

**FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS' RETENTION IN PRIMARY AND
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KAKAMEGA MUNICIPALITY, KAKAMEGA
COUNTY**

EMILY NASIMIYU KOTIANO

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TECHNOLOGY**

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work with no other than the indicated sources and support has been presented elsewhere for a degree or any award.

Signature..... Date.....

Emily Nasimiyu Kotiano
GEO/G/04/2016

CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for acceptance of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology entitled “*Factors influencing students’ retention in primary and secondary in Schools in Kakamega Municipality*”

Dr. Margaret Immonje

Department of Geography

Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology

Signature.....Date.....

Dr. Joash W.S. Mabonga

Department of Geography

Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology

Signature..... Date.....

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my family members for their constant support and my congregation of the sisters of Mary of Kakamega where I belong whose financial support and love enabled me to reach this far.

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ABSTRACT

The fourth UN Quality Priority states that education is the key to achieving more Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), although urbanization factors limit student retention. World economies support the advancement of education. The Kenyan government is committed to the Education for All initiative. This progress, however, is undermined by the issue of access to primary school education. Any obstacle that impedes learning weakens not only the educational objective but also the growth and development of children. So, it is essential to identify the factors that contribute to Kenya's low Primary school retention rates. The goal of this study was to examine the factors influencing students' retention in primary and secondary in Schools in Kakamega Municipality. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the extent of urban sprawl on students' retention in primary and secondary schools; examine the relationship between urbanization and students' retention in primary and secondary schools and evaluate the effects of urbanization on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality. The study employed a descriptive survey research design. The target population for the study was 99,987 this population comprised of municipality residents, primary school pupils, secondary school students, Education officers, principals, urban administrator and parents from low, middle and high residential parts of the municipality. The study used quota sampling for urban residents, stratified sampling for schools, pupils and students. A sample size of 177 respondents was used for the study. Data collection instruments included; questionnaires, interview guides and focus group discussion. A pilot study was carried out in three residential areas in Bungoma municipality in order to test the validity of the instruments. Data was analyzed using statistics package for social sciences (SPSS) version (20). The study established that drug abuse leads to children dropping out of school as confirmed by 46% response which was evident from police cases of drop out due to alcohol and drug abuse by students. Also, poor income by parents results to low school retention as children engage in cheap labor with their parents for school fees. This is confirmed by low class respondents of whom majority earn between 10,000 -30,000 (42%) and below 10,000 (26%) and as result there is low retention in education by their children at (6%). Finally, good means of transport such as using bus or cars to school enhances children retention in school while poor means like walking for long distance leads to school dropout as established in this study. Child's retention rate in school is low in the poor social class than other classes and this is attributed to their parent's financial constraints and environmental factors. The study recommends that drug abuse in the municipality be controlled, counseling services should be availed by institutions and operationalized by professionals in schools, measures should be put in place to control the use of recreational facilities, more employment opportunities should be created for middle and majority low income classes by reserving specific jobs in the county for these groups to enable better access of these groups child's retention in education . Additionally, the national and county governments should collaboratively establish more policies on transport for school going children in urban centers.

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ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

APHRC:	African Population and Health Research Central
CBS-K:	Central Bureau of Statistics-Kenya
B.O.M :	Board of Management
C G O K:	County Government of Kakamega
C.D.E :	County Director of Education
DC:	Developed Countries
DEB:	District Education Board
E.A:	East Africa
E.R.S:	Economic Recovery strategy
EFA:	Education for All
FSE:	Free Secondary Education
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GER:	Gross Enrolment Rate
GOK:	Government of Kenya
IPAR:	Institute of policy Analysis and Research
IZA TISLB:	The Institute for the Study of Labor in Bonn (German)
KCPE:	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KCSE :	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KNEC:	Kenya National Examination Council

MDG's:	Millennium Development Goals
MOE:	Ministry of Education
P A:	Parents Association
ROK:	Republic of Kenya
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSA:	Sub Saharan Africa
TSC:	Teachers service commission
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF:	United Nation Children's Education Fund
UPE:	Universal Secondary Education

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Recreational activities: Activities engaged in for enjoyment, amusement, or pleasure in the municipality

Retention: the measure of students that enroll, continue and finish their academic studies in the same school.

