1) that the drop outs in Vihiga county had committed. Thereafter, the crimes prevalence was measured using the scale that is shown in Table 4.3 overleaf:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Crime</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Mean Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol and Drug abuse</td>
<td>201 98 70 10 5</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stealing</td>
<td>182 84 82 21 15</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fighting</td>
<td>102 75 94 79 34</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defilement</td>
<td>95 67 105 90 27</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbery with violence</td>
<td>69 55 125 106 29</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>52 54 142 100 36</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data
From Table 4.3 above, alcohol and drug abuse had a mean rating of 4.25, stealing had a mean rating of 4.03, fighting had a mean rating of 3.34, defilement had a mean rating of 3.29 while robbery with violence had a mean rating of 3.08 and other crimes had a mean rating of 2.96. The findings indicate that alcohol and drug abuse had the highest mean rating of 4.25. These crimes included Drunkenness of illegal brews and use of bhang. Consumption of illegal brews and abuse of drugs is a crime in Kenya. This is supported by the Penal Code of the Laws of Kenya, Section 6, Laws of Kenya (1970) which prohibits drinking or brewing of local brews and use of intoxicating drugs. Other crimes in this class of alcohol and drug abuse crime included taking beer which is lawful and subsequently engaging in criminal activities.

Alcohol and drug abuse was the major crime committed by the dropouts and it led to other crimes to be committed. Once drunk or under the influence of drug, the dropouts were prone to engage in other crimes like stealing, assault, robbery and violence and many other crimes. This is supported by Barnes et al. (2013) who argue that, drinking beer is not bad, but drinking and engaging in criminal activities is an offence. However, even if Younge et al. (2007) supports drinking beer by saying that, it prevents cardiovascular disease in men over the age of 35 and women over the age of 45, their argument is not based on scientific research. Contrary to this, Ryan

---

**Classification of Crime Prevalence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 - 5.0</td>
<td>Very High Prevalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 – 3.0</td>
<td>Low Prevalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 – 4.0</td>
<td>High Prevalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 -- 2.0</td>
<td>Least Prevalence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
(2012) says that, drinking alcohol leads to alcohol dependence, liver damage and makes one prone to engaging in crime. Church (2013) supports the findings by saying that, once a person is drunk or under the influence of a drug, he is weak to control his moral judgment and can engage in all sorts of crimes.

Many of the dropouts engaged in local brews because they were cheap as revealed by one of the Chiefs. When a chief was interviewed over drunkenness of illegal brews, he said,

Some of the boys end up in the cheap brew dens, popularly known as “Eshikombe” yaani a cup of busaa or chang’aa. This cup of illicit cheap brew reduces the youth to helpless citizens who cannot work and have desire to go to school.

This is supported by the studies which have shown that dropping out of school for adolescents leads to alcohol disorders and heavy drinking (Friedenberg, 2009; Williams & Wynder, 2003). Based on psychological and sociological factors, literature has shown that failure to meet social goals due to dropping from school leads to behavioral problems such as drinking (Keegan, 2011). Jessors & Jessors (2010) further suggest that, failure to meet educational goals within society leads to behavior such as taking of illicit brews. Students who do poorly in school may use alcohol and other substances to cover up their feelings of depression, anxiety, and inadequacy and/or to increase their social acceptability within peer group (Kimani, 2005). Ellickson et al. (2009) through logistic regression found out that, alcohol use during seventh grade predicts dropping out of high school even after controlling for
demographics, family structure, academic orientation, early deviance, and school environment for Asians, African-Americans, and Whites, but not for Hispanics.

The current study found out that a good number of students used bhang. After using it, the boys had extra energy which they used in harvesting stones as revealed by one of the cultural leaders. However, one of the chiefs who were interviewed said that, it made the users to engage in other crimes like fighting.

Another PTA Chairman who was interviewed on drug abuse said,

    Our boys are lost to *Omusala*. Once they have sniffed it, they feel high and they cannot respect teachers. They are eventually sent away from school.

Chatterji (2013) supports this by saying that two-thirds of substance abusers are dropouts. Furthermore, research on the association between substance use and academic performance using different samples and different methodologies yield the conclusion that bhang use has a stronger negative relationship to academic outcomes such as grade point average (GPA) and risk for dropout than alcohol use (Bailey & Hubbard, 2013).

Less frequent alcohol use does not always have a statistically strong relationship with academic outcomes, while bhang use does (Becker, 2013). This might be due to differences in the patterns of consumption between alcohol which is typically consumed sporadically and bhang which might be consumed more regularly among adolescents (Ellickson et al., 2012). In the studies that showed weak associations with alcohol, the students investigated were, on average, very low level drinkers. The
current study observes that, perhaps the heavier the drinking the more the adolescents dropped out of school and thus was not available to participate in follow-up research interviews.

While Jessor & Jessor (2010) generally acknowledges that academic performance problems can lead to substance use, the current study argues that equal acknowledgement is lacking that adolescent substance use plays a substantial role in academic failure. In fact, the association between substance use and academic failure is bi-directional. The resistance to believing that substance use can lead to academic performance problems is surprising given the many known negative consequences of substance use and addiction, for example those that are health- and safety-related. Perhaps part of the resistance stems from the general notion that substance use is normative and perhaps is even an accepted rite of passage during adolescence (D’Amaco et al., 2012).

Stealing had a mean rating of 4.03. This was revealed by one Chief, who was interviewed and said,

> These are young boys who have dropped from school and they break into kitchens at night when it is raining. We know that they are teenagers because they only eat meals that are left over and they steal chicks. If they were grownups they would steal cocks which can fetch good money. In fact I know one boy ambaye alikataa kusoma kama ako Form Three. Anasumbua sana.

One of the Police Officers who was interviewed over the same said,

> These boys like stealing items like bicycles, motorcycles, cattle and even
dogs. After dropping from school, they find themselves having no money and therefore they steal to survive. Most of them are school dropouts and they are underage.

Another police officer said,

In my station, most of the dropouts are charged for offences of stealing laptops and mobile phones. They collude with some students in the neighbouring university who steal and give these dropouts to go and sell. Surprisingly they sell to the same university those stolen items.

Siegel (2013) supports the allusion that dropouts engage in petty offences like stealing by saying that the average age for first arrest had increased significantly. He further said that between 60–80% percent of adolescents, and pre-adolescents engaged in stealing. This could be because they were young and therefore idle since they were not in school.

According to the current study, fighting had a mean rating of 3.34. When one Chief was interviewed as to why school dropouts fight, he said,

These youth have big dreams while at school. This is because politicians promise them to be tomorrow leaders, and when tomorrow seems to be a mirage, they get frustrated and drop from school. They fight their brothers and sisters who seem to be doing well economically.

This is supported by Manundu, (2010) when he says that, according to the survey that was conducted among Kenyans aged 7 and 19 years which sought to find out young people’s aspirations and dreams, it was found that 40 percent indicated that they
wanted to be professionals, 33 percent wanted to be rich, 13 percent wanted to be famous, 12 percent wanted to be in leadership and 8 percent wanted to be heroes. Those who wanted to be rich were inspired by the local politicians. Isindu (2010) says that, the probability of achieving such like aspirations, among other factors increases with higher levels of education. Bedi et al (2002) say that, only 22.8 percent of Kenyans have secondary education and above, meaning the chance of having the above aspirations is just a dream for three quarters of these young people.

The current study therefore argues that feelings of dispossession subjectively occur irrespective of whether basic needs are met or not. They may result from comparing oneself or group with others. Feelings of disillusionment and eventual rebellion from school contravene their promises and behave contrary to the expected norms leading them to seek solutions outside the formal channels. It further observes that the gap that exists between youths’ expectations and their reality might lead to violence. In searching for meaning, self-actualization and fulfillment, young people construct world views from abstract ideals portrayed by politicians. This is contrary to MOEST Report on Established for Secondary Schools (2012) which say that, in places where opportunities exist youth are driven to work hard in school. The current study however, says that there are some situations where the discrepancy between what the youth believe they are rightly entitled to and what they obtain often makes them feel dispossessed. The inability to obtain what is felt to be rightly theirs triggers feelings
of frustration that ultimately facilitate the emergence of collective violence like assault.

Some dropouts fought others after being drunk as reported by one of the chiefs. This is supported by research which shows that alcohol consumption is associated with aggressive behavior (Brook et al., 2012). Although there is little research on this issue as it affects dropouts specifically, studies show that a substantial proportion of young adults engage in fighting while intoxicated (Dee & Evans, 2013). Alcohol-related aggression is a serious problem among the dropouts, but it is not clear whether alcohol promotes aggressive behavior in some people or whether individuals who are more aggressive tend to drink more.

Alcohol does not cause aggression directly through its pharmacological effects alone (Friedman et al., 2013). Rather, intoxicated aggression appears to be the product of individual differences and contextual variables interacting with pharmacodynamics (Chatterji, 2013). Evidence from both animal and human research indicates that there is a positive relationship between levels of the male hormone testosterone and physical aggression (Bandura, 2012; Akers, 2010). A recent study found out that healthy male dropouts with high levels of testosterone, measured in saliva, were more aggressive on the Taylor Aggression Paradigm—a behavioral measure of aggression—than those with low levels (Barnes et al., 2013). Heightened aggression has also been associated with low levels of the brain neurotransmitter serotonin (Farrel & Fuchs, 2011). It may be that the aggression-enhancing effects of alcohol are
more likely to occur in people with higher baseline levels of testosterone and lower levels of serotonin.

Ellenbogen & Chamberland (2008) argue further that, assault is commonly committed by male dropouts. Being tough, powerful, aggressive, daring and competitive becomes a way for young men to assert and express their masculinity. Cook & Moore (2013) say that, acting out these ideals may make young men more likely to engage in antisocial and criminal behavior. Also, Denson & Schumaker (2008) say that, the way young men are treated by others, because of their masculinity, may reinforce aggressive traits and behaviors, and make them more susceptible to offending. The girls might be offending more in petty offences because they were left un monitored by security agencies as compared with boys (Woodland, 2013).

The study sought to establish the prevalence of the rate of defilement which had a mean rating of 3.29. Most of the defilement cases were as a result of drunkenness by the dropouts. One Police Officer said that the dropouts targeted girls and old women because they could not manage to defend themselves physically. This figure seems to be higher than those of the police and chiefs. This could be a reliable figure because they gave information knowing that it was for research alone as they were assured by the researcher and therefore they knew they could not be victimized.
When one chief was interviewed as why young boys were defiling young girls and old women, he said,

> When these boys are drunk they go on defiling young girls and old women because they cannot defend themselves. It seems when these boys are drunk, their sexual appetite is high and they fail to control themselves.

This can be supported by studies which have shown that high school dropouts who drink heavily are more likely to engage in unplanned sexual activity than students who do not drink heavily (Centre for Disease Control & Prevention, 2013). Although research indicates that the relationship between alcohol use and risky sexual behavior is complex, it also suggests that when alcohol is used in the context of a sexual or potential sexual situation such as a date, it is associated with increased sexual risk-taking under some circumstances (Ferguson & Horwood, 2013; Cicirelli, 1982). Alcohol use appears to be more likely to promote sexual intercourse when the male partner drinks and in situations involving new or occasional sex partners. Drinking prior to intercourse has been consistently related to casual sex as well as to a failure to discuss risk-related topics before having sex (Cunningha, 2013). The disinhibiting effects of consuming alcohol may help explain the relationship between drinking and risky sexual behavior. Alcohol appears to disinhibit behavior primarily as a result of its pharmacologic effects on information processing (Koch & Riba, 2012). By reducing the scope and efficiency of information processing, alcohol allows simple, salient cues that instigate behavior—such as sexual arousal—to be
processed, while blunting the processing of more distal and complex cues, such as the possibility of contracting a sexually transmitted disease, including HIV/AIDS (Grossman, 2013; Koch & Riba, 2012).

Although alcohol and drug consumption and defilement frequently co-occur (Baldwin et al., 2013), this phenomenon does not prove that alcohol use and drug abuse causes defilement. Thus, in some cases, the desire to defile may actually cause alcohol consumption. This may occur when a man drinks alcohol before defiling in order to justify his behavior. Moreover, certain factors may lead to both alcohol consumption and defilement. For example, some fraternities encourage both heavy drinking and sexual exploitation of women (Boldero, 2011). In fact, many pathways can prompt a man to defile, and not all perpetrators are motivated by the same factors (Cooper & Orcutt, 2013).

The sexual behavior of drunken dropouts among the adolescents has led to increasing rates of abortion in Uganda (Pittman & Haughwout, 2009). The initiation of sexual activity starts as early as 10-14 years of age with a mean of 15 years (Ongalo, 2009). This is as a result of low contraceptive prevalence rate (7.2%). This could be attributed to the fact that they are young and they cannot evaluate the consequences of their actions. This is made worse when they drink because once drunk, they weaken their perceptual cognitive power (Bailey & Brown, 2008; Boyle et al., 2008).
A study on Ugandan out-of-school adolescents regarding abuse of alcohol and drug on sexuality, says that dropout adolescents clearly lack information and opportunities compared with in-school adolescents (Reinke & Herman, 2012). This is similar to Kenyan dropouts because the curriculum covers Life Skill Education which embraces sex education, peace and alcohol and drug abuse. It is taught from Form One up to Form Four (Fergusson & Horwood, 2013; MOEST, 2013; Good, 2009). The curriculum is spiral in nature, in that whatever is taught in Form one is re taught in other classes up to Form Four only that the depth increases as one gets higher up the ladder. Hence those who drop in Form Three and Four miss the deeper content. They eventually engage in the crimes ignorantly although they assume they know. This is supported by Margaret (2011) who says that, better not to know than know half way.

The current study however observes that alcohol and drug abuse may not necessarily lead to defilement. On the contrary, it may make either the man or woman to be sexually inactive. Dermen & Cooper (2009) supports by saying that, for men, alcohol and drug abuse before sex results in decreased penis engorgement (hardness), orgasmic intensity and overall satisfaction and pleasure.

For women, Lang (2012) argues that, alcohol use before sex results in decreased ability to orgasm (and some women may not be able to reach orgasm at all), orgasmic intensity and overall satisfaction and pleasure. However the mean rating of 3.29 was
recorded because defilement was not only limited to sexual intercourse. It included kissing, indecent touching and verbally coerced intercourse.

Robbery with violence had a mean rating of 3.08. The offence included robbery of the motor cycles from tax men as revealed by one of the chiefs.

When one District Criminal Investigation Officer (DCIO) was asked to comment on the reason for robbing people of their motor cycles, he said

They sell the motor cycles in Kisumu because the town is a hub of fishing industry and therefore it provides ready market. The engines of motor cycles are used to make motorboats. We will not allow these robberies. I have instructed my boys to be alert. Serikali ina mkono mrefu, tutawakamata na kuwaweka ndani.

There was prevalence of hijacking of motorcycles in the county. This implies that there was high poverty level as many people could not afford to buy vehicles (Vihiga County Security Committee, 2012). This is contrary to South Africa which has a high record of car hijackings (Blair, 2013). This could be due attributed to South Africa being on a higher scale of development that Kenya.

Lastly other crimes had a mean rating of 2.96. These were committed by a few offenders. Some of the crimes started with unsupervised groupings of youth as revealed by one of the chiefs. They engaged in crime because of peer influence or peer rejection. The crimes included faking to be drunk, faking abduction and impersonation.
The dropouts would assemble together in large numbers at the road junctions which became breeding grounds for the development of criminal offending, especially where there was little adult supervision.

One PTA Chairman who was interviewed said,

> There is need for my school to be a boarding school because most of the students when they go home in the evenings hang on around the junctions of the roads and engage in low profile offences like scaring girls and old women on the road. Some do this because of peer influence. I am afraid because soon start engaging in violent crimes.