Socio-Economic status: Is an individual or group's social standing or class. It is also measured as a combination of education, income and employment.

Student: A person enrolled in primary or secondary school who is expected to undertake the whole education course.

Transition: Is the movement from one class to another until completion in secondary school

Urbanization: The process of making an area more urban and less rural; increase in the proportion of people living in towns and cities through rural to urban movement particularly in developing countries.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The fourth UN Quality Priority states that education is the key to achieving more Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), although urbanization factors limit student retention. World economies support the advancement of education. Furger (2008) highlighted that academic challenges, blunders, and skipping levels caused difficulty to keep all students in class. Self-motivation, instructional initiatives, or counseling help students' complete programs. Most African children attend school, but many drop out early (Lewin, 2007).

Deborah et al. (2014) assert that high school retention prepared learners for college and benefited the school financially. Dropouts demonstrated the school's inability to serve students. Effective high schools used student performance metrics to prevent attrition.

Furger (2008) ties student retention to educational success. California has over a million dropouts. Social, economic, and urban factors cause school dropouts. Lau (2003) noted institutional and local experiences affect student retention. Formal and informal education systems substantially influenced student attendance. Negative encounters increased student dropout rates. Orientation determines incoming student retention. It helped them transition to new schools and graduate.

Urbanization impacts education. Higher-class people can afford top city schools and higher education. Higher income and prestigious occupations are indirectly linked to schooling.

Education stratification influences residential urban sections like social classes. Education is a person's accomplishment. Wu and Murray (2003) found that urbanization's effects on students and family trends, particularly in low-class homes, cause low school retention in low-class neighborhoods.

Hoyt's (1939) sectorial model divided the urban center into high, middle, and low classes, like Wu and Murray's. So, high- and middle-class pupils live better than low-class students. This affects graduation rates (Wu and Murray, 2003).

Upper class people are more likely to attend prestigious schools than lower class people, justifying the above notion. Upper-class parents can afford private schools due to their higher earnings and education (UNICEF, 2008).

Superior residential metropolitan locations allow upper-class parents to send their children to public state-funded schools and elite private schools. Wealthier towns have superior schools. Wealthier neighborhoods' property taxes fund better schools (Wu and Murray, 2003). Educational inequality reinforces class inequality over decades. Legacy admission, which favors college alumni, worsens educational inequality (United Nations, 2014).

Urbanization, one of the biggest demographic shifts of the last century, has affected how much of the world lives (Galea & Vlahov, 2005). Moore et al. (2003) estimate half the world's population lives in cities. Cities educate more and boost economies. Fast, uncontrolled urban expansion often leads to poverty (Moore et al 2003).

In Kenya, education for sustainable development supports excellent urban government with measures to decrease human impact on the urban climate. Kakamega municipality's student

retention challenges persist despite Kenya's Free Secondary Education and 100% elementary-to-secondary school transition. Ohba, (2009) demonstrates how poorly urban students are retained .

Municipalities, towns, and cities promote global economic, industrial, and educational expansion (Furger, 2008). Their social and cultural function is education, and Kakamega Municipality is no exception. Education still discusses the rural-urban student retention difference. Urban imbalance obscures national educational numbers due to urbanization (APHRC, 2002). UN-HABITAT (2003) notes that urban slums lack public services for many residents thus understanding urbanization and education retention is important since urban centers are economic hubs and will grow.

Subotzky and Prinsloo (2011) advised schools to act on early student attrition. Addressing economic difficulties instantly improves student retention. Griffins (2002) connected East African poverty to low school retention and illiteracy. Education increased human capital, bringing wealth and financial security.

Griffins (2002), suggests that students may drop out before achieving academic goals. Socioeconomic issues lowered student retention. Unable-to-pay students were expelled. Every school provided career guidance. They needed this for academic achievement. Griffins (2002) suggested assigning mentors to students to boost retention and course completion.

Government of Kenya (2005) argues that industrialization in the twenty-first century requires improved and meaningful education access and participation, but that urbanization-related variables negatively affect student attendance. School retention is low worldwide.

Ndege, (2010), notes that the effectiveness of Kenyan schools was measured by student retention. Collaboration, teacher-student interaction, and support boost it. Gituriandu (2010) indicated that several students abandoned school before completion. Socioeconomic factors including child labor caring for animals contributed. They quit school since they can't change their future. This study evaluated how urbanization affects students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality.

Education reform is prioritized in the Kakamega County Government's implementation report for the years 2013-2017. It constructed infrastructure in 42 secondary schools and employed 500 county support teachers for each public secondary school. In addition, it offers secondary school students scholarships. According to the Kakamega County Government implementation report, 45,196 secondary students have benefited from the initiative (2013-2017). Kakamega County recognizes children's education rights. Despite the county's Education and ICT Sector Plan 2013-2017 subsidies for the poor, the municipality struggles to retain and complete basic schooling. The County's Education Ministry's Education Policy oversees budgetary management, monitoring, evaluation, and capacity building since education is a national government concern.

In addition, the ministry has launched several programs and flagship projects in specific schools in line with Vision 2030 in all the county's wards, including setting aside funds to build additional secondary schools in all Wards, expanding the facilities of existing schools, providing more grants to students, and operationalizing affirmative action for the county's disadvantaged and marginalized groups (Kakamega County Education and ICT Sector Plan 2013-2017). This study investigated whether urbanization is linked to poor student retention in Kakamega municipality schools.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Education being a basic human right vital to personal and national development, all efforts must be made to ensure that children of school going age do not only enroll, but also are retained in school to complete and benefit from quality education based on the correct approach and concepts. Primary and secondary school are crucial to the Kenyan government's approach to provide education for all EFA. Nonetheless, the subsector has been defined nationwide by high dropout rates (MoEST, 2010). GoK (2006) identifies enrollment and graduation rates as significant obstacles for basic and secondary education. Low retention of students is a major problem in schools within developed and developing countries. This is linked to Urbanization that is viewed as one of the issues responsible for the effect of human activity on the environment including education. Its effect on the environment is primarily dictated by the actions, usage habits and way of life of urban dwellers. Policies such as free primary and Secondary Education and 100 per cent transition from primary to secondary schools have been developed by the Kenyan government. This is to enhance retention of students in school until completion. Despite the government's efforts to retain learners in schools, the drop-out rates are still high. This study set to find out the factors influencing students' retention in primary and secondary in Schools in Kakamega Municipality.

1.3 Research Objectives

The overall objective of the study was to examine the factors influencing students' retention in primary and secondary in Schools in Kakamega Municipality. The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine the extent of urban sprawl on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality.
2. Examine the relationship between urbanization and students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality.
3. Evaluate the effects of urbanization on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality.

1.4 Research Questions

The research was guided by the following questions:

1. What is the extent of urban sprawl on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality?
2. What is the relationship between urbanization and students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality?
3. What are the effects of urbanization on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality?

1.5 Justification of the Study

In the last thirty years, Kenya has undergone rapid urbanization, like many developed countries (UNFPA, 2013) and has been a test case for different urbanization initiatives. More so, with the

implementation of devolution, urban centres growth is on the rise which has an effect to the education sector. Thus, this study is of great importance to teachers, parents, school managers, learners, policy makers as well as educational theorists and researchers.

The findings from the study are useful as source of secondary data references for the researchers who may wish to study the same or related areas.

The study is also useful for policy makers, education stakeholders such as heads of schools, Ministry of Education in the course of reviewing of educational policies related to the student's retention of primary and secondary school education.

1.6 Scope of the study

This study confined its geographical jurisdiction within the administrative and political boundaries of Kakamega Municipality that is part of the larger Kakamega County. These areas include; Milimani/ Bukhungu estates, Township/central estates, Amalemba/ Shirere estates, Lurambi/ Mahiakalo Estates and Sichirai estates which are classified either as high class middle class and low class.