Coyle (2009) and Yoder (2007) supports by saying that, when youth group together, they tend to develop social hierarchies that have a significant influence on crime. Dropouts who engage in low profile crime start this tendency while at school (Botvin & Eng, 2011; Hyman & Snook, 2009). Fagann & Najman (2012) argue that, while at school, they exhibit verbal and physical aggressive behaviours which cause rejection. Once rejected, these children remain isolated from "normal" peers, even after interventions have been implemented to improve their social behaviour. This peer rejection deprives a child of the socializing experiences that he or she may obtain from pro-social peers and sets the stage for him or her to become involved with antisocial peer groups (Pieksarska, 2012; LeCompter & Dworkin, 2009). This process of peer rejection after spiraling to disruptive behaviours accelerates into youth
offending and more covert as the children mature after dropping out from school (Botvin, 2010).

Another crime was misuse of their mobile phones. One DCIO who was interviewed said,

These dropouts are glued to mobile phones. They indulge in pornography and some sent anonymous threatening messages to parents whenever they punish them. Others write messages to the Police Stations cheating that they have seen a bomb which is ready to explode.

One Probation Officer said,

Our boys who drop from school are now engaging in software crimes that include internet pornography, blogging, text messaging and stealing of money by mobile phones. They write messages to people claiming purporting that they have sent money erroneously and they a need refund.

This report is supported by Akin- Little (2012) who says that, cell-phone text messaging and e-mail provide additional platforms that support a new form of violence known as cyber- bullying.

Cyber-bullying occurs when young people use electronic media to taunt, insult, or even threaten their peers. Hirschi (2012) also supports by saying that since the 1990s, the internet blogging, e-mail, and cell-phone text messaging have grown to play significant roles in the erosion of community safety.

Another crime in this category was vandalism. One Probation Officer admitted that some dropouts had a problem of vandalism and property damage. They destroyed
railway lines which they sold to Kisumu in the *Juakali* industries. This was further revealed by Vihiga County Security Committee Report (2012) which said that, 78 percent of dropouts admitted damaging property or vandalizing electric transformers and telephone wires. They sold the oil from the transformers which are believed to have medicine healing. This is supported by Chiuri (2005) who says that the problem of alternative medicine is that it is not scientifically approved, therefore traders target rare herbs and items and attaché medicinal beliefs on them.

Some dropouts committed traffic offences. According one OCS, every weekend most teenagers were arrested for driving while drunk, over speeding or driving without valid licenses. When another OCS was interviewed over traffic offences, she said,

> Every weekend we arrest almost 15 teenagers who commit traffic offences. Most of them have dropped from school and they want to drive around to embrace their girl friends and boyfriends. They play loud music and do romance in vehicles.

In another police station, One Police Officer said,

> About one-half of all fatal traffic crashes among 15- to 20-year-olds involve alcohol, and many of those killed are school dropouts. Last week, one boy aged 16 years who had dropped from school took the car of his mother and lambed 9 children into the vehicle from the estate. He failed to stop at the junction and were it that the trailer was over speeding it would have crashed them.

This was supported by (King & Murray, 2001) who said that 30 percent of dropouts who drank in the past year said they had driven after drinking alcohol during the past
30 days (Duncan et al., 2012). In the Core survey, one-third of dropouts (39 percent of drinkers) admitted over speeding under the influence of alcohol or other drugs within the past year (Hawkins & Weis, 2013).

Lastly, some dropouts attempted to commit suicide especially when economic conditions became tough as revealed by one of the chiefs. This is a crime according to the 2010 Constitution Bill of Rights which gives guiding principles as to social regulation and human rights. There is documented evidence that dropouts may potentially nurture the thoughts of suicide especially those who abuse alcohol and drugs (Kurmar et al., 2013: Newcomb & Bentler, 2013). However, the researcher argues that, it is also plausible that suicidal thoughts may lead to increased dropout rate since, for some, depression increases the tendency to lose focus on studies.

Using the scale to measure the prevalence, the mean ratings imply that the crime with the highest prevalence among drop outs in Vihiga County was alcohol and drug abuse which had very high prevalence (4.25). Other crimes of high prevalence were, stealing (4.25) and fighting (3.34). There was a nexus between abuse of alcohol and drugs with other crimes.

4.2 Pattern of Crime Rate
The current study sought to discuss the pattern of crime rate committed by boys and girls in Vihiga County, Kenya. The findings from the Vihiga County Office were as follows in Table 4.4 that follows overleaf:
From Table 4.4, it can be seen that between 2005 and 2008, 53(67.95%) of boys and 25(32.05) of girls who dropped out of school participated in crime.

The findings also reveal that between 2006 and 2009, 62(83.78%) of boys and 12(16.22%) of girls that dropped from school participated in crime. More boys who dropped out of school engaged in crime than girls, unlike in the previous cohort.

Dropout rate that participated in crime between 2007 and 2010 was 67(87.01 %) boys and 10(12.99 %) girls. Between 2008 and 2011, 96(95.05%) of boys and 05(04.95%) of girls who dropped out of school engaged in crime. Lastly, 94(83.93%) of boys and 18 (16.07%) of girls that dropped out of school engaged in crime in the cohort of

### Table 4.4: Pattern of Crime Rate in Vihiga County as revealed by Probation Officers (n=5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Cohorts</th>
<th>Average Number of crime</th>
<th>Students Involved in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005 – 2008</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006 – 2009</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007 – 2010</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008 – 2011</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009 – 2012</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** VCSC, Vihiga (2012)
2009 and 2012. The pattern of crime was rated at a mean of 84.16 and girls at 15. 84. Figure 4.1 gives a clarification of the data.

Figure 4.1: Pattern of Crime Rate in Vihiga County

A critical look at the trend in figure 4.1 reveals that the rate of crime participation by boys increased from 2005 to 2012 while participation by girls decreased subsequently. However, before 2006, the dropout rate of girls was higher than boys. Findings notably reveal that boys’ participation rate in crime rose sharply from 2006 to 2008 and that one of girls dropped drastically. This could be attributed to the post-election violence in Kenya. This was supported by one of the chiefs during the interviews when he said that politicians preferred using boys aged between 14 years
to 19 years to provide security and attack the opponents because they were cheap. These boys however, looted and destroyed property of the opponents of their masters (Provincial Security Committee, Western Kenya, 2012).

The current study is also in consistent with a study in Central Province, Kenya by Davies (2013) and GOK (2007) which says that, between 2005 and 2009, boys in the province dropped out of school and joined illegal groups such as *Mungiki*.

The PTA Chairmen indicated that, scores of fathers who should be the role models of their children had turned to taking illicit brews which had in turn seen hundreds of boys drop out of school at early age. This implies that both boys and girls who drop out of school engaged in crime. However, boys engaged in more serious crimes that need mitigation.

### 4.3 Crime Rate of Students

The researcher investigated the crime rates of students which would help to discuss the nature of crimes committed in the county. It was ascertained that as the dropout rate of students increased, the cases of crime incidences coincidently escalated (District Probation Office, 2012).

One Probation Officer who was interviewed said,

> It is alarming that young boys and girls aged between 12 to 19 years who are supposed to be in school are being committed to Community Service orders. Most of them are used by hard core criminals to transport drugs or steal items from the supermarkets. If research is done, perhaps the situation could be worse than I can imagine.
The researcher therefore carried out a study on crime rates among secondary school students in the county to assess the influence of dropout rate of students on crime. The findings are shown in Figure 4.2 overleaf:

![Figure 4.2: Crime Rates of Boys and Girls in Vihiga County, Kenya](source)

**SOURCE:** VCSC (2012)

From figure 4.2, the crime rate was 53(67.95%) for boys and 25(32.05%) for girls in the cohort of 2005-2008. In 2006-2009, it was 62(83.78%) for boys and 12(16.22%) for girls. Between 2007 and 2010, it was 67(87.01) for boys and 10(12.99%) for girls. Between 2008 and 2011, it was 96(95.05%) for boys and 05(04.95%) for girls. Lastly, between 2009 and 2012, it was 94(83.93%) for boys and 18(16.07%) for girls. It can,
therefore, be established that crime rate of boys increased between 2005 and 2012 as that of girls decreased. From 2006 to 2011, there was an increase in crime rate for boys (83.78 to 95.05). This could be attributed to the Post Election Violence of 2007/2008.

Most boys were used by the politicians as revealed by one of the chiefs, who were interviewed and said,

Our politicians like using young boys because they cannot differentiate good from evil. They can loot and even kill for fun. On the other hand the politician will feel having won especially when he/she sees the opponent in problems.

When asked why they prefer using boys to girls, she said,

Oh, *Mwalimu*, girls are sympathetic. In fact they can leak the information to the opponent who is supposed to be killed. Never ever make a mistake of confining to a lay a secret.

In support of the chief, most girls would not have been used by politicians because Fatuma & Sifuna (2006) argue that culture relates politics with crime and women are less expected to be criminals. Boys drop from school to provide security and campaign for the politician. In the event of participating in crime like beating of opponents they are considered strong as revealed by one of the chiefs. Such high crime rate indicates that there was high dropout rate of boys during the same period and this negates Kenya’s government policy on Education for All and the right of the child (Hakielimu, 2007; Republic of Kenya, 2005; Republic of Kenya, 2001).
During the interview with the Probation Officers, one of them indicated,

In fact the rate of crime in the area has been on the rise over the past few years and most criminals who are arrested are the same boys who drop out of school.

Another Probation Officer said,

Most boys who drop out of school, get involved in criminal activities like theft, smoking bang, fighting and drinking chang’aa. For the girls, it is not common, though a few also get involved in fighting especially over boy-friends and petty offenses.

The current study is in agreement with the study on crime in Colorado by Bridgeland et al. (2009) which indicates that, boys and girls that dropped out of school had different types of records for criminal activities. The study reveals that the girls were arrested for theft, domestic disturbances and truancy. When they were talked to, they could easily change. Contrary to the girls, the boys got incarcerated for “real” crimes for instance drugs, robbery and gang violence. This could be attributed to the biological risk factors. This is in line with argument of Ball et al., (2012) which says that crime by young people is complex because it is related to genetics, neurotransmitters and neurobiology. The study by Church (2013) shows a strong circumstantial evidence that, some offending may have heritable origins. The Dunedin Longitudinal Study by Ogbu (2012) has revealed a connection between a genotype that confers low levels of the enzyme Monoamine Oxidase (MAOA) common in males, and a predisposition to violent or anti-social behaviour.
The researcher carried out a t-test to establish whether the mean difference in the crime incidence rates of the boys and girls was statistically significant between 2005 and 2009 and the findings were as shown in Table 4.5 overleaf:

Table 4.5: Related t – test of Crime Incidences of Boys’ and Girls’ in Vihiga County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean of Boys - Mean of Girls</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crime Rates</td>
<td>67.09</td>
<td>19.692</td>
<td>8.807</td>
<td>42.637</td>
<td>91.539</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Field Data (2012)

From Table 4.5, it can be seen that the difference in the mean of the boys’ and girls’ crime rates was 67.09. The 95% confidence interval for this difference is 42.637 to 91.539. Since the confidence interval does not pass through 0.00, the difference was statistically significant at the two-tailed 5% level.

This implies that the difference in the mean of the crime incidences of the boys and girls is so significant statistically that it cannot be ignored. There were more incidences of crime by boys than girls. This is contrary to the studies carried out in Hispanics by Borchet (2012) which says that, the statistics were worse for young
African-American dropouts, whose dropout rate was 69 percent for girls, compared with 53 for boys. The mean of the crime incidences of the boys and girls was not statistically significant.

The variation could be because the county under study had students that mostly were black (98%) and in Hispanics, they were Black Americans and therefore the cultures were different.

The findings on crime incidences agree with Lashlie (2012) who argues that, juveniles are more likely to co-offend with individuals of the same gender and the same age group compared to adults. Similar to adult crime, young males participate in criminal activities more often than young females (Maughan, 2013). Having looked at the nature of dropout criminal activities, the researcher looked at the dropout rate of students in secondary schools.

4.4 Dropout Rate of students in secondary schools
Data were gathered using document analysis schedules from the Deputy Principals in the sampled public secondary schools. The number of students who dropped out of school from 2005 to 2012 was computed by gender. The data was captured from the cohorts of 2005-2008, 2006-2009, 2007-2010, 2008-2011 and 2009-2012. Cohort 2005-2008 was justified by the fact it was anchored upon the period within which the dropout rate of boys overtook the dropout of girls in the county.
Table 4.6 overleaf shows results of the analysis of Students Admission Record in public secondary schools in the sampled schools of Vihiga County. It shows number of boys and girls admitted in each cohort and those that dropped out.

**Table 4.6 Dropout Rates of Boys and Girls in Vihiga County as indicated by Deputy Principals (n = 34)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Cohort</th>
<th>Average Number of Boys</th>
<th>Average Number of Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>Dropped out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2008</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006–2009</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008–2011</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009–2012</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Field Data (2012)

From Table 4.6, it is evident that in the class cohort of 2005 to 2008, 8(15.17%) and 9(23.51%) of boys and girls respectively dropped out of public secondary schools with girls lagging behind boys by a gender gap of 8.24%. In the following cohort of 2006 to 2009, there was a dropout rate of 11(17.29%) for the boys and 10(21.38%) for the girls. It is worth noting that in the 2007 to 2010 class cohort, the boys’ dropout rate was 13(19.13%) compared to the girls’ dropout rate which was 12(19.35%). The dropout rate of boys had overtaken that of girls by 0.22%. In the class cohort of 2008 to 2011, the boys’ dropout rate increased further to 22(22.54%) as the girls’ dropout rate decreased to 14(18.36%). The reversed gender gap was 4.18%. That notwithstanding, in class cohort of 2009 to 2012, boys’ dropout rate increased to
27(25.87%) while that of the girls decreased further to 14(17.4%). The reversed gender gap was 8.47 %. Overall, the dropout rate mean of the boys and girls for the past five years was 12.52% boys and 7.01 % respectively. The overall gender gap mean rating was 5.04.

It can be deduced from Table 4.6 that the dropout rate of boys increased steadily for the entire period between 2005 and 2012 as that one of the girls decreased. The dropout rate for boys was higher (12.52%) than for the girls (7.01 %). There was a reversed dropout rate of boys lagging behind girls as from the cohort of between 2007 and 2010. The paradigm shift in dropout rate between 2008 and 2012 could be attributed to the adverse effects of Post-Election Violence of 2007/2008 on basic education in Vihiga County, Kenya. Most boys neighbouring the hostile communities could have dropped out of school to provide security for their community. This is supported by a study by Republic of Kenya, (2013) which says that, when there is civil war, boys’ education is the most affected because they are conscripted in the armies by the groupings.

The responses from the Deputy Principals gave information on dropout rate in terms cohorts. To get the exact year that the dropout rate of boys overtook the girls, the District Quality Assurance Officers (DQASO) gave the following information in Table 4.7 that follows overleaf:
From Table 4.7, it can be revealed that in 2008, 296(47.67%) boys and 325(52.33%) girls dropped out of school respectively. In 2009, most of the students 407(52.38%) who dropped out of school were boys as compared with 370(47.62%) girls. In 2010, 481(52.00%) of the drop outs were boys and 444(48.00%) were girls. In 2011, 814(61.11%) of the students who dropped out were boys while the rest 518(38.89%) were girls. In addition, 999(65.64%) of the students who dropped out in 2012 were boys while 523(34.36%) were girls.

From the findings gathered, it is evident that there was a steady increase in the number of male students who dropped out of school compared to their female counterpart between 2008 and 2012. The percentages for the dropout rate of students as rated by the District Quality Assurance Officers seem to be higher than by those of
the Deputy Principals’ because the DQASO were working on second hand data and they would have been a possibility of misinformation.

When one DQASO was asked to comment on the nature of dropout rate of students, he said,

> It is interesting that at some point, the dropout rate of girls was higher than boys, but as for now, every school we visit suggests that more boys are dropping from school than girls. The trend is now changing and something has to be done urgently.

In agreement with the DQASO, the Kenya National Examination Council Analysis Report (2012) revealed a similar trend that, seemed to be emerging in Central Province, where girls were overtaking boys in completing education in public secondary schools. The dropout rate of boys was 27 % and that of girls 21 %. The dropout gender gap was 6 %.

This could be attributed to the fact that the province had vibrant Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) sponsoring girl-child education and leaving out the boy on assumption that the boy is favoured by patriarchal culture ( Battistich et al., 2013: FAWE, 2012). Similarly, Vihiga County had more NGOs sponsoring girl education than boy education. The county had 12 NGOs sponsoring girls–child education and non for specifically boy-child education (Mugisha, 2006: Barritteau, 2004). This can be attributed to strong affirmative action policies in place as reported by DQASO Report on Gender and Education (2012).
The study also compared the dropout rate of students in the country with Vihiga County. The data for the country were as in Table 4.8 overleaf.

**Table 4.8: Gross Dropout Rate in Secondary Schools, 2008-2012, Kenya**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Mean</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MF</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** KNEC Analysis Report (2013)

**KEY**

**MF:** Average for male and female  
**M:** Male  
**F:** Female

The overall mean dropout gender gap for the country between 2008 and 2012 was 1.5. The dropout mean for boys was 35.4% and 36.9% for girls.

The findings reveal that the dropout rate of students was decreasing gradually in the country. However, as much as the mean dropout for girls was higher than for boys, there was a gender gap of the mean gap of 1.3 implying that the dropout rate of boys was going to be higher than that of girls. This implies that if mitigation measures are not expedited, the problem of the high girls’ dropout rate will be solved at the expense of the boy child education. Comparatively, dropout rate of students in Vihiga County was increasing while that of the entire nation was decreasing. This suggests that there are other counties that seem to be registering a decreasing dropout rate of
students from public secondary schools. Perhaps this is because of free secondary education. Since Vihiga County is also enjoying the policy of free secondary education, then the implementers of the policy might not been keen.

The researcher carried out a t-test to establish whether the difference in the dropout rates of boys and that of the girls in the county was statistically significant and the findings were as shown in Table 4.9 that follows:

Table 4.9: Related t – test of Boys’ and Girls’ Dropout Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pair 1</strong></td>
<td>Dropout rate of Boys - Dropout rate of girls</td>
<td>5.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Field Data (2012)

From Table 4.9, it can be seen that the difference in the mean of the boys and girls dropout rates was 5.52. The 95% confidence interval of the instrument for this difference is 4.49 to 6.54. Since the confidence interval does not pass through 0.00, the difference was statistically significant at the two-tailed 5% level.

One Principal commented in agreement that,
In my school, it is a reality that the dropout rate of boys is far higher than girls. Every term, at least 12 boys drop from school against 2 girls that drop. The dropout rate gap between boys and girls is widening every term I think something has to be done.

The findings were consistent with the report of Bwana (2009) on the Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates in the United States between 2007 and 2008 which indicated that on average, 3.5 percent of students who were enrolled in public high schools in October 2007 left school before October 2008 without completing a high school program with the difference in the mean of the boys and girls dropout rates of 4.92. The report indicated that the difference was statistically significant at the two-tailed 5% level. Given the fact the differences in dropout rate of boys and girls were similar in Vihiga County and United States, this suggests that boys’ dropout rate is becoming a threat globally. After looking at the nature of criminal activities and dropout rate of secondary school students, the researcher related crime rate with dropout rate.

The current study argues that, more education should reduce the rate of incarceration. This can be supported by Elliot & Vos (2006) and Ongalo (2009) who say that, inmates in prisons and jails who sit for their secondary school last grade examination show change of behaviour positively and they are normally released. Hudson (2012) found out that, over early life time up to age 20 male was almost certain to have been incarcerated at some point.
There were several types of crimes that were committed by the dropouts. Abuse of alcohol and drug, and stealing were the most conspicuous. This implies that if we could control dropout, crime rate would reduce.

The nature of crime was crimes against persons, crimes against property and crimes against morality. Crimes against persons are also called personal crimes (O’Grady, 2011). They included assault, battery, kidnapping, murder, manslaughter, rape, defilement, affray and robbery with violence.

The crimes were preferred by the young in contrary to the study by Sabala & Mkutu (2004) who argues that personal crimes are common with old. The difference could have been as a result of the differences in research design used. The current study used correlation survey which enabled the researcher to manipulate and interpret data unlike Descriptive Survey that was used by Sabala & Mkutu (2004) which only describes the behaviour of the population of study (O’Sullivan & Rassel, 2009).

Property Crimes are crimes that do not necessarily involve physical harm to another person (Macionis & Linda, 2011). They included theft, burglary, embezzlement, forgery, false pretenses and receipt of stolen goods. Macionis & Gerber (2010) supports that, property crimes are most preferred by the youth because they are mostly unemployed and therefore they sell the property to get money either for upkeep or committing further crimes like abuse of alcohol and drugs.
Crimes against morality are also called victimless crimes because there is not complainant (Orthner & Randolph, 1999). They included abuse of alcohol and drug, prostitution and illegal gambling. This class of crime was the most committed by the dropouts. One chief who was interviewed commented that,

When we arrest those who abuse alcohol and drugs they argue that they have not committed any offence because they have not beat anybody. Prostitutes say that they are using their own bodies to educate their children.

For the dropouts who drink, they claim that so long as they drink and go to sleep, they have not committed any crime. They seem to be supported by Mills (2008) who argues that, for an act to be classified as a crime, the act of doing something bad must be usually accompanied by the intention to do something.

However, even if drinking beer may not be a crime for those dropouts who drink and even the Kenyan Law, the society in the area of society regards it as a crime on religious grounds. They base it on the teachings of their Holy Books that they use. Different religious traditions may promote distinct norms of behaviour, and these in turn may clash or harmonise with the perceived interests of a state. Socially accepted or imposed religious morality has influenced secular jurisdictions on issues that may otherwise concern only an individual's conscience.

The current study argues that dropouts might be committing crimes against morality because various religions define morality differently. What might be moral in one
religion might be immoral in another religion. For instance we have some that claim drinking is not bad so long as one does not abuse others. On the contrary we have others that preach total abstention from drinking. It creates moral dilemma for a dropout that is raised in a society that has both religions. The researcher therefore perceives crime as a social phenomenon since he envisages both how individuals conceive crime and how populations perceive it, based on societal norms.

4.5 Summary
The current study found out that although both boys and girls dropped from school, there was a paradigm shift of more boys dropping from school than girls. This was contrary to other studies which indicated that the dropout rate of girls was higher than for boys. However, on the overall, the dropout rate of students was high. School dropouts participated in various types of crimes. They included alcohol and drug abuse, stealing, defilement, stealing, robbery with violence and others. Alcohol and drug abuse had a mean rating of 4.25, stealing had a mean rating of 4.03, assault had a mean rating of 3.34, defilement had a mean rating of 3.29 while robbery with violence had a mean rating of 3.08 and other crimes had a mean rating of 2.96. This implies that the crime with the highest prevalence among drop outs in Vihiga County was alcohol and drug abuse which had very high prevalence. In addition, stealing, assault and defilement respectively had high prevalence. On the other hand, robbery with violence and other crimes could be measured as having low prevalence.
Therefore, it can be concluded that secondary school dropouts participated most in alcohol and drug abuse in the county.

The best way to summarize this relationship may be to see that many dropouts who persistently commit crimes also frequently use alcohol and illicit drugs, and that the two activities may amplify each other and may prolong the duration of the crime. Alcohol and drug abuse taken together, the various explanations suggest that there is clear causal link in either direction between drug use and crime. This implies that policy responses that are focused on only one part of the drug-crime link, while ignoring others, will be unlikely to succeed in reducing overall crime. It also suggests that drug policies will not necessarily play the greatest role in reducing drug-related crime. The nature of crimes was crimes against persons, crimes against property and crimes against morality. Basing on the nature of crime, the current study concludes that crime is a social phenomenon.
CHAPTER FIVE

FACTORS INFLUENCING DROPOUT RATE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO CRIME ESCALATION

The chapter addresses the findings for objective two which was to assess the factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students in relation to crime escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya. It addresses the following sections: Sex Discrimination in the Schools, Gender Stereotype, Social-Economic factors, Socio-Cultural Factors affecting dropout rate of students and relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime escalation.

5.1 Factors influencing Dropout Rate among Secondary School Students

5.1.1 Sex Discrimination

The researcher sought to establish from school dropouts if sex discrimination contributed to dropout of students from schools as shown in Table 5.1 overleaf:
Table 5.1: Sex discrimination schools as indicated by Dropouts (n = 385)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of Discrimination</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital Punishment influenced dropout rate of students</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>70.83</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>25.26</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good boarding facilities made students learn up to Form Four</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>70.31</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>26.30</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor fences influenced dropout rate of students</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>68.49</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>29.17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers favoured some girls while teaching hence influencing dropout rate</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>45.57</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>24.74</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher cut off points for boys than girls influenced dropout rate</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>36.19</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>26.04</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.72</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were more girls’ schools than boys’ schools</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>32.29</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>31.25</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor relationship influenced dropout rate of students</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>28.39</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>25.78</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>19.53</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear to fail exams made some students drop out of school</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>45.57</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>26.56</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students rarely dropped out of school when given leadership roles</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>23.44</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>72</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Field Data (2012)

With reference to Table 5.1, 272(70.83%) of school dropouts strongly expressed in agreement that capital punishment influenced dropout rate of students from public secondary schools. A sizeable number 97(25.56%) agreed to the same and 10(2.60%) were neutral.
When one dropout was interviewed about influence of capital punishment on dropout rate, he said,

Boys do not like being beaten in the presence of girls. If they are beaten they can easily drop from school. But girls can withstand that joke. I remember in my school, one boy was beaten only one stroke of the cane and that was all.

This implies that more boys than girls dropped from school because of corporal punishment. This is in consistent with the study carried out by Kortering et al., (2007) which reveals that caning was used to punish male youths in many Singaporean schools for serious misbehavior. The government encourages this but does not allow caning for girls. Instead, girls receive a longer form of detention and no more than 6 strokes are permitted. Similarly, the study of Kuziemko (2012) made an investigation on the relationship between gender and physical punishment in China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, Philippines, Sweden, Thailand and the United States of America. The study used interviews with around 4,000 mothers, fathers and students in high schools. It revealed for instance that, in Kenya 236(42%) of girls and 358(58%) of boys involved in the study had experienced “mild” corporal punishment (spanking, hitting, or slapping with a bare hand; hitting or slapping on the hand, arm, or leg; shaking; or hitting with an object) and 124(15%) of girls and 401(85%) of boys had experienced severe corporal punishment (hitting or slapping the child on the face, head, or ears; beating the child repeatedly with an implement) by someone in authority like teachers and prefects.
The study has a high notch over others because it went further and revealed that boys are dropping out more than girls because they fear to be subjected to the humiliation especially when they are in adolescence stage.

Harsh disciplinary measures can turn out to become disciplinary issues in the schools. They make the school environment hostile for students. Schools have lower dropout rates when they have friendly environments (Bryk & Thum 2009; Rumberger, 2007; Wehlage et al., 2006). Brouilette (2009) found out that, for inner-city dropouts, their decisions to leave high school had often been the result of the level of violence both in and around their former schools. Paredes (1993) found out that, a positive school climate was related to lower dropout rates. The implication for this is that corporal punishment, expulsions and suspensions are big triggers for dropout for boys in Vihiga County because they feel socially humiliated. Hence selection of the type of punishment for boys and girls should be done with consideration of the sex of the student.

At the same time, 270 (70.31%) strongly agreed that good boarding facilities made students learn up to Form Four, 101 (26.30%) agreed, 9(2.34%) were neutral and none disagreed. A major disparity was seen between two neighbouring schools that had the same sponsor but the infrastructure for one was far much better than the other. The overall dropout rate of the students was higher in the boys’ school that had poor infrastructure than the girls’ that had better infrastructure. This is supported by the study conducted by Kitetu (2001) which argues that, many secondary schools in
Kenya are unresponsive to the needs of male students. It further reveals that there is no existence of gender considerations in buildings and provision of boarding facilities.

In an interview by one of the PTA chairman, it was revealed that some boys stayed in small rented shops on the market centers where they were exposed to an environment that was not conducive for learning. It was characterized with drunkenness, drug taking and immorality. On the contrary most of the girls in Day Schools commuted from their homes. This enabled the parents to monitor them. This is in contrary to the study by Mbari (2008) which says that, girls who commuted from home in Awendo dropped from school more frequently than boys. This can be attributed to the differences in culture where by in Awendo, there were so many festivals in memory of the dead that encouraged promiscuity as revealed by the study. Girls were exposed to more leisure in the society which was an impediment to education.

Students who stay on the markets can easily be influenced by peer pressure to drop out of school (Mann, 1986). This is because most of those boys who loiter on the market are dropouts from school (Younge et al., 2007). This argument is supported by a study which noted that students at risk of dropping from school had more friends who were dropouts of the same-sex (Headden, 2009; Ellenbogen & Chamberland, 2008). The research of Kronick & Hargis (2008) has shown that a student is more likely to drop out if he/she associates with other potential dropouts. Elliott & Voss (2006) state that, youths that associates with other at-risk youths have
a higher probability of dropping out due to the differential association factor. Sutherland (2013) described the differential association factor as the way in which criminal behavior is learned as the normative behavior in small, intimate groups.

The current study further looked at the classroom facilities for both girls and boys and school size. One DQASO who was interviewed revealed that some schools had desks that were too small for the boys, a factor that made them drop out of school. One of the District Public Health Officers who was interviewed revealed that toilet facilities for boys were not as good as for girls in mixed schools. Those for girls were spacious and well furnished. This indicates that most stakeholders in education did not care for boys as much as they cared for the welfare of girls. This made the social environment of boys in boarding schools to be unbearable.

In terms of school size, one principal who was interviewed indicated that boys’ schools were bigger than girls’ schools, a factor that made the boys to drop from school. Research has shown that smaller schools tend to have lower dropout rates than larger schools (United States General Department of Education, 2006). Merritt (2008) found out that, large schools had higher dropout rates than small schools. Pittman & Haughwout (2009) found that, high school size impacts the dropout rate. These researchers propose that large student bodies result in a negative school climate and hinder students’ abilities to relate to the school. Bryk & Thum (2009) found that, smaller school size is a moderating variable that facilitates a social environment
condusive academic engagement by the students. Franklin & Crone (2011) in a study of Louisiana schools found a strong negative correlation between dropout rate and school size.

Additionally, poor school fences influenced dropout rate of students. This aspect was supported by 269(68.49%) Dropouts who strongly agreed, 112(29.19%) that agreed and 3(0.78%) who were neutral. None disagreed. This indicates that the condition of school fences was a major concern in most schools. One of the dropouts who was interviewed confessed that most boys’ schools had live fences which boys would easily jump over at night to go for the local dances. They would also carry drugs and local brews and sneak them into the schools made them not to concentrate on education.

On the contrary, most girls’ schools had barbed wire fences with adequate security officers at the gate and on patrol who were sourced from reputable Securicor companies as revealed by one of the chiefs. The gates were well built with artistic drawings which attracted the girls in schools. Most School Management Committees as revealed by one of the PTA Chairmen assumed that boys were strong physically and therefore could not need fences out of the school.
During an interview session, one PTA chairman claimed,

Boys are worse off than boys when it comes to being influenced by out of school community. This is because the boys sneak from school especially at night and go to drink in the Chang’aa dens around the school.

Another one indicated,

Our school is next to town and this has always affected the boys who go for disco dances. Almost every weekend, we are faced by these situations; some of the boys are injured due to fighting while others are found in police cells.

A further sentiment was made by a respondent who was a PTA chairman in a mixed school and he said,

I am a PTA chairman of two schools, I mean boys and girls schools and I think the boy child is more at risk; recently, we had a serious case where a sugar mummy had kept a Form three student for two weeks in her house without the knowledge of either the Principal or the parent until when the class teacher called parents to find out why the boy had not reported at the beginning of the term.

Good school fences are therefore important because not only do they ensure security of students but also restrict some students to sneak from school.

In addition, 175(45.57 %) Dropouts were strongly in agreement that some teachers favored some students, 95(24.74%) were in agreement, 84(21.88%) were neutral, 20(5.21%) were in disagreement and 10(2.60%) were in strong disagreement.
During the interview session, one DQASO claimed,

Teachers have always favoured girls especially during marking and while administering punishment. They tend to give more marks to girls in the name of encouraging them while others administer lighter punishments to girls compared to the boys.