The unit of study included head teachers, Principals, teachers, parents and students from the selected schools in the municipality on the factors influencing students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality, Kakamega County.

1.7 Limitation of the study

The study was limited by language barrier while collecting data from certain respondents in the study area. To counter this, researcher used research assistants who understood the

respondents' language.

The researcher was limited by the challenge of covering all the primary and secondary schools due to the fact that they were many in number limiting data collection process. As a delimitation step, the researcher used systematic sampling to counter the respondents who were not available.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a review of related literature on the challenges of urbanization on retention of students in primary and secondary schools. It covers the issues of urbanization - drug abuse, income and costs of the urban family, urban transport and their relationship with students' retention in schools, theoretical framework as well as conceptual framework.

2.2 Urbanization, Drug Abuse and students' Retention

Urbanization is not a new phenomenon; it dates back to about 5000 BC (Sjoberg, 1960). The ratio of the urban population to the overall population, which measures the rate of urbanization, has increased throughout time. Since the Second World War, urbanization rates have been high in developing nations including those in Europe, North America, and Asia, with more than 50% of the population residing in urban regions (United Nations, 2002).

According to literary sources, urbanization in Africa has accelerated more recently than it did in industrialized nations. This is a hint that there is rapid urbanization in Africa. Many cities are rising at a rate of around 5% per year in Asia and Latin America (Butler and Crooke, 1973). Hoyt (1939) argues that as cities expand, new problems such as drug usage, traffic congestion, and the economic downturn all contribute to the emergence of urban bourgeoisies.

The process of urbanization can be compared to the process of progress and economic growth (Henderson, 2003). It is often stressed that the degree of urbanization is closely

associated with the level of GDP per capita (OECD-CDRF study, 2009) urbanization assessed by urban population share growth or urban population growth rates is likely to follow economic progress. Drug misuse has a long history that predates the history of the human race (Maithya, 2001). It is an international issue that puts people's lives at serious jeopardy in many different nations (United Nations, 1998). In wealthy nations, it has turned into the focus of research and preventive measures (Muyabo, 1996). This has not been spared Africa (Assini and Pela, 1996).

In Kenya, reports of young people's lives ruined by alcohol and drugs are rampant and have taken root in schools leading to high school dropout (Kikusi, 2009). Amayo and Wangai (1994) point out that drug abuse has led to unrest and wide spread destruction in schools. This is regarded as indiscipline which can easily lead to low retention in schools.

The National Campaign against Drug Abuse, NACADA (2012) performed a national poll on the extent of drug and alcohol abuse, and the results are alarming. According to the data in the survey, primarily alcohol and cigarettes, 13% of adolescents in the 10 to 11 age group had used an intoxicating substance. A concerning 11.7% of people in the 15–24 age group are currently dependent on alcohol, and 6.2% use it often. A developing issue that requires immediate response is alcohol and drug abuse in institutions of basic education. This is confirmed by NACADA (2002) which observes that an estimation of 70% of pupils in primary schools in Kenya have taken alcohol, 22% tobacco, 2% bhang and 5% miraa. Task forces and commissions of inquiry established to investigate indiscipline and student unrest in the country have repeatedly pointed at alcohol and drug use in learning institutions as one of

its causes (Ugwumba, 2014).

Surveys conducted by NACADA in primary (2018) and secondary schools (2016) showed that schools are not drug free places. The common sources of drugs mentioned by students included from kiosks or shops near school, bars near school, friends, bought from other students, and school workers.

The common periods when drugs are mostly abused included school holidays, on their way home from school, during weekends at school, and during inter-school competitions (Sternberg, 2003). Mier et al. (2015) confirms that alcohol abuse and substance have direct consequences on individual characteristics that relate to deviant and risky behaviors which can affect students' school attendance which could finally lead to low retention in school. Patrick et al (2016) assert that alcohol and substance use were predictive of higher rates of school dropout. This research finding would be consistent to establish the link between drug abuse and dropout in schools in Kakamega Municipality.

Although it is commonly understood that academic failure might come before substance use, the contribution of substance use to the dropout process is still less well understood than other risk variables. However, more recent studies and reviews of the literature have started to identify the significance of substance use prevention as part of the dropout problem and have started to add drug and alcohol use to the list of contributing reasons for school dropout. In spite of arguments made by certain authors that academic failure promotes substance abuse, Lynskey & Hall (2019) have connected prior substance use to an elevated chance of dropping out of school. DuPont et al (2013) shows that teenagers who abuse alcohol and drugs frequently cut back on their study time and engage in a vicious cycle that makes them

lose interest in pursuing their academic goals. This ultimately results in school abandonment, hence the low retention. Aloise-Young & Chavez (2016), claim that substance usage has a significant role in the school dropout problem. Ngesu et al. (2008), observes that no area of Kenya is safe due to the country's widespread drug consumption over the previous 20 years. This supports Wolmer's (1990) assertion that no country has been exempt from the disastrous effects of drug misuse.

Oteyo and Kariuki (2009) claims that drug use is linked to a decrease in the amount of time spent studying. Drug usage was so prevalent that it was causing many to worry that the students might not achieve their full potential and might become drug users in the future. Drug use causes students to become disinterested in their coursework and extracurricular activities, which might eventually result in school abandonment.

The use of psychoactive drugs by individuals from around the world is an old tradition. They have an impact on pupils' ability to make decisions, and they impede their ability to think creatively and develop the social and life skills that are essential. As far back as the early human settlements, alcohol was ingested for its pleasurable effects; for millennia, tobacco, khat, cocoa leaves and opium poppy were consumed in various cultures. However, conventional and sometimes regulated consumption of these drugs has given way to a more controversial form of use in more modern years, a pattern that is related to many social and health concerns. When this happens to school going children it can easily lead to low retention, Moreover, there has been a substantial rise in the number of people who drink alcoholic drinks, smoke tobacco and use illegal drugs. Drug affordability, poverty, societal perceptions and behaviors that promote drug use, peer control, and urbanization as a

component of social change are the contextual factors reported as raising the risk of drug involvement by young people.

Drug misuse has been a road block to the academic conduct of students, and is an important part of instructional practice (Blandford, 1998). It has been widely recognized that due to substance addiction, school indiscipline is on the rise and numerous incidences connected to this hit the headlines in the newspaper (Siringi, 1999). Musioki (2008) states that Drug misuse results in a loss of morale and declining academic levels. Such things may lead to low retention in schools. This is in line with Kuria (1996) findings that drug and alcohol abuse affects students' academic performance negatively as they affect the brain's function. Sternberg (2003) too noted that effect of drug on brain reduce the pupil's concentration span; they therefore become bored and lose interest in studies and thus eventual drop out.

In school locations, different forms of medications are readily available. These medications and compounds contain, among others, beer, bhang, and tobacco. A sign of a broader trend of deviant conduct could be the correlation of substance addiction with interpersonal tensions, student disturbance and property loss. A substance learner does not do well academically because social development is compromised, which in turn decreases academic success and disrupts academic growth and hence affecting their retention in school (Aden, 2006).

(Otieno, et al 2009) study observes that students in towns are more likely to misuse narcotics and other substances. They further reported that they risk smelling khat (miraa), bhang, alcohol, glue-included tobacco and inhalants. Muthikwa, (2016) notes that those in towns

are more predisposed to drugs because of their availability. Merton & Nisbet (1971) findings indicated that because of their ready accessibility and advancement of desires of those who are likely to benefit financially from their selling, individuals consume drugs. This eventually affects students' retention in schools. It is against this background that this current study is being carried out.