Three qualitative studies found that students who persisted in school despite the odds mentioned that school staff had taken an interest in them and saw their successes as important (Vang, 2010; McMillan & Reed 2009; Garnier & Stein, 2008). These studies found that interpersonal relations and professional competence were important to at-risk students. Lunenburg (2009) cited several researchers who have found that high-achieving and low-achieving students are treated differently by their teachers. This differential treatment includes being called on less often, receiving more criticism for failure, and facing lower expectations.

According to Headden (2009), at-risk students sense their teachers’ lower regard for their personal worth in their classrooms, they eventually believe this is true, and they live up to these low expectations. The U.S. Department of Education (2006) provides a synopsis of the research on teachers’ impacts on student persistence in school. Kemple (2011) says that, dropouts are less likely to believe that their teachers are interested in them. Other studies found that when school staff shared values, experience common activities and social interaction patterns, and embrace an attitude of caring, the school had a lower dropout rate (Natale, 2012; Good, 2009; Lee & Burkham 2011). Furthermore, 139(36.19%) of the dropouts strongly felt that cut off
points for boys to join universities being higher than girls discouraged some boys from going to school.

The respondents were 100(26.04%) in agreement, 59(15.37%) neutral, 45(11.72%) in disagreement and 41(10.68%) in strong disagreement. However, the distribution of percentages was even indicating that cut off points was neither agreed upon nor denied by the dropouts.

This means that as much as cut off points is a factor, it is not solely responsible for the dropping from school. However, it is worth noting that the cut off points for the 2010 KCSE candidates was for example 63 points for the male students and 61 points for female students. Lower points for the female students are considered to be some form of affirmative action to increase the number of female students enrolling in universities (HELB, 2012). Republic of Kenya (2013) reports that, Twenty-five percent of Government University Scholarships were reserved for women who qualified for university entrance. As a result of this, the boys dropped from school because they were socially discouraged by high marks needed for their university entry.

This was confirmed during interview with one DQASO, who said,

It is true that girls are taken for admission to University at one or two points less, but this is not meant to discourage boys from working hard. It is affirmative action by the Government to bring the girls to the level of the boys since they are marginalized.
High cut off points for students demoralize them to pursue their higher education (Kemple, 2011). Rumberger (2007) found out that, students’ low expectations for their educational futures are associated with early high school dropout (Driscoll, 2011). The typical high school dropout is expected to finish high school and attend a junior college, while the typical high school graduate expects to complete two to four years of college (Ekstrom et al., 2009). Morrison & Skiba (2011) found out that variables related to expectations of success in the future act as protective factors against dropping out.

Girls’ schools were more than boys’ schools. This aspect was strongly agreed upon by 124(32.29%), 120(31.25% who agreed, 99(25.78%) who were neutral, 40(10.42%) who disagreed and 1(0.26%) who strongly disagreed.

Those who agreed were more than those who disagreed indicating that boys’ schools being lesser than girls’ schools contributed to the escalating dropout rate of boys. This was supported by the PTA Chairmen who revealed that most mixed schools had been converted into girls’ schools. This is similar to Nyeri as revealed by DQASO Report on Academic Performance, Nyeri County, 2012 which says that most of the mixed secondary schools in the region had been converted into girls’ boarding schools which left boys with few chances for secondary schooling. This was in agreement with the report of class teachers on the type of school as seen in figure 5.1.
From the Figure above, it is evident that majority of the schools 94 (47.0%) were mixed day while 51 (25.5%) of the schools were mixed day and boarding. In addition, 20(10.0%) of the schools were Girls Boarding while 19(9.5%) and 16 (8.0%) of the schools were Boys’ Boarding and Mixed boarding respectively. From the findings, girls had 71(35.5%) chances of being in schools while boys had 35(17.5) chances of being in school.

In addition, the class teachers were asked to state and compare the bed capacity of the boys and girls and the findings were as indicated in figure 5.2 that follows.
From the findings it is clear that 131 (65.50%) of the class teachers indicated that girls have more bed space compared to their male counterparts while 51 (25.50%) of them indicated that boys have more bed space. A further 20 (10.00%) of the class teachers indicated that both the boys and girls had equal bed capacity. The teachers were further asked to indicate the gender of students that parents preferred to enroll as boarders and the findings were as indicated in Figure 5.3 overleaf:
Figure 5.3: Preferred Gender for Boarding as reported by Class Teachers (n = 384)

From Figure 5.3, it can be seen that 120 (60.00%) of the class teachers indicated that parents preferred to enroll girls as boarders while another 71 (35.50%) of them indicating that parents preferred to enroll boys as boarders. At the same time, 9 (4.50%) of the class teachers revealed that parents preferred both boys and girls to be boarders in the schools.

Since boys had lesser chances of being in school than girls, this could easily limit their chances for readmission after dropping out. The school being a social environment, the girls had therefore a better social environment than the boys in terms of quantity. Girls’ schools in Vihiga County being more than boys’ could be attributed to a general feeling that since girls were vulnerable, they needed to be considered first. The current study is similar to the study by Oram (2009) which revealed that in some areas like Tetu District, Kenya, there was only one boys’
boarding school which is a clear indication that stakeholders are putting more emphasis on the girl-child education at the expense of the boy-child education. Most of the mixed secondary schools in the region had been also converted to girls’ boarding schools leaving the boys with few options.

From the foregoing discussions, it can be implied that that there were more chances for girls to study and this motivated them to study. Few schools for boys translated into congestion of students encouraging some of them to drop out of school at the minimum provocation.

Relationship between parents and students influenced some to drop from school as reported by most 109(28.39%) of the Dropouts that strongly agreed. Those who agreed were 99(25.78%), 85(22.14%) were neutral, 75(19.53%) disagreed and 16(4.17%) strongly disagreed. This was also supported by the class teachers 131(65.5%) who reported that more girls had more bed capacity than boys. One chief who was interviewed revealed that,

Poor rapport between fathers and their sons are reflected in limited allocation of funds to boys, unlike girls by the male dominated Constituency Development Fund Committees. These funds are used to build girls’ dormitories.

The poor relationship as revealed by one of the chiefs was due to the fathers being hard on their sons while disciplining them because they wished their sons to have a stable economic base to fulfill their cultural stereotyped obligation of taking care of their families. One PTA Chairmen said that some parents were not keen at taking their boys to boarding schools because they wanted to monitor their behavior. Parent-
child relationships have been found to be very influential in whether or not a student decides to stay in school (Marcotte et al., 2012). The better the relationship, as demonstrated through positive interaction and parental involvement, the more likely the student will stay in school (Gold & Reis, 2009). This is because they are motivated to build and equip the school. If a student does not have a good relationship with his/her parents, the more likely they are not to pay fees promptly for the student (Connell, 2010).

Relational factors related to dropping out include quality of parent relations with the school, the family structure, and the quality of mother-child relationships (Teachman et al., 2010). Garneir & Stein (2008) found a significant association between positive mother-child relationships early in childhood and not dropping out. Possible explanations for this association include protective effects of the mother-child relationship contributing to social competence and school engagement. The transmission and internalizing of positive values is better facilitated through good mother-child relationships. Younge, et al., (2007) found a relationship between dropout status and mother hostility and rejection of their sons. Elliott et al., (2011) found that children who are strongly attached to their families are more likely to develop a stronger respect for conventional institutions such as schools.

Fear to fail KCSE led some students to drop from school. Most dropouts strongly agreed 175(45.52%) that students dropped out of school because they feared to fail exams. Those who agreed were 102(26.56%), 50(13.02%) were neutral, 40(10.42%)
disagreed and 17(4.435) strongly disagreed. This was reflected in the class teachers’ response when they were asked about the gender that turned up for remedial work. They indicated that more girls than boys responded for remedial classes favorably. This is in agreement with Rumberger (2009) who argues that, boys rarely seek for help if they have a difficulty in a subject of study. Instead they use inappropriate ways to seek the attention of teachers and get suspended or expelled for their troubles.

Since the 1960s, researchers have identified a relationship between fears to ask for help from teachers and dropping out (Ryan et al., 2012: Kennedy & Kennedy, 2013). According to Mann (1986), students who fear to ask for help, at least once are 45% more likely to drop out. Students who fear to ask for help twice are 90% more likely to drop out.

Researchers have consistently found that fear to ask for help is the most powerful predictor of dropping out at the individual level (Denson & Schumacker, 2008: Rumberger, 2007). In 1992, Bairley (2009) showed that 90% of male dropouts feared to ask voluntarily for help from their instructors (Goldschmidt & Wang, 2009). Hudson (2012) found that, for students who feared to ask for help, the highest risk periods were the end of each school year. They explained this finding by stating,

> Perhaps as these students approach the end of a school year, facing the possibility of being strangers in the examination room choose to drop out rather than experience the shame of failure.
Students who fear to fail English Examination drop from school because they assume English is the cornerstone of other subjects (Gottfredson, 2013). Twenty-five percent of Hispanic dropouts are two years behind in English-language proficiency by the eighth grade (Hahn & Danzberger, 2009). Limited English Proficient (LEP) students in Texas, were found to be at a greater risk for dropping out throughout high school than students who were considered to be History proficient (Koontz, 2010). This implies that performance of English could be poor in the area of study.

Examinations are regarded highly in schools and a student is regarded having gone to school only after passing examinations (Eshiwani, 1990). This implies that students’ dropout rate will keep on increasing. The current study observes that there is need for the government to encourage vocational programs to reduce the dropout rate of students. Weber (2007) found that, the dropout rate for vocational students is significantly lower than that for academic students. Friedenberg (2009) summarized the many studies that, have shown a positive relationship between participating in vocational/technology education and staying in school. Students who participate in these courses are more motivated because they are able to learn academic skills in a more applied setting, while learning skills that may be used to gain employment in the future. Montegomer et al. (2009) found out that, most high school dropouts were taking courses from the general curriculum. In addition, she noted that vocational students have a more positive attitude toward school, clear goals, and a general satisfaction with life. Montecel et al., (2011) found out that, the more vocational
education at-risk students had, the less likely they were to drop out. Natale (2012) also discovered that, students enrolled in vocational programs were less likely to drop out than students enrolled in the traditional program.

Lastly, 90(23.44%) Dropouts strongly agreed that when students are given leadership roles, they rarely drop from school. Other responses were 125(32.55%) in agreement, 90(23.44%) neutral, 72(18.75%) in disagreement and 7(1.82%) in strong disagreement. This is in agreement with the reports by Eagly (2012) and FIDA (2005) which say that, when students are given leadership roles, girls may be encouraged to learn skills valued in female-dominated fields, while boys might learn leadership skills for male-dominated occupations. Eagly & Karau, (2008) further argue that, sex discrimination is a major factor in leadership appointments in the patriarchal society. It was observed that most of the prefects in mixed schools were girls and therefore got skills valued in female dominated fields. Boys felt neglected for the future by the schools and therefore opted to drop out of school because of the gender stereotyped notion that leadership roles are usually perceived as masculine. This implies that a type of sex that is favoured with leadership appointments rarely drop out of school.

Leadership roles are given to students as a way of enhancing discipline which has a correlation with dropout rate (Egyed et al., 2010). Students with disciplinary problems are more likely to drop out. A study of African-American dropouts in one state showed that approximately 80% of African-American dropouts had been
suspended (Goldschmidt & Wang, 2009: Barnes, 2006). They discovered that the most important factor for late dropouts is misbehaving, which includes out-of-school suspension. African-American males and Hispanic males dropped out because their schools lacked the capacity and resources to handle their disruptive conduct. Suspensions/expulsions send a strong message that a students’ behavior is unacceptable and has no place in school (Wheelock & Dorman, 2008: Bailey & Brown, 2008). Weber (2007) found that African-American males gave frequent suspensions as a reason for dropping out second to feeling alienated from school, with African-American males giving suspensions as a reason more than any other race by gender group. Students who are disciplined frequently over time begin to have trouble in distinguishing between their behavior and their core identity. The current study argues that because they continually get the message that their behavior has no place in school, they begin to feel they have no place in school.

Sex discrimination therefore, influenced dropout rate of students in the area of study. It was reflected by administration of capital punishment, poor boarding facilities for boys, poor fences in boys’ schools, high cut off points for boys in university entry, poor rapport between parents and their sons and leadership roles being concentrated on girls than boys. The most notable factor was capital punishment. Having looked at how sex discrimination influenced dropout rate of students, the researcher looked at if gender stereotype influenced dropout rate of students.
5.1.2 Gender Stereotype

The researcher sought to assess if gender stereotype contributed to the escalating boys' dropout rate as shown in Table 5.2 that follows overleaf:

Table 5.2: Gender Stereotype as indicated by Students in School (n = 399)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of Gender Stereotype</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>F %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students dropped to inherit family property</td>
<td>572 72.77</td>
<td>97 12.63</td>
<td>50 6.51</td>
<td>49 6.38</td>
<td>0 0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students dropped to provide security to society</td>
<td>470 59.80</td>
<td>101 13.15</td>
<td>90 11.72</td>
<td>60 7.81</td>
<td>47 6.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of role models for boys made some to drop</td>
<td>459 58.40</td>
<td>170 15.63</td>
<td>40 5.21</td>
<td>50 6.51</td>
<td>67 8.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision by 2010 Constitution for equitable inheritance of family property</td>
<td>389 49.49</td>
<td>276 35.94</td>
<td>56 7.29</td>
<td>40 5.21</td>
<td>7 0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are more female than male teachers</td>
<td>389 49.49</td>
<td>276 35.95</td>
<td>56 7.29</td>
<td>40 5.21</td>
<td>7 0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students dropped out of school because the society expected them to marry</td>
<td>286 37.24</td>
<td>96 12.89</td>
<td>85 11.07</td>
<td>75 9.77</td>
<td>223 29.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SOURCE*: Field Data (2012)

Some boys dropped from school because they knew they would inherit family property. This factor was strongly agreed by 572(72.77%), those who agreed were 97(12.63%) , those who were neutral were 50(6.51%) and those who disagreed were
49(6.38%). This was common with students whose parents had large tracts of land as revealed by one of the PTA Chairmen.

The boys dropped from school to manage the farms. During an interview with PTA chairmen, one respondent revealed,

In this culture, it is the boys who inherit family property and they are informed of this during circumcision. So, they are aware of it and this makes some of them work very hard while on the farm because they know they are working on their own farm unlike the girls who know that they will get married someday. This makes some boys drop out of school to go and work in the farm.

At the same time, another PTA Chairman stated,

There is a belief that people go to school to look for wealth and the most valued wealth in this community is land for farming, this makes students who come from families with large tracks of land drop out of school since they are already assured of the wealth.

This can be supported by Pande et al. (2005) who argues that children from wealthy families do not take education seriously because they look at the wealth of their parents. Some students dropped out of school to provide security against hostile neighbouring communities. This was strongly agreed by 470(59.80%), 101(13.15%) who agreed, 90(11.725) who were undecided, 60(7.81%) who disagreed and 479(6.12%) who strongly disagreed. Those who were undecided were significant because security is only an issue with regions that neighbor hostile communities. One of the chiefs who were interviewed revealed that there was a mass dropout of boys from schools in Hamisi District in 2008. This could be attributed to the 2007 Post
Election Violence for they opted to provide security against their neighbouring Kalenjin Tribe.

This is similar with Jothie (2012) and Ritzer (2007) who says that, security is a major challenge in areas surrounded by hostile communities. They give an example of Kisii which is located in a unique geographical location among Bantu speaking groups in that it is surrounded on all sides by initially, and later sporadically hostile Nilotic communities of the Luo, Kipsigis, Nandi, and Maasai. Boys are likely to drop from school in such like an area to defend the society against cattle-raiding neighboring communities. According to Chiuri & Kinmie (2005), to this day, the Kisii have a reputation of being tough, emotionally labile, resilient, and very industrious. The implication of this is that social crimes like hostilities among neighbouring tribe can affect education of a country because boys can be lured to being members of vigilant groups

Lack of role models for students made them drop from school. This was supported by 459(58.40%) students still in school who strongly agreed, 120(15.63%) who agreed, 40(5.21%) who were neutral 40(5.21%) who disagreed and 50(6.51%) who strongly disagreed. The demographic characteristics in terms of leadership indicated that in the county, 526(67%) of the principles were females, 60% of the deputy head teachers were females and 546(68.2%) of the director of studies were females. The county also had produced female head of departments in other sectors in the country. It had for instance, 6 District Education Officers who are females, 12 District Quality
Assurance and Standard officers who were females, one Vice Chancellor of a Public University in Kenya and 25 Zonal Coordinators working in various parts of the county (DQASOs Office 2013, Vihiga, Kenya). The current study notes that, the county of study had a high number of women 420(47.2%) who vied for posts of County Representatives in the Civic Elections of 2013 as revealed by one of the chiefs. The current study also established that many females 556(62%) at high profile levels of leadership in the country motivated girls to learn (DQASO Report on Secondary School Performance Vihiga County, 2012).