2.3 Income and Costs of the Urban Family and students' Retention in schools

Academics and policy leaders in practically all developed nations have long been interested in the retention rate of pupils. The phenomenon of poor school retention rates, per the status report (PRS, 2005), continues to provide a significant obstacle to the effective execution of national programs. According to research done by the World Bank in 2001, it is harder for impoverished families to provide for their children, and differences in parents' capacity to cover the direct costs of education have contributed to differences in school resources. Distance to school and the rural-urban split appear to be the most prevalent issues in all investigations. Decisions about and outcomes from education are significantly influenced by household characteristics. Children's participation in school is influenced by their parents' employment. Lowen (1967) says it is gratifying to see that the higher the social group, the more parents discuss their children's academic achievement with the teaching staff. It is crucial to understand that even while government funding for education was declared free, it was insufficient to pay for all of the school's additional needs, including as construction costs and electricity costs, which are crucial to the system. Reenay and Vivian (2007) found that parents' involvement in the classroom has been the primary driver of the school

market—students' retention in schools—for more than ten years by the year 2006.

It is believed that the government, which is also tasked with making sure that students remain enrolled in school, provides the majority of funding for secondary education in public schools in Uganda. However, student retention will not be achieved if stakeholders like parents are not included. The Education Policy Review Commission (EPRC, 1989) study provides a historical overview of parents' contributions to school administration and their current active participation in helping to keep their kids in school in Uganda.

Aluoch (2002), show how important parental wealth is in determining whether primary school pupils stay in school. Eshiwani (1985) agreed with past research' results that the underprivileged from low-income families drop out of school. Due to obstacles resulting from a poor upbringing, the majority of girls leave school between the ages of 17 and 19.

According to Becker's (1965) household production model, home variables such as parents' income level impact whether a child enrolls in school, stays in school, and progresses to a higher level of education (Alsamarrai & Peasgood, 1998). Slum dwellers are frequently depicted as being less advantaged than residents of high class urban regions due to different income discrepancies in urban households, which affect educational achievements (Johannes, 2005).

Low income can contribute to the family's failure to pay indirect schooling expenses, such as school learning and teaching supplies, clothing, transportation to and from school and food. Several research undertaken in Malawi, Ghana, Zambia, Ethiopia and Tanzania have shown

that children are discouraged from engaging successfully in schooling as their parents are unable to pay those expenses (Carng and Hawk, 1996).

In line with this scenario, Mingat (2002) showed that, compared to 40 percent of the poorest families, 76 percent of their children attend school in the wealthiest households. This indicates that there is much poorer participation for children from poor families than for those from wealthier households. Mingat (2000) agrees with Pscharapoulos (1985) that one of the most important factors on school retention rates in developed countries is the amount of family income. Socio-economic parental history affects the role of their children in education (Onyango, 2000). This is especially the case in developed countries where sufficient educational materials are not provided for children of poor families and most of them do not enroll in schools. If enrolled, they are more likely than kids who are from better-off homes to drop out of kindergarten. Poor families may consider covering the cost of taking their children to kindergarten, but as more leisure exercises are required, they may abandon the entire exercise (Briggs, 1980 and Mbai, 2004).

In their investment in education, disadvantaged families are limited and refrain from school early due to lack of enough facilities and services at home Carnoy, (1971), The family setting is also not conducive to studying and eventually the student becomes too frustrated to resume learning leading to school dropout. Johnson, et al (1983) explains that the income of a parent determines whether a child enrolls in school, remain in school, learn and proceed to higher levels of education. Slum dwellers are often depicted as disadvantaged in terms of having lower wages

Social- economic status represents the endorsement of families (Hausen & Warren 1997).it refers to occupational standing which is so significant in urban setting. Further, Household income is found to be an important factor in deciding students' retention to schooling since education is theoretically in the context of costs of instruction (Croft, 2002). The most significant primary cause of pupils dropping out of school is poverty (Cardoso & Verner, 2007). Garrett (2003) asked parents and guardians in both households a series of questions on the financial factors affecting their children's school attendance in Tanzania, providing proof for this claim. He found that financial constraints were the primary reason parents did not enroll their children in school. Statistics and long-term studies show that students from lower socioeconomic origins are more likely to never attend school or to drop out after enrolling, whereas students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to participate in school at a low rate. This agrees with Brown and Park's (2002) study in rural China which showed that the poor have a low retention rate as compared to the wealthy.

Kim (2018) attributes possible cause of school drop out to poverty. Poor households tend to have less demand than affluent households for tuition. Whatever the advantage of education, the expense is harder to achieve for them than for wealthier families (Colclough et al, 2000). Kids from disadvantaged backgrounds experience pressure that makes them to withdraw from school due to increased cost. This research set out to determine how this factor influences the retention of students in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega municipality.

Chung, (2004) argues that the household member's working habits affect revenue and expenses.

Looking at retention and non-retention trends to schools in slums in Bangalore, India showed that the father's income was connected to the child's continuation or discontinuity in school. If income levels are poor, children will be expected to offset the income of the family, either by their own wage-earning jobs or through taking on extra duties to free up work for other household members. When children grow older and the opportunity cost of their time grows, this is more evident. At times, how people perceive schooling could shape relationships between schooling, household income and dropping out. For example, the research on schooling in a Ghanaian village by Pryor and Ampiah (2003) outlines that education is considered a "relative luxury," with many villagers finding education not worthwhile.

Data reveals the relation between household income and school drop-outs for pupils. Fuller and Laing (1999) found that there is a correlation between the financial power of a family, calculated by the amount of household spending and access to credit, and the possibility of a child in South Africa staying in education. Fuller and Laing (1999) suggest that when the cost of education is too high for households in Malawi, it is mostly children from poorest households who are less likely to attend.

This agrees with studies in Guinea by Glick and Sahn (2000), which suggests that there is greater investment in children's education as household income rises. Unable to afford fees to buy books, supplies and clothing, parents are compelled to invest in the schooling of their brothers, which they see as a means of potential family support, rather than their daughters. For their children, parents prefer to avoid too much education (UNESCO-UNICEF, 1990) and Juma et al. 2006). There is still the concern that if a girl is highly educated, it will be difficult

for her to get a husband or be a decent wife. It is argued that in order to remain manageable and to prevent entering the professions, women stay away from too much schooling, which would make it impossible to pursue their husbands in the event of a residence move. I give cases involving girls on land in Maasai (Abdulahi, 2005). He noticed that, instead of getting them married, fathers do not want to pay their daughters costs. This prompted many of them to leave their homes to search for refugees elsewhere.

Coffee harvesting is the primary reason of school dropout in Mukuruein Division, Nyeri District (Wagathi, 2010). This was consistent with the research by (Kisanya, 2009 and Kirima, 2010). The two came to the conclusion that child labor made it harder for pupils to stay in school. However, unlike the present study, these two studies did not investigate how urbanization affects pupils' school retention.

Poverty is the critical factor responsible for low access and weak engagement in schooling (Njeru and Orodho, 2003). High household poverty rates have made poor households either not enroll their children in secondary schools or refuse to help those who are enrolled because they are unable to meet different criteria. This has contributed to insufficient availability of learning facilities for the vulnerable for the enrolled and high dropout rates. Any retrogressive socio-economic and cultural traditions have been described as a key factor in the low attendance and participation of students (Njeru and Orodho, 2003) Since higher levels of poverty are encountered in ASAL areas, retention in education in these areas is poorer than in areas of high opportunity. The above declaration is endorsed by the UNESCO History

Document, which notes that suffering cannot be resolved without clear, urgent and sustained commitment to improving retention in education (UNESCO, 2002). Thus, poverty is tackled by two ways. First of all, the failure to pay indirect schooling expenses covers school learning and teaching supplies, textbooks, commuting to and from school and food.

According to a paper titled "Determinants of School Enrolment on Performance in Bulgaria" that was published in current economic policy journal in January 2001, the role of income among the rich and the poor is a key predictor for school access. These underprivileged families are limited in their ability to invest in education and drop out of school early. The researcher will therefore try to find out if parent's income can affect child's education retention in Kakamega municipality. Fetter (2015) on influence of economic status asserts that students whose parents' income is high have enhanced regard for learning and they use effective learning strategies than students of parents with lower economic status.

Due to low parents' income as a factor that affects students' retention in schools, child labor has also been witnessed in order to meet their school needs at the expense of missing out in school. Kamwaria (2015) asserts that all paid and voluntary jobs and practices that include children's physical, psychological, social and moral growth can be found to constitute child labour. This deprives children of the chance to attend kindergarten and therefore affecting their retention in school.