Similarly, one of the chiefs revealed that most men in Tiriki, Vihiga, county were lost in drinking traditional brews which made them irresponsible in their obligation for the education of their children.

This does not mean that men had not excelled in the county of study. The study found that there were men who were professors in the county. From the DQASO’ Report on Gender and Education(2012) it was established that, there were male professors in the county who held positions like Deputy Vice Chancellor Administration and Planning, Chairmen of departments in Various Universities, Directors of Education at various levels and education officers. However, their impact to boys was low because of negative attitude by the community and assumption of the society because they saw them as usual people since they stayed in their midst.
Furthermore, 465 (59.16%) Students in school indicated that the provision by the 2010 Kenyan Constitution to allow women to access property was motivating girls to learn and discouraging boys from going to school. Those that agreed were 112 (14.58%), 13 (12.11%) were neutral, 87 (11.33%) disagreed and 11 (2.86%) strongly disagreed. This is similar to the study by Bridgeland et al. (2009) which says that when one gender type is preferred in the sharing of the state resources, it affects negatively the other gender type.

Asiema (2007) observes differently in his argument that cultural patriarchal practices which gave girls no traditional rights to succession were to stay. He argues that this would make the ladies to have double property. However, the take of the current study is that since succession is affecting education of both boys and the girls, girls should be allowed to inherit paternal property to the extent that they are disadvantaged in their matrimonial home.

The ratio should be smaller than that of the boys especially if they have settled marriages. This will reduce the stress on boys and therefore concentrate on studies. There were more female teachers than male teachers. This is according to students in school 389 (49.49%) who strongly agreed, 276 (35.94) who agreed, 56 (7.29%) who were neutral, 40 (5.21) who disagreed and 7 (0.91%) who strongly disagreed. This was supported by DQASO Report, Vihiga County, on staffing (2013) which revealed that most females (76.0%) might have opted to be teachers because they assumed that teachers have free time to be with their families unlike other professions. This is in
agreement with Bailey (2009) who says that in Jamaica, in 2000/2001 out of 22,269 teachers at the secondary level, 17,135 (76.9%) were females and 5,134 (23.1%) were males, with females dominating in all school types except in the vocational/agricultural schools. The studies of Kanake (1998) and Cicirelli (1982) support the findings by arguing that women feel compelled to pursue educational pathways that lead to occupations that allow for long leaves of absence, so that they can be allowed to stay at home as mothers support the same. Lawn & Grace (2010) further elucidates that, teaching has become defined in the popular domain as an extension of women’s domestic role in the home in its association with caring for and nurturing children. The current study found out that women moved into teaching positions out of necessity due to the conditions created by educated males either leaving or choosing to enter better-paid professions. The gender stereotype displayed here could be a strong motivation enough for the girl child education and a hindrance to the education of boys. This could be an explanation why we have more girls than boys completing school.

The number of male teachers being lower than female teachers has led to a lower male student-teacher ratio leading boys to drop from school. Research has shown that pupil-teacher ratios are one method of reducing the incidences of dropouts (Carranza, 2009: Natriello, et al., 2007). Fitzpatrick & Yoels (2009) found that, pupil-teacher ratios were significant predictors of dropout rates at the state level. According to McNeal (2007), larger pupil-teacher ratios may increase a student’s likelihood of
dropping out by decreasing the number of interactions between students and teachers. Schools with larger ratios may make it difficult for at-risk students to seek help. Sargent (2011) found that the pupil/teacher ratio at a school significantly affects a student’s likelihood of dropping out.

Lastly, 286(37.24%) of the students still in school strongly agreed that some students dropped out of school because they wanted to marry, 99(12.89%) agreed, 85(11.07%) were undecided, 75(9.77%) disagreed and 223(29.04%) strongly disagreed. Those who disagreed strongly were many probably because some of them were victims of immorality and they were planning to drop from school. These findings corroborated with the sentiments of one PTA chairman who said, there were cases of early marriages among the students. This was majorly brought about by early pregnancies among the girls who were forced to get married to the boys by the girls’ parents. Orthner & Randolf (2009) support that, among many African Societies; a boy is expected to marry at when he is 18 years old and a girl at 16 years old.

It can therefore be concluded that gender stereotype influenced dropout rate of students. The most notable one was students dropping from school so that they could inherit family property. However, gender stereotype influenced more boys than girls to drop from school. Having looked at how gender stereotype influenced dropout rate of students, the researcher looked at if social economic factors influenced dropout rate of students.
5.1.3 Social- Economic factors

The researcher sought to assess using the Class Teachers how economic factors influenced Dropout Rate of Students and the findings were as shown in Table 5.3 that follows overleaf:

Table 5.3: Social-Economic factors in Schools as indicated by Class Teachers (n = 387)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of Gender</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students dropped out to help in farm work</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>70.50</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.50</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students dropped out to take care of their siblings</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were many NGOs supporting education of students</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>44.50</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Field Data (2012)

From Table 5.3 above, Social- Economic problems that students faced disrupted them from academic pursuits. This was strongly supported by 141(70.50%) Class Teachers, 47(23.50%), agreed, 10(5.00%) were neutral and 2(1.00%) disagreed. The students indicated that during harvesting of maize, they were the boys that helped their parents in harvesting. This is echoed by Bonesronning & Bjarne (2004) who argue that, being a male in poorer households has a statistically significant negative...
effect on secondary education due to the opportunity costs of schooling, particularly among low-income families who need them for their labour.

This is so because this study found out that males are used as a means to an end for the family to survive economically. The male might be encouraged to stop school and seek for cheap employment from the upcoming urban centers (Wehlage, 2006). This was revealed by one of the PTA Chairman, who said,

A good number of the boys have been going to Kisumu Town to be employed as security officers and mechanics since it was upgraded to the status of a capital city. The two fields are cheap employment opportunities for people with little education.

One chief added,

The growth of Lwanda Town has attracted 80% of boys and 20% girls from the schools in the neighbourhood who work there as shop stewards. On market days, they sell ropes and ‘drive’ the cattle for the businessmen to the market. The girls sell alternative medicine from concocted herbs.

Another chief said,

78.3% boys drop to mine gold and others engage in harvesting of stones and sand along the Kisumu-Kakemega Road for construction. These businesses have ready market and they do not need a certificate of high learning.

This implies that growth of towns and cities can become an impediment to education if the stakeholders of education are not keen enough to control. Ongalo (2009) argues that both in Kwale and Nairobi, respondents of situation analysis survey of growth of towns and cities, gave poverty as the most important factor for students dropping out
of school (33 percent and 64 percent respectively). In Nairobi 42 percent of the respondents indicated that they would send their sons to school in case of economic crunch in contrast to only 8 percent who decisively stated they would prefer to send their daughters. Mbari (2008) argues that, 58 % of the Kenyan population is living below the poverty line.

This however leads to inability of the poor to meet education cost for their children. Consequently, this becomes a barrier to the education for boys who drop from school to engage in domestic work. Mrutu (2009) observed that, over one million children are out of school in Kenya due to poverty. Some have been forced to drop out of school to earn a living for their families due to rising poverty. It is evident that boy-child labour keeps them out from school (Mutambai, 2013: Roderick, 1993). The labour engaged by the children depends on the geographical region. For example touting is common on the mainland; fishmongers and beach boys are common near the water bodies and caring for younger siblings and picking tea or coffee near where the respective crops are planted (Reinke & Herman, 2012).

The findings in the present study were dissimilar to those of Ondego (2002) which states that, with the little resources that some families have, they preferred to send their boys to school since it was believed that they were more future wealth sources to their parents than the girls. He was supported by Mugisha (2006) who argued that some parents feared to educate girls because they assumed they would get married elsewhere. Furthermore, Brown (2011) indicates that, some girls are withdrawn by
parents in rural areas to assist in household chores like babysitting younger children, accompanying parents to hospital or public gatherings, collecting firewood and water, caring for the sick relatives among others. The girl does most of this work but where there are no girl siblings, the boys are used to perform these tasks.

This clearly shows gender disparity in that boys assist at home only when there are no girls, which affect girls’ education to an extent of dropping from school due to constant absenteeism (World Bank, 2011). In this case the girls have less time to do supplementary reading compared to the boys (Worrell, 2012: Viartanian & Gleason 2010).

However, the arguments are weak because they suffer from overgeneralization. Furthermore, the world has changed since then socially due to globalization (Reinke & Herman 2012). The uniqueness of the current study lies in the fact it does not just appraise positive effect of urbanization to schooling but it looks at the negative effects too.

One PTA Chairman further revealed that sometimes the girl could be in school while the boy was harvesting sand to get money to feed the family. Orfield (2009) argues that, students from poor families are kept out of school because they are so poor such that they cannot afford to hire labour. Hence, such families may decide to encourage their sons to marry so that they can use their wives and children as laborers.

However, even if this seems to affect both boys and girls depending on the family status, boys are most hit because they are the ones who drop first to search for a wife.
Ajayi (2010) observed that, early marriages were rampant in miraa, tea and coffee growing areas in Meru, Embu and Meru North. Lack of economic alternatives in the labour market is a factor that influences boys to drop-out of school prematurely. Many boys perceive marriage as an escape from family poverty (Kitetu, 2009; Tapscott, 2009). Boys sometimes offer to go and work as care takers so as to raise money for their siblings’ education (Kimani, 2005). This is as a result of the education system in Kenya failing to address the special circumstances of poor families. The current study argues that even with the subsidized secondary education by the government, parents still have a responsibility of providing the students with learning materials and other resources. Some boys dropped out of school to work on farms because they were taking care of their siblings.

This aspect was strongly agreed by 152(76.00%) Class Teachers, 40(20.00%) agreed, 8(4.00%) were neutral and none disagreed. This shows that parents were ignoring their parental obligations of nurturing their children. They however reported that, cheap employment opportunities attracted more boys than girls. This was triggered by the gendered stereotype notion as revealed by 80% of the Cultural Keepers who argued that boys were to be the bread winners of their families. This is in agreement with MOEST (2013) in her report which says that there was high dropout rate in schools of the boy-child in Central Province, Kenya. The report said that some boys dropped out of school to work in the coffee farms, quarries and rice farms. The high
poverty level in some parts of Mwea, Nyandarua and Murang’a Counties had forced the boy-child to drop from school for cheap employment in the rice and coffee farms. Similarly, most boys in Vihiga County dropped out of school to work in tea farms and quarries as revealed by one of the PTA Chairman because culture does not allow girls to do heavy manual work (Elliott et al. 2011). This is supported by an argument that women earn less money than men in America (Boyle et al. 2008: Mensch & Lloyd 1998). The current study has an edge over Boyle’s because it argues that the gap between women’s earnings and those of men was very large. Men earned 76 cents for every dollar of women’s earnings in one of the tea factories in Vihiga County (RoK; Ministry of Strategic Planning, 2006- 2011, 2012). This might have been because of a traditional explanation that women invest less in their work roles than men as revealed by one of the cultural keepers. The explanation further argues that females were more likely to be absent or quit a job due to family pressure. This implies that the wage gap was attracting more boys than girls from school.

In general, families’ ability to invest in the education of their children is limited by their economic and human capital resources (Driscoll, 2011). Financial factors include family income. Single-parent families are more likely to live in poverty. The poverty rate among single-parent families is about 50% (LeCompte & Dworkin, 2009). Almost 20% of dropouts come from families on welfare or from those receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (Hahn & Danzberger, 2009). Orthner & Randolph (2009) found out that, dropout rates have increased over the past
decade for children from families on public assistance. They also found that consistency in parental employment and transitions of welfare are associated with lower dropout rates. Children who live in poverty are more likely to drop out (Goldschmidt & Wang, 2009). Adolescents in low-income families are twice as likely to drop out as adolescents in middle-income families, and five times as likely as adolescents in high income families (Kithyo & Petrina, 2010).

Class teachers who strongly agreed that there were many Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) sponsoring students’ education were 89(44.50%), 76(38.00) agreed, 26(13.00) were neutral, 4(2.00%) disagreed and 5(2.50%) strongly disagreed. The county had over 5 NGOs focused on sensitization of girl-child education as revealed by one of the PTA Chairman. This is similar to the study by Ondego (2002) which says that, in Suba in Nyanza Province, NGOs are increasingly participating in contributing to the delivery of education services for more girls than boys. Boys drop out easily because they have no sponsors to help them in paying fees. Similar pattern was evidenced in Central province, Kenya which was partly attributed to the many NGOs campaigning for the girl child education (Piekarska, 2012; Titus, 2011). This might be attributed to affirmative action.

This is contrary to a research study carried out by Vang (2010) in Mombasa on factors contributing to school drop out in public secondary schools which revealed that 247(52.4%) respondents valued boys’ education better than that of girls. Families which cannot easily afford to send both sons and daughters to school reckon that
financial returns on the expenditure for girls’ education are a good deal smaller than those of boys. The argument being that girls will eventually leave their parents on getting married, therefore their education is seen as a financial asset to the in-laws rather than biological relatives (MOEST, 2008; UNESCO, 2002). It can be implied that the role of NGOs had an influence of the girl education in the county. Boys might have dropped out of school because little assistance was given to them since they were assumed to be doing well. For there to be equity in education, there is need for NGOs to sponsor both girls and boys in secondary schools equitably.

It can be conclude that social-economic factor influenced the dropout rate of students. The most notable one was students dropping from school to look for employment to support their siblings. Having looked at the social-economic factors that influenced dropout rate of students, the researcher sought to examine how social-factors influenced dropout rate of students.

5.1.4 Socio-Cultural Factors

The researcher sought to establish from Principals how socio-cultural factors affected dropout of students in schools and the findings were as shown in Table 5.4 that follows overleaf:
Table 5.4: Socio-cultural factors as indicated by Principals (n = 34)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-cultural Factors</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural practices affected completion rate of students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys marry after circumcision</td>
<td>41 (85.42%)</td>
<td>7 (14.58%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female teachers are more qualified than male teachers because culture favoured them</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>15 (31.25%)</td>
<td>8 (16.67%)</td>
<td>8 (16.67%)</td>
<td>5 (10.42%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are more ladies in leadership positions as role models</td>
<td>1 (2.08%)</td>
<td>2 (4.17%)</td>
<td>1 (2.08%)</td>
<td>10 (20.83%)</td>
<td>34 (70.83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misinterpretation of affirmative action increased dropout rate of students</td>
<td>9 (18.75%)</td>
<td>17 (35.42%)</td>
<td>16 (33.33%)</td>
<td>3 (6.25%)</td>
<td>3 (6.25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some students feared to seek for readmission after dropping from school</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>16 (33.33%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>5 (10.42%)</td>
<td>3 (6.25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative action policy in schools</td>
<td>16 (33.33%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>15 (31.25%)</td>
<td>5 (10.42%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is attitude that it is easier to teach girls than boys</td>
<td>17 (35.42%)</td>
<td>15 (31.25%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>4 (8.33%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of pedagogical skill to teach boys and girls</td>
<td>5 (10.42%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>9 (18.75%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>10 (20.84%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misinterpretation of affirmative action increased dropout rate of students</td>
<td>2 (4.17%)</td>
<td>9 (18.75%)</td>
<td>12 (25.00%)</td>
<td>20 (41.67%)</td>
<td>5 (10.42%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE:** Field Data (2012)

From Table 5.4, it is evident that 41(85.42%) Principals strongly accepted the fact that culture can influence the dropout rate of students and 7(14.58%) agreed.
However, neither none were neutral nor in disagreement. This shows that cultural practices greatly influenced the escalating dropout rate of boys in the county.

During the interview with one of the cultural keepers, he said,

Boys play a major role of protecting the family after circumcision. They are considered to be mature. We need them in the society to help us safeguard our culture because at graduation, we administer them oaths to protect our beliefs.

This concurs with Kimani (2005) who argues that, cultural norms influence choices made by African girls, boys, women and men in life. However, the current study supersedes Kimani’s by arguing that traditional gender roles of men and women have changed. The implication of this is that men and women have to work as partners. It agrees with Office of Educational Research and Improvement (2007) Report which says that the effectiveness of third world countries’ development efforts and abilities to sustain them are dependent on the full utilization of all human resources that is, men and women. The issue of cultural activities influencing dropout rate of students was strongly supported by the cultural keepers who were interviewed. One of the Cultural Keepers who was interviewed said,

Bull fighting is our culture and it there to stay. It is helps the rich and the poor to meet. *Hata akina Khalwale na Murila hutoka* Nairobi. *Chang’aa* is also in plenty. It is the time to enjoy ourselves both the young and the old.

Bull fighting affected boys’ education because of the festivities that accompanied. Drunken students could not cope up with learning. This argument was supported by
the cultural keepers who were interviewed and indicated that 80% of the participants in the ceremony were boys.

One of them indicated,

> My role is to safeguard our culture. Our cultural practices include bull fighting and circumcision ceremonies. I ensure that boys are circumcised at about 15 years. After circumcision they are supposed to present the bulls for the competitions. Our intention is to make them more cultured although some of them end up dropping out of school.

Bull fighting affects attendance since students are withdrawn from school to train the bulls before presenting them for the competitions (Mrutu, 2009). Kronick & Hargis (2008) summarized the findings regarding the relationship between school attendances and dropping out. School attendance has been determined to be a good predictor of dropping out. They further argued that non-attendance in elementary school is moderately correlated with non-attendance in high school and eventually dropping out. A child who regularly attended school in the early grades and began to miss in high school is very different from the child who had excessive absences from the beginning (Mann, 1986). The latter child is more likely to be involved in drugs and alcohol.

Changes in family structure have disproportionately hurt boys more than girls. The current study argues that there is need for the cultural keepers to understand that culture is dynamic and therefore disregard the aspects that can hinder education. The current study is in agreement with Ajayi (2010) and Swann & Graddol (1988) who
say that, in some countries like Nigeria, Lesotho and Namibia, boys’ dropout exceeded that of girls’ because of culture. They for example reveal that Namibia had 122(17.1%) girls and 132(20.8 %) boys’ dropouts. This study claims that culture is more an influencing factor in escalating boy child dropout rate. The findings reveal that in view of the efforts being made for equal education, there is a paradigm shift in gender gaps. On the whole, boys are dropping out of education in larger numbers than girls.

Boys dropped from school to marry after circumcision which strongly agreed upon by 12(25.00%) Principals, 15(31.25%) who agreed, 8(16.67%) who were neutral, 8(16.67%) who disagreed and 5(10.42%) who strongly disagreed.

In an interview with one of the cultural keepers where circumcision is highly regarded, one of them said,

After circumcision, boys can be recognized as grownups. They are free to marry and take care of their families. That is why we do not circumcise young boys as some are doing.

However, this is not true in Samburu, Kenya. Nafula et al. (2005) argue that girls drop out of school as the boys are left to continue with their education. Survey carried out indicates that girls are forced to early marriage at a tender age of 13 years. Threats of curses befalling those who refuse to get married make it difficult for them to resist early marriages. Some continue with secondary school education after marriage but when economic conditions become tough they quit school (Oram, 2010).
The current study looks at early marriage by students in the light of the study of Barngetuny (1999) which found out that, many men tend to shun highly educated females, especially where candidacy for marriage is concerned. He says that most of the men view such women as rude, uncooperative and unable to manage house work. The current study argues that instead of these perceptions discouraging some female graduates from continuing with postgraduate studies, they pursued further their academic aspirations as compensation to prove their relevance. As boys dropped to search for the elusive girls for marriage, the girls continued with studies.

Following the interview with the one of the PTA chairman about boys’ circumcision, it was found out that some boys dropped out of school after circumcision because they took time to heal. Others reported to school late prompting severe punishment by the teachers. This discouraged them from schooling. This was in contrast with girls in the county who were given readmission chances after staying out due to pregnancy (Economic Survey, 2010). Moreover, girls were provided with sanitary towels by outsourced NGOs to supplement the government (UNICEF, 2010).

The principals were also to respond to the statement that female teachers were more qualified than male teachers because culture favoured them. This was reported by 1(2.08%) Principals who strongly agreed that female teachers had higher qualifications than male teachers; 2(4.17%) agreed, 1(2.08) were neutral, 10(20.85) disagreed and 34(70.88%) strongly disagreed. The findings reveal that the principals did not agree that female teachers were more qualified than male teachers. This could
have a risen as a result of male principals that were interviewed being more than female principals. They were biased due to cultural beliefs that women cannot out shine women in any way.

The responds of the Principals were also in contrary to the report from Vihiga County DQASOs’ Office (2012) that had data of teachers’ qualifications reveals that female teachers had higher qualifications than female qualifications. The same report reveals that teachers’ on Study Leave said that in 2011 were 426(80%). However, 364(60 %) females of the total were on study leave indicating that more females were enrolling for higher education than males. Males preferred professions that could not tie them to homes as revealed by one of the DQASOs while ladies preferred teaching courses so that they can look after the homes.

Of interest is that more females (75%) preferred short courses on gender. One DQASO commended that promotions were pegged to people who had relevant qualifications and who had attended short term courses like on gender, Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Logically, even if some male teachers were pursuing further studies, few were considered for promotions because of irrelevant qualifications. This had an effect on the girl completion rate because the study by Alexander (2008) reveals that higher female education makes women better informed mothers which enable them to contribute to education of their children especially girls.
Furthermore, when the females advance their studies they have more chances of job promotion (Connell, 2010; Eshiwani 1985). This provides motivation for the girls in schools to study. On the contrary, this has a negative effect to the boys because culture teaches them to be the leaders. They feel socially demoralized and drop out of school. This finding is similar to the study by Bailey (2009) which says that, in Jamaica 73 percent of female teachers held positions as principals because they had higher qualifications than males, whereas 27 percent of the male teaching force held appointments at this level in Jamaica. This could be the reason why females were proportionately represented at the higher level of the teaching career as principals.

Felter (2011) says that, teacher education and experience influence dropout rate of students. He argues that, the higher the proportion of experienced new teachers at school, the lower the dropout rate. He further elucidates that the higher the percentage of teachers with only a Bachelor’s degree, the lower the dropout rate. These relationships hold even after controlling for poverty, school size, and urban location. Years of experience and years of education were associated with the dropout rate.

The current study also found that affirmative action policy in some schools was being misinterpreted and therefore misrepresented. Consequently, it was influencing the dropout rate of students. According to the study, 12(25.0%) strongly agreed, 16(33.33%) agreed, 12(25.05) were neutral, 5(10.425) disagreed and 3(6.25%) strongly disagreed. Most of the teachers thought that affirmative action is equivalent to girl child education. The Educational Secretary while releasing the KCSE Results
(2013) observed that, the boys were becoming an endangered species academically probably because of the more publicity of girl child education at the expense of boy child education.

According to the current study, some implementers of affirmative action policy in education sector were using wrong solutions to the girls’ perceived problems. It appears as if FIDA was pushing for the suppression of boys. It seems nobody is speaking for the boys. We have turned our focus to the girl more than the boy till there is a lapse. The boy has suffered for a long time from the time of Pharaoh, (Exodus, 1:16). He has been left to try life on his own. There is need to educate both boys and girls equally to avoid the lapse. The society needs to know that there was Adam growing with Eve (Genesis, 1:27). We need to educate the boys of their major responsibility that they are the foundation of the house and if the foundation is weak the society will be weak. This education to the boys should go along side with the girls.

According to the current study, 16(33.33%) Principals strongly agreed to the fact that more girls sought intervention for re-admission than boys, 12(25.00%) agreed, 15(31.25%) were neutral and 5(10.42%) disagreed. When the boys and girls who had dropped out of school were interviewed they gave various unique reasons based on their sex why they dropped. Those unique reasons made it easier for girls to seek readmission and harder for boys to opt to remain at home. Some boys were pulled away from school by the draw of outside employment.
The DQASO Report (2013), Vihiga County, Kenya, on student dropout, revealed that,

It appears for boys, the need to work and to earn is part and parcel of the pressure to “man up” to support self and family, to pay rent and buy food. Girls want to get money for perfumes and clothes. The girls seem to desire to have more access to social service programs.

DQASO Report (2012) on Student Dropout said,

There was need for boys to work towards establishing and sustaining a family in the future. Girls worked for short term reasons. They were interested with getting cosmetics, clothes and perfumes.

One PTA Chairman who was interviewed revealed that,

Some boys drop from school to start what they think of as a career. Once they get it, none wish to abandon it and go back to school. They go to Kisumu where they work as mechanics and security officers.

Another PTA Chairman said,

Girls drop out of school due to pregnancy. After delivery they opt to go back to school. They leave their children with their mothers. The boy responsible for the pregnancy is forced to be sending money for the upkeep of the child. This makes him if he is a student to drop from school to look for cheap employment to get money.

It is evident from this that the girls dropped out for short lived reasons and once they got satisfied they went back to school. Boys dropped out to make and sustain a home
and after getting it, they could not go back to school; instead, they remained at home to care for the family.

In support of this, the National Policy of Education in MOEST (2005) requires girls who are pregnant to go back to school. However, 5(10.42%) Principals disagreed because not all girls who were pregnant sought readmission. This was because despite the fact that there was a policy for re-enrollment for girls, there were cultural obstacles that hindered them (Mbari, 2008; Musambayi, 2004). It was reported that the policy lacked proper monitoring evaluation mechanisms (Fatuma & Sifuna, 2006). Worse still in some communities, such girls were viewed as adults and were forced to early marriages. In MOEST (2012) Report on Management of Primary and Secondary Curriculum, recommendations are made that a country must critically access existing policies to determine their impact on the survival of students in schooling and then either review them or devise new ones that will help to promote gender equality. The current study supports this because policies in education should not be biased towards one gender.

In addition, attitude amongst the teachers towards boys and girls made boys to feel unwanted and therefore drop from school. 5 (10.42%) Principals strongly agreed, 12(25.0%) agreed, 9(18.75%) were neutral, 12(25.5%) disagreed and 10(20.84%) strongly disagreed to the statement that most teachers had attitude that it was easier to teach girls than boys. During interview with one PTA chairman, he revealed that,
I have noted that some teachers were very negative about boys, some in fact go to the extent of punishing them unfairly and I think this must have led to the drop out of some boys.

This was because the teachers had good relationships with girls as compared with boys as indicated by one principle who said that teachers handle girls with more care than boys. Teacher-student interactions can have a large influence on the likelihood of a student dropping out of high school (Maharaj et al., 2000). The better the relationship between students and teachers, the less likely the student is to drop from school (Akyeampong et al. 2009). However Grobe & Hamilton (2010) disagree with this assertion arguing that the social group that is favoured by the teachers does not perform well in National Examinations. They tend to relax in studying. The current study is however not concerned with performance but dropout rate.

Dropout out of students is not only pegged to performance. A student can be a good performer in class work but still drop out of school.

The principals were again asked to comment if the policy of affirmative action in schools had an effect on the escalating dropout rate of boys from schools. 19(35.42) strongly agreed, 15(31.25%) agreed, 12(25.0%) were neutral and 4(8.33%) disagreed. Affirmative action was embedded in the gender policies which most of the schools had. Affirmative action is meant to help the marginalized group to share the resources of a country. However, if it is not done in moderation, it can lead to a situation where by the oppressed becomes the oppressor. The study found out that there was overemphasis of girl child education at the expense of boy child education. This is
supported with the study of Office of Education, Research and Improvement, (2009) which says that over emphasis on the girl-child education has made the girl to be more socialized than the boy contributing to the decline in boy child completion rate from public secondary schools in Central Province, Kenya.

When the researcher sought to know the frequency of girl child and boy child education campaigns, the report showed that most teachers (95.5%) had severally heard about girl-child education campaign but had never heard of the boy-child education campaign. The report further revealed that gender policies in most schools said that manual work was to be done by boys. Most teachers preferred sending boys to collect books, buy meat and clean staff quarters to avoid being branded.

This is supported by the argument of Rutter et al. (2012) that says that the shifted stereotyped roles that make boys easily abused in school include preparing tea and lunch for teachers at break time and lunchtime respectively, washing utensils and fetching water for teachers.

Abagi (1997) and Eshiwani (1985) also observed that boys waste a lot of learning time when they are sent to teachers’ houses which create room for immorality with their maids and girls. Furthermore, while performing such roles the boys sacrifice their studies hence end up performing poorly in class. This leads to boys dropping out of school. When scrutinized about the gender of students that was favoured by the gender policies, it was discovered that the policies favoured the girls. Boys were less
catered for and this triggered them to consequently drop out of school. The gender policies therefore brought about social differences and these social differences made the boys to drop out of school.

Similarly, Affirmative Action influenced dropout rate of students in Southern Ghana. Girl-child education has been over campaigned at the expense of the boy-child education (Ananga, 2010). The study indicates that a lot of awareness and campaign to support girls’ education has been done. The current study observes that affirmative action policy has been taken to be synonymous with some concrete steps being taken by people, political parties, government organizations and institutions to empower and elevate women as equal partners with men. This school of thought has led to bold steps being taken by African states like women organizing themselves into coalitions or caucuses translating into reverse discrimination. The current study elucidates that to solve this cyclic problem of reverse discrimination gender equality should neither be taken simply to mean equal numbers of men and women in all activities nor treating boys and girls exactly the same. It should rather signify an inspiration to work toward a society in which neither males nor females suffer from poverty in many forms, and in which boys and girls are able to live equally fulfilling lives. This will enhance social cohesion.

This argument will correct the findings of the study by Siegel (2013) which reveal that girls are socialized to know that their brothers’ education is much more important than theirs and they are ready to drop-out of school for the sake of their brothers.
Fatuma & Sifuna (2006) concurs with Schlee (2004) by saying that, the way the family foundations are laid down, it is difficult to erase the attitudes and behaviour patterns that are formed about girls and boys. He further observes that the boys and girls are received differently at birth thus attaching diverse value to them. Boys are valued to be superior to girls and hence even in education they are given a priority in some societies.

Lastly, 2(4.17%) Principals strongly agreed that teachers are not better equipped with teaching pedagogies that cater for both boys’ and girls’ psychologies, 9(18.75%) agreed, 12(25.00%) were neutral, 20(41.67%) disagreed and 5(10.42%) strongly disagreed. Most of the principals disagreed because they were not open to make such a critical self-evaluation. However, since the DQASO were neutral, their views that teachers were not equipped pedagogically to manage gender differences in schools were adopted by the study. When they were interviewed on whether the training in gender empowerment had assisted teachers in curriculum implementation they indicated that it had helped only 179 (30.0%) while majority 310(70.0%) had not been assisted while implementing the curriculum. This could be attributed to the fact that few teachers had attended training on gender training and even those who had received it were by mode of workshop.

Many people take knowledge gained in a formal setting more seriously than in an informal setting (Hakielimu, 2007). In view of this it is not a surprise for the teachers who had been trained to confess that the training had not assisted them.
Similar to this, a few 162(25.0%) of the PTA Chairpersons had attended training on gender while 397(75.0%) of the PTA Chairpersons had not attended any training on gender. This situation triggered some ignorance in developing and or implementing gender policies in the schools.

The current study is consistent with the report of Mrutu et al. (2009) which says that, teachers are usually unqualified, with few teaching aids which can sustain the interest of the students. Bryk & Thum (2009) in his survey on making school safe for girls in Rift valley revealed that students may find little reason to attend school if they are not taught according to their gendered psychological expectations in terms of choosing subjects. He observed that many developing countries practise gender streaming in secondary school, directing girls away from Mathematics and Sciences. Teaching practices like giving girls more opportunities than boys to ask and answer questions and girls accessing learning materials more than boys may discourage them in actively participating in educational activities. A study conducted by Chiti (2010) in Kenya and Tanzania on girls education revealed that over 2000 teachers who participated maintained separate rows for boys in class and were given fewer textbooks than girls. Bailey & Brown (2008) argue that, a teacher who does not know the psychology of boys finds it hard to teach in Boys’ High Schools.

Some significant characteristics between boys and girls which teachers should know are that boys tend to read less than girls in their free time (Massiah, 2002). Tapscott (2009) and Gakahu (2005) suggest that, there are other methods to consider while
teaching boys when it comes to literacy. He says that boys tend to read visual images better than girls. Lilan et al. (2005) in their study from California State University saw test scores for boys increase by 11% to 16% when teaching methods were changed to incorporate more images.

It is important, therefore, for the teacher to provide the appropriate activities to highlight boys’ strengths in literacy and properly support their weaknesses. If this is not done, they can drop out of school. The current study argues that since some teachers in the county were not equipped with teaching pedagogies in relation to gender, they implemented hidden curriculum which further discriminated boys. For example, teachers gave more attention to girls, thus encouraging them to speak up in class and become more social. Conversely, boys became quieter and learnt that they should be passive. The implication is that that the social-cultural blind approach has contributed to most boys dropping out of public secondary schools.

From the foregoing discussions, social cultural-factors influenced immensely the dropout rate of students in the county of study. The most notable one was cultural practices which rated 41(85.42%). Having looked at how social-cultural factors influenced dropout rate of students, the researcher carried out a t-test to establish the mean difference in the drop out of the boys and that of the girls in terms of the identified factors as shown in Table 5.5 that follows overleaf:
Table 5.5: Related t – test of Boys’ and Girls’ drop out in terms of the identified factors of dropout rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male Drop out - Female Drop out</td>
<td>-12.04</td>
<td>13.92</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>-17.43 to -6.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SOURCE**: Field Data (2012)

From Table 5.5, it can be seen that the difference in the mean of the boys’ and girls’ drop out was –12.04. The 95% confidence interval for this difference is – 17.43 to – 6.64. Since the confidence interval does not pass through 0.00, the difference was statistically significant at the two-tailed 5% level. This implies that the difference in the mean of the boys and girls dropout in terms of identified factors is so significant statistically that it cannot be ignored.

The difference in the mean of the boys’ and girls’ drop out being –12.04 indicates that the dropout out rate of boys was higher than girls. This was contrary to Djibouti, Cote d’ Ivoire, Niger, and Senegal which had a comparatively lower transition rate of girls as compared with the boys (Barnejee, 2006). This could be attributed to the method of research of Descriptive Statistics that was solely used.
This method fails to bring out a clear statistical significance since the variables are not correlated scientifically and therefore there is a temptation for the conclusions to suffer from overgeneralization. The current study has an edge because it used both Descriptive Statistics and Inferential Statistics to fill the gaps.

5.2 Comparison of responses on factors influencing Dropout Rate of students

The current study had prepared the questionnaires for the students, class teachers and principals to respond to ascertain the factors influencing the escalating dropout rate of students among secondary schools. The responses were therefore compared to find out if there was a significant difference between the means of the respondents. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was done at a level of significance (α) of 0.05 to compare means of responses given by the principals, class teachers and students on factors influencing Dropout Rate among Secondary School Students. The results are summarized in Table 5.6 that follows:

Table 5.6: Comparison of Responses of the identified factors influencing Dropout Rate among Secondary School Students by use of one-way Analysis of Variance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7,468</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.734</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>3,214.802</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>4.111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,222.270</td>
<td>784</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Field Data (2012)
From Table 5.6, it is evident that the F-ratio (between groups mean square) was 0.908 while the p-value was 0.074. The probability of F-ratio (p-value) of 0.074 was higher than the significance level (critical value) of 0.05. Using this analysis therefore, the difference in the means of the responses of the principals, teachers and students were not statistically significant. This indicates that there was no significant difference between the means of principals, teachers and students as far the responses they had about factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students. Therefore Principals, teachers and students were generally in agreement that sex discrimination, gender economy, social cultural factors and gender stereotype influenced dropout rates among students at secondary school levels and any difference in opinion may have occurred by chance.

5.3 Relationship between Factors affecting Dropout Rate of Students and Crime Escalation

The study found out that the factors that influenced dropout of students were sex discrimination, gender stereotype, gender economies and social-cultural factors as revealed by the Principals, Deputy Principals, District Quality Assurance Officers, Class teachers and Chairpersons of schools. The chiefs, Criminal Investigating Officers and Regular police Officers who were interviewed suggested that the school dropouts participated in criminal activities.

Towards achievement of Kenya’s determination to provide Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015, there is an increasing pattern of campaign for the girls’ education
and the boy child seem to be neglected. (Bridgeland et al. 2009). This was supported by one DQASO, who said,

‘Since girls have been marginalized for long, there is need for serious campaign for the girl child education. However, the campaigns should not compromise the boy child education, or else most of them will drop from school and engage in criminal activities.’

This affirmative action is hoped to decrease the dropout rate of students in schools with hope that if dropout rate will be decreased, crime rate will decrease too (Eadie, 2013). Studies carried out on youth and violence show that students who drop out of school join groups that engage in crime in order to draw attention of the public to get economic, social and political development sympathy (Ferge, 2010; Chapman, 2008; Nicolai & Triplehorn, 2003).

In support of this, one Police Officer who was interviewed said,

Most boys are arrested for traffic offences like riding motor cycles without licenses. In mitigation, they say that they are the sole bread winners in their families. We are forced at times to release them to go home and care for their ailing old parents.

In responds, (Oyugi, 2011) suggests that, further studies ought to be carried out to find out the rate of boys and girls that drop out of school and end up in the criminal world because of poverty.

Some of the boys who dropped from school due to gender stereotype participated in drug abuse and burglary. One Divisional Criminal Investigating Officer who was interviewed commented that,
Both boys and girls who Drop from School engage in criminal activities. However, girls engage in minor offences like stealing stones for construction alongside the road. On the other hand, boys participate in high profile crimes like robbery with violence. This is because the society has classified crimes as for female and for male. But we appeal to the public to know that crime is crime and there is no small crime and big crime, crime for boys and crime for girls. If you are found, tutakukamata.

This is supported by World Bank (2010) Report on Crime and Violence which says that on any given day, about 6 in every 10 young male high school dropouts is in jail for robbery or juvenile detention, compared with 1 in 10 female high school dropouts in USA. When Machel (2010) used census and other government data to carry out the study which tracks the life styles of students who dropped out of school, he found that some students who dropped of school engaged in criminal activities due to sex discrimination, gender stereotype and social cultural factors. The report said that the dropout rate was driving the nation’s increasing prison population, and it was a drag on America’s economic competitiveness. Youth Service Board (2012) and UNESCO (2008) say that more than 3,400 murderers and 172,000 violent assaults nationwide could be prevented if high school graduation rates were boosted by just 10 percent.

5.4 Summary
From the foregoing discussions the difference in the mean of the boys and girls drop out is so significant statistically that it cannot be ignored which means that the dropout rate of boys is higher than girls due to gender factors. The factors that influenced students’ dropout rate were Sex Discrimination, Gender Stereotype,
Social-Economic factors and Social-Cultural factors. The means of the responses of the principals, teachers and students were not statistically significant. Therefore Principals, teachers and students were generally in agreement that the factors identified influenced dropout rate among students at secondary school levels and any difference in opinion may have occurred by chance. The current study also found out that some of the students who dropped out from school engaged in criminal activities. Having looked at the factors influencing dropout rate of students there was therefore, need to examine the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation as presented in Chapter Six.
CHAPTER SIX

CORRELATION BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL DROPOUTS AND CRIME ESCALATION

The chapter addressed correlation dropout rate and crime escalation, between boys’ and girls’ dropout and correlation of crime rate of boys and girls. The chapter is divided in subsections which are Correlation between Boys’ and Girls’ Dropout rates, Correlation of crime rate of boys and lastly a summary of the chapter is made.

6.1 Correlation between Secondary School Dropouts and Crime Escalation

The researcher sought to establish the number of students who dropped out and the crime in Vihiga County. To do this the researcher gathered data on the number of students who dropped out and the number of crimes in the county and the findings were as shown in Table 6.1 that follows overleaf.
Table 6.1: Number of school dropouts and Crime Rates Committed between 2007 – 2012 in Vihiga County as reported by Vihiga County Police Commandant, chiefs and dropouts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Students who dropped out</th>
<th>Crimes Committed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1,523</td>
<td>1512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1,836</td>
<td>1851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,189</td>
<td>5,569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 6.1, it can be seen that in the years 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011 and 2012 there were 243, 277, 522, 788, 1523 and 1836 students who dropped out of school respectively. During the same period, the number of crimes committed in the years 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011 and 2012 were 302, 487, 564, 853, 1512 and 1851 respectively. The number of dropouts and the crimes committed were therefore both on the rise. With this information, the researcher sought to examine the correlation between dropout rate and crime escalation among secondary school students in Vihiga County. The findings were as shown in Table 6.2 that follows overleaf.
Table 6.2: Correlation of Dropout rate and Crime Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys' Crime Rate</th>
<th>Girls' Crime Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Dropout rate     | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0.876(**)
|                  | Sig. (2-tailed)   | .   | 001 |
|                  | N                | 6   | 6   |
| Crime rate       | Pearson Correlation | 0.876(**) | 1   |
|                  | Sig. (2-tailed)   | .001 |     |
|                  | N                | 6   | 6   |

Key: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

From Table 6.2, it is evident that there was a positive correlation of 0.876 between the dropouts and crime. This indicates that as the dropout of students was on a steady rise, the crime cases were also on a steady rise which implies that when the dropout increases, the crime cases also increase and vice versa.

Similarly, a positive correlation between secondary school dropout and crime rate was reported in Delhi between 2007 and 2012 (Woodland, 2013). Likewise, study by Titus (2011) says that in Nigeria, 68 percent of state prison inmates did not have a high school certificates although they joined secondary schools. This is in tandem with Tidwell (1988) who alludes that, a 10 percentage-point increase in graduation rates has historically reduced murder and assault rates by approximately 20 percent in Zimbabwe. Increasing graduation rates by 10 percentage points would prevent over 3,000 murders and nearly 175,000 aggravated assaults in Uganda each year (Sabala &
Mkutu, 2004). The implication is that the area of study faces a regional dropout crisis that poses a significant threat to public safety. The current study argues that although there are many national efforts to reduce crime rate, increase in graduation rates would be an appropriate measure.

On any given day, about one in every 10 young male high school dropouts is in jail or juvenile detention, compared with one in 35 young male high school graduates (Orthner, et al. 2009). The picture is even bleaker for African-Americans, with nearly one in four young black male dropouts incarcerated or otherwise institutionalized on an average day, the study said (Neild, 2008).

The current study argues that dropout rate is increasing Vihiga County prison population, and it might be a drag on Kenya’s economic competitiveness. This was supported by one OCS when he was interviewed about the economic implication of increasing dropout rate and he said,

The government is spending a lot of money on remanding the suspects. Due to Human Rights Movements, we are forced to feed them, give them adequate food and good bedding. These days they have to sleep on mattresses that are of good quality.

This was supported by Mwaguri & Oculli (2012) who said that, dropouts earn less and therefore pay less in taxes than high school graduates globally.
However, the findings were contrary to the study by Merritt (2008) which says that, while dropout rates appear to be declining, crime by the dropouts appear to be dramatically escalating. While this data presents a hopeful sign for declining dropouts, the seeming rise in crime is troubling and warrants further analysis. This could be due to a stricter measurement system for attendance and an assumption that crimes are committed by adults.

The dropout rate of students could still be high like in the current area of study only that the definition of dropout seems to be different by the researcher from Chicago. In 2009, the Chicago Public Schools changed its attendance system to take attendance in every period instead of just once daily (Maughan, 2013). If a student attended for less than 150 minutes a day, the students were considered absent. If the student attended between 150 and 300 minutes of class, it was counted as a half-day absence. Furthermore, what was being referred to as dropout in Chicago schools was referred to as truancy by the current researcher.

Having looked at the Correlation between dropout of students and crime escalation, the current study looked at the correlation between boys’ and girls’ crime rates.

6.2 Correlation of crime rate between boys and girls
The researcher correlated crime rate of boys and girls and the findings were as shown in Table 6.3 that follows:
Table 6.3: Correlation of Crime Rates of Boys and Girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys’ Crime Rate</th>
<th>Girls’ Crime Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys’ Crime</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls’ Crime</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-1.000(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source (2012)

From Table 6.3, it is evident that there was a perfect negative correlation of -1.000 between the crime rates of boys and that of girls. This indicates that the crime rate of the boys was on a steady rise while that of the girls was on a steady decline. It is also worth noting that the fact that there was a perfect correlation indicates that the correlation was very strong.

Putting in mind that it is the boys’ dropout rate that is on a consistent rise, it can be concluded that they are the boys who mostly got involved in crime in Vihiga County compared to their female counterpart. Church (2013) argues that, juvenile delinquency in boys have high tendency of participating in crime related activities. This may be due to the fact that they have no money and therefore they struggle to get cash for survival (Rhodes et al., 1998).

During the interview with the chiefs, one of them said,

If we are not careful, we may be trading on dangerous ground, for I see as if the number of boys who drop out of school is on the rise and we have arrested many of them for criminal offences.
One Officer Commanding the Police Division said,

Where do you expect school dropouts to get money from and they need to drink chang’aa? Employers want papers. The boys target people who have sold tea leaves to rob from them. I feel there should be a law for all school dropouts to go back to school. Teachers will monitor them and crime will reduce.

Some boys who dropped out of school engaged in sexual harassment of girls. This can be supported by Morgan (2009) when he says that, males who drop from school find pleasure in abusing young girls sexually. Male Dropouts force their sexual attention to women because they have greater authority, status and power (Kennedy & Kennedy, 2013).

Male dominated organizations legitimize sexual harassment against women by claiming that it is a minor problem and treat women who complain as though they were crazy. For example, a US senator suggested that Anita Hill was schizophrenic for reporting sexual harassment by a Supreme Court nominee in 1991 (Okello, 2011).

This is also reflected in the comment of one Cultural Keeper, who said,

There is nothing like a rape. So long as a girl is above 12 years she can have children. The society expects her to get married. It is only a crime if she conceives and the father refuses to take care of the child and at the same time refuses to marry her.

This argument is supported by Maiyo (2005) who says that, social- cultural factors influence boys who drop from school to engage in crime because it appears as if there are some crimes that are legitimized by the society.
According to Fagot & Leinbach (2008), men who dropped out of school battered their wives more than those who got diplomas. The Chief, in agreement said,

70% of cases of wife battering are attributed to boys who dropped from secondary schools. They beat up their wives over petty issues like who to keep the milk money, putting a lot of salt in vegetables and even when a male visitor visits the home in his absence.

This behaviour is supported by Orfield (2009) and Paleri (2009), in their argument that, low education encourages rigidity to irrelevant cultural traditions. He further says that people with traditional mentality toward gender roles tend to blame the victim more and the perpetrator less for wife assault. The take of the current study is that the patriarchal structure of African Society has been encouraging and supporting the abuse of women in relationships. However, affirmative action as the one in the area of study might shift the situation.

Women will know their rights and will not tolerate social factors that may contribute to domestic violence like general social acceptance of violence, devaluation of women and acceptance of men’s right to dominate women.

The current study is in agreement with Pokhariyal & Rose (2009) in his argument that high school boys who dropped out of secondary schools committed about 75 percent of crimes in the United States of America. This could be similar because boys are the same regardless of race. Crime cannot only be attributed to one particular race.

The County Director of Probation further said,

The offences include theft of chicken, poultry and motorcycles. Some even steal sweet potatoes and green maize from farms because they have quick market. Because some of them are young we counsel them to go back to school when they finish their term rehabilitation.

The current study argues that every sub-county should have at least one village polytechnic to cater for the minors who might not be willing to go back to school. The offences seem to be minor as compared with those committed in the United Kingdom which were reckless driving, robberies and sexual offences (Ensiminger et al., 2012: Youth Service Board, England, 2012). This could be attributed to the fact that Kenya has harsh penalties for high profile offences.

This can be supported by one Divisional Investigating Officer when interviewed who said,

In Kenya, a capital offender is hanged or preferred a judgment of life imprisonment. Minor offences have options of a fine that can easily be paid. There are also political interference whereby if one is arrested for a minor offence, politicians who are the major stakeholders of the counties seek to arbitrate.

The same report indicated that the number of juvenile offenders serving probation orders across the country were 2000. This did not include children in rehabilitation homes and boarstal centres.
One Children’s officer exclaimed,

This is serious; we need to target schools if we have to curb crime. These boys are supposed to be in school... If the dropout rate will continue to increase then we will have more criminals than low abiding citizens.

Another Probation Officer said,

You researchers should not only target students dropping from secondary schools. I am telling you that as per now high profile crimes are being committed by primary school dropouts. If you go to Shikusa Boarstal Centre, you will find children aged between 12-15 years undergoing rehabilitation for having committed criminal offences.

\[ \text{rt from the Director of Welfare and Rehabilitation in Kenya Prisons Service, Kakamega (2012) which said those 800 boys and 200 girls were committed to the two boarstal institutions in Kenya which were at Shimo La Tewa and Shikutsa. The implication is that there is an escalation of dropout rate of boys in public secondary schools which has an effect on the increasing crime rate in the county.} \]

The current study differs slightly with Oyugi (2011) who says that between 2005 and 2008, violent conflict contributed to the escalated drop out of girls in Mt. Elgon District. Of interest is that, more girls dropped out of school than boys. This might have been because the resultant insecurity made it unbearable for girls to be in school and therefore they opted to drop out.
This study is contrary to Youth Service Board, England (2012) that indicates that the number of child offenders in England and Wales had decreased in the recent years. The number of first time entrants into the juvenile system had fallen by 59% from 2009/2010, and received a 20% decline in 2012 alone. The current study observes that the decline in juvenile crimes is an indication that the retention of students in high schools is being enhanced (Piekarska, 2012).

Most of the studies carried out in Africa on crime attribute it to politics (Vartanian & Gleason, 2010: Porkhariyal et al., 2009: Sabala & Mkutu 2004: Theordorson & Theordson, 2000). The current study has an edge because it insinuates that students who drop out influence crime escalation. Muhammed (2010) says in affirmation that, 75 percent of the youth who were boys were actively involved in property destruction in Nairobi, Kenya during the Post-Election Violence of 2007/2008.

One Police Officer who was interviewed about Post Election Violence of 2007/2008 said,

They were young boys who vandalized people’s property during the Post-Election Violence. When we arrested them, we discovered some of them had been suspended from school and that it is why they were targeting the houses of teachers to torch.

6.3 Correlation between Boys’ and Girls’ Dropout rates

The researcher therefore carried out a Pearson Correlation between Boys’ and Girls’ dropout rate and the findings were as shown in table 6.4 Overleaf:
Table 6.4: Correlation between Boys’ and Girls’ Dropout rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys’ Completion Rate</th>
<th>Girls’ Completion Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys’ Dropout Rate</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-0.549(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls’ Dropout Rate</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

SOURCE: Field Data (2012)

From Table 6.4, it can be seen that there was a significant Co-relation of - 0.549 at a significance level of 0.01. This implies that there was a negative co-relation between boys’ and girls’ dropout rate. It means that as the dropout rate of the boys increased, that of the girls steadily decreased. One DQASO who was interviewed on dropout rate of students commented,

> It is strange that the dropout rate of boys is increasing while that one of girls is decreasing. We are not working towards a paradigm shift, but zero dropout rates. I do not blame an individual, but something has to be done.

However, one Class Teacher commented about the paradigm shift in dropout rate that,

> I am not worried because the problem of boy dropout rate increasing as the girl dropout rate decrease since it is not only in my school. It is a new problem in the whole world and let us see what the researchers will say.
In response to this, the current study looked at a similar study by Bridgeland *et al.*, (2009) on USA Nationality which revealed a negative correlation between the dropout rates of boys and girls.

The new knowledge emerging in the current study is that crime can be reduced by reducing dropout rates of students in public secondary schools in Kenya. The objective was achieved because it was found out that there was a correlation between dropout rate and crime in Vihiga County, Kenya.

### 6.4 Summary

Many youth are in jails currently and some on probation due to crime. They dropped from school due to social-cultural reasons, economic reasons, sex discrimination and gender stereotype. The current study found out that more boys than girls who dropped from school engaged in criminal activities. This was supported by Report from Taita Taveta Probation Office (2013) which says that 80 percent of offenders on probation were young men who had dropped from school. The current study therefore argued that there was a nexus between school dropout rate and crime escalation. Having provided findings on the correlation between dropout rate of students and crime the next chapter was based on summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations of the study and suggestions for further research. They are presented from the viewpoint of specific research objectives and research questions posed in pursuit of the general objective of examining the relationship between Secondary School Students’ Dropout rate and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County, Kenya.

7.1 Summary of Findings

A summary of the findings is presented under themes derived from research objectives.

7.1.1 Nature of Criminal Activities by secondary school dropouts

The researcher selected Vihiga County Commissioner of Police’s office, the chiefs and the dropouts to give information on the nature of criminal activities committed by the dropouts.

From the Vihiga County Commissioner of police’s office, it was found that a total of 5,569 cases of crime were reported out of which 2,865 crimes were committed by the school drop outs. This constituted 2,865 (51.45%) of the total reported criminal activities. Alcohol and drug abuse, stealing, assault and fighting were the most prevalent crimes in the county with 1851 (33.24%), 1512 (27.15%), 853 (15.32%) and 564 (10.13%) of the total crimes respectively. Out of the alcohol and drug abuse,
841(55.62%) were committed by school dropout while 1014(54.78%) of the recorded stealing crimes were committed by schools drop outs. In addition, 435(51.0%) and 288(51.06%) of the assault and fighting crimes respectively were committed by school drop outs.

Furthermore, 132(29.08%) and 89(50.86%) of the defilement and robbery with violence crimes respectively were also committed by school drop outs. In addition, 45(35.43%) and 21(63.64%) of the committed murder and other crimes respectively were also committed by the drop outs.

Findings from the chiefs revealed that out of the 2,865 crimes committed by the school drop outs, 1014(35.39%) and 841(29.35%) of the crimes respectively constituted alcohol/ drug abuse and stealing while a further 435(15.18%) and 288(10.05%) of the crimes comprised of assault and fighting respectively. Defilement and robbery with violence comprised of 132(4.61%) and 89(3.11%) respectively while murder and other crimes comprised of 45(1.57%) and 21(0.73%) respectively.

The crime rates per Sub County were as follows: Luanda 735(25.65%), Emuhaya 650(22.69%), Hamisi 528(18.43%), Vihiga 513 (17.91%) and Sabatia 439(15.32%).

Findings from the dropouts revealed that they committed alcohol and drug abuse (4.25), stealing (4.03), assault (3.34), defilement (3.29), robbery with violence (3.08) and others (2.96). Using the scale to measure the prevalence, the mean ratings imply that the crime with the highest prevalence among drop outs in Vihiga County was alcohol and drug abuse which had very high prevalence. In addition, stealing, assault
and defilement respectively had high prevalence. On the other hand, robbery with violence and other crimes could be measured as having low prevalence.

Most of the dropouts resorted to alcohol and drug abuse they were cheap and easily found as revealed by one of the Police Officers. This is supported by the studies which have shown that dropping out of school for adolescents leads to alcohol disorders and heavy drinking behaviour (Friedenberg, 2009; Williams & Wynder, 2003).

Cooper (2012) supports this by saying that two-thirds of substance abusers are dropouts. Furthermore, research on the association between substance use and academic performance using different samples and different methodologies yield the conclusion that bhang use has a stronger negative relationship to academic outcomes such as grade point average (GPA) and risk for dropout than alcohol use (Bailey & Hubbard, 2013).

Other crimes that were committed by the dropouts had some link with alcohol and drug abuse. This can be supported by Ferguson & Horwood, (2013) who say that, a drug abuser and a drunkard is always a suspect by police for other criminal activities whether he committed or not.

7.1.2 Factors Influencing Dropout Rates among Secondary School Students in relation to crime Escalation

The dropout rate of students was on the increase in the county between 2009 and 2012. Several factors led to this condition and among them were sex discrimination,
gender stereotype, social-economic factors and social-cultural factors. Information
was sought from Students who were in school, School Dropouts, Principals, Class
Teachers, PTA Chairpersons, Public Health Officers, Probation Officers, Chiefs,
DCIOs, OCPDs, County Commissioner of Police and Cultural Keepers.

Students who had dropped from school revealed that there was sex discrimination in
school which influenced dropout rate of students from school. Punishment for boys
being more severe than for girls was rated by 272 (70.83%) dropouts. This made the
boys to drop from school to get refuge from home. Boarding facilities were not only
inadequate but also meager. This made the life of student unbearable and therefore
opted to drop from school.

Variations in cut off points that made the disadvantaged students to drop from school
as rated by 139 (36.19%) dropouts. This affected mostly boys because they felt the
system was too hard for them. Lastly, some students dropped because there more
girls’ schools than boys’ schools as was rated by 124 (32.29%) dropouts. This caused
congestion in boys’ schools that caused them drop out at small provocation.

Students who were in school said that Gender Stereotype influenced students’
dropout rate in various ways. Some boys 572 (72.77%) dropped out of school
because they knew they would inherit family property. Others 470 (59.80%) dropped
out of school to provide security against hostile neighbouring communities. There
were more female teachers than male teachers as rated by 389 (49.49%) dropouts
because it allowed them to work from home and this would help them care for the
homes as a cultural expectation. Female teachers were role models to the girls as rated by 459 (58.40%) dropouts and since boys lacked the roles models they dropped from school. Boys dropped from school because they were expected to marry as rated by 286 (37.24%) dropouts once they reached age 17.

Social-Economic factors influenced some students to drop from school. This was revealed by the Class Teachers who said that some boys 152 (76%) dropped from school to work because they were taking care of their siblings. The county had more Non-Government Organizations 89 (44.50%) sponsoring girls’ education than boys in the schools. It had over 5 NGOs focused on sensitization of girl-child education while there non for the boys.

Some students especially boys were made to stay at home by their parents to help in farm work, during planting season, weeding season and harvesting season. Most of them 141 (70.50%) could not catch up with others when they reported back to school and therefore dropped out.

Lastly, Socio-Cultural Factors contributed to the dropout rate of the students immensely as revealed by the Principals. During circumcision period, most boys 15 (31.25%) left school to prepare for the ceremonies and after circumcision some did not report back to school because of the new roles that accompanied circumcision. More girls 16 (33.33%) sought intervention for re-admission than boys because of the nature of reasons that made them dropout of school. For instance marriage did not favour them to go back of school due to new demands of taking care of their families.
The study found out that there was overemphasis of girl child education as rated by 17(35.42%) principals, which compromised the boy-child education. This made the boys be ignorant on the need for education.

The F-ratio between the mean square of Dropouts, Students still in school, Class Teachers and Principals was, 0.908 while the p-value was 0.074. The probability of F-ratio (p-value) of 0.074 was higher than the significance level (critical value) of 0.05. Using this analysis therefore, the difference in the means of the responses of the principals, teachers and students were statistically not significant. This indicates that there was no significant difference between the means of principals, teachers and students as far the responses they had about factors influencing dropout rate among secondary school students.

Therefore Principals, teachers and students were generally in agreement that sex discrimination, gender stereotype, economic factors and social cultural factors influenced dropout rates among students at secondary school levels and any difference in opinion may have occurred by chance. These factors influenced students drop from school who subsequently engaged in criminal activities.

7.1.3 Correlation between Dropout Rate and Crime Escalation

There was a significant Co-relation of -0.549 at a significance level of 0.01. This implies that there was negative co-relation between boys’ and girls’ dropout rates. This means that as the dropout rate of the boys increased, that of the girls steadily decreased.
There was a perfect negative correlation of -1.000 between the crime rates of boys and that of girls that dropped from school. This indicates that the crime rate of boys was on a steady rise while that of the girls was on a steady decline. However, on the overall the dropout rate of students was high. Therefore, there was a significant positive correlation between the dropout rate of students in secondary schools and crime escalation on Vihiga County, Kenya. In other words, as the dropout rate of students increased, crime rate also increased.

7.2 Conclusion
The highest prevalent crimes among drop outs were alcohol and drug abuse and stealing. This was agreed upon by the Vihiga County Commissioner of Police, the chiefs and the dropouts. There was a link between the alcohol and drug abuse with other crimes that were committed by the dropouts like stealing, assault, affray, robbery with violence, murder and others. The researcher therefore argues that when looking for successful measures to prevent crime, we should consider controlling alcohol and drug abuse by dropouts.

The most outstanding factors that contributed to high dropout rate were social cultural Factors. This was because the other factors like sex discrimination, gender stereotypes and social -economic factors revolved around the way of life of the student as dictated by the society. The researcher therefore, argues that if the social cultural life of a student can be efficient, then dropout rate of students can reduce which can subsequently reduce crime rate.
Lastly, there was a nexus between the dropout rate of students and crime escalation in the county. This confirms the thesis of the current study that there was an escalating crime rate which was a direct consequence of secondary school dropout rate in Vihiga County, Kenya. This implies that if dropout rate of students is decreased, then crime rate might decrease. Subsequently, perhaps the number of boarstal institutions, remand homes and prisons will reduce and the Government allocations of funds to these institutions can be channeled to education sector.

7.3 Recommendations
Several aspects were noticed in the study which should be adopted by the principals, teachers, community, parents, stakeholders and the government in order to reduce drop out among secondary school students and crime in Vihiga County. The following recommendations were made by the researcher:

If alcohol and drug abuse by dropouts can be controlled, crime escalation can be controlled. This is because alcohol and drug abuse influenced the escalation of other crimes committed by the dropouts.

If social cultural life of students can be enhanced, dropout rate can reduce which can subsequently reduce crime rate.
We can reduce the expenditure on security agencies by sealing out dropout rate which is the root cause of escalation of crime.

7.4 Suggestions for Further Research
This study focused on Secondary School Students’ Dropout Rate and Crime Escalation in Vihiga County and exposed gaps that could be filled by further research. These included the following areas:

i. The present study was confined to a discussion on the nature of criminal activities by secondary school dropouts. There is need to conduct a related study in public primary schools.

ii. Since the present study only focused on factors influencing dropout rates in public secondary schools in relation to crime escalation, there is need to conduct a study that caters for mitigation.

iii. The present study confined to a correlation between school dropout rate and crime escalation in Vihiga County. There is need to conduct a similar research in other counties.
REFERENCES


Bedi, A. S., Kimalu, P. K., Manda, D. K., & Nafula, N. N. (2002). The decline in


205


DQASO Report, Vihiga County (2012). Report on Gender and Education.


Fagot, B.I. & Leinbach,M.D.(2008).*Socialization of Sex Roles Within Family*. New


Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA), (2010).


KNEC Analysis Results. (2013).


effects.” Social Science Quarterly, 78, 209-222.


Vihiga County Probation Director. (2012)


Vihiga County Director’s Report on Staff Establishment. (2013).


(http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa135.html).
(http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa250.html).
(http://ojjdp.ncjrs.org/ojstatbb/qa261.html).
(http://www.nationalgangcenter.gov/About/FAQ#q2).
(http://www.ojjdp.gov/ojstatbb/offenders/faqs.asp)
Buy your books fast and straightforward online - at one of world’s fastest growing online book stores! Environmentally sound due to Print-on-Demand technologies.

Buy your books online at

www.get-morebooks.com

Kaufen Sie Ihre Bücher schnell und unkompliziert online – auf einer der am schnellsten wachsenden Buchhandelsplattformen weltweit! Dank Print-On-Demand umwelt- und ressourcenschonend produziert.

Bücher schneller online kaufen

www.morebooks.de