The TIQET (1999) of the Koech Commission also found that child labor is a common phenomenon that continues to keep children out of school, especially in the prevalent household-level poverty situation. Child domestic labour is largely a metropolitan phenomenon (UNICEF, 2008). Estimates say that tens of millions of children live on the sidewalks of

towns and cities around the world. This figure is on the increase with global

population growth, migration and growing urbanization. Poverty arising from low wages of parents or guardians living mainly in slums is a common reason. This forces children to search for an alternative way to provide for themselves and the family at large hence missing school and eventually the actual drop out.

In 2008, an estimated 215 million boys and girls aged 5-17 were involved in child labor around the world, 115 million of them in risky jobs and other leisure activities in the urban areas that rob them of retention in schooling (Mbai, 2004). This indicated the need for research on parent's level of income to students' retention in schools.

2.4 Urban Transport and students' retention

How students travel to and from schools, including their means of transportation, is one factor that influences the learning and teaching process. According to a UNESCO assessment from 2008, the mode of transportation students use to travel to and from school has an impact on the degree of education they pursue. The means of transportation students use to go to school, the accessibility of those methods, and the safety of students traveling to and from school, among other issues, all have an impact on the learning and teaching process and the location of the school (Ajayi, 2001). The method of transportation used to get students to school has an impact on learning and instruction.

The location of a school has an impact on the learning and teaching processes as well as student retention, absenteeism, and security. Planning for education is based on the location of the school, where parents or guidance decide where their children will attend school based on the school's accessibility. Due to safety concerns, several factors including mode of

transportation might affect students' attendance rates by articulating the distance traveled and the cost of alternative transportation due to the location of the school (Adom & Bediako, 2012).

According to the argument, a well-run school provides its students with reasonably priced and secure transportation, which reflects educational performance results characterized by academic performance outcomes, economic, political, and social emancipation. Other students rely on motorbike transportation because they perceive it to be convenient, quick, and affordable for getting them to and from class. International research that are relevant to this topic include Williams, Persaud, and Turner's (2008) contribution, which cites Marsden's (2005) assertion that the motorcycle industry's numerous facets have a significant impact on student dropout rates in schools. For instance, motorbike drivers entice many girls with money and free trips, which helps to cause early pregnancies and finally results in school dropout. When they are taught to ride by their buddies, many boys are persuaded to enter the bodaboda industry by the promise of quick money.

Juneja (2001) reports that in areas where schools are more away from houses, the distance can be considered too long for younger children to travel, forcing them to drop out of school. Therefore, the goal of the current study is to determine whether school distance influences student dropout rates in the Kakamega municipality. This is equally valid for older girls and other kids who parents believe are susceptible to sexual abuse (Colclough et al., 2000; Nekatibeb, 2002). When their kids have to travel further to school, parents are concerned for their safety.

Children living in or close to urban Centres have been shown to attend school more and work less entirely, but are more likely to be involved in wage work (Iza, 2006). The bigger the urban Centre

the greater the effect on children's retention to education. Urban proximity is found to minimize the danger of distance to children and increase their school attendance from the area for up to 3 hours of drive time. Iza (2006) further stated that children do more farm work in areas of commercialized agriculture situated 3 to 7 hours from the capital. The consequences of urban proximity are compensated for by a blend of local labor supply and demand factors, especially the local value of agriculture, the degree of parental schooling, and the local wage scale.

Several communities have implemented initiatives in recent years that encourage children to attend schools outside their neighborhood catchment zone (Willstatter, Zeehandelaar, and Griffith 2015). The number of students attending charter schools has also grown, suggesting that more students may choose to go beyond their typical neighborhood school to other public schools. Student travel strategies can encourage equal access to schools in a given area, but they can also restrict retention in schools, restricting choices for families who do not have the funding and time to drive their children to school. Student transport comes with substantial public expense and will consume a surprising quantity as the expenditure of the school board or community.

These expenses are paid by a combination of federal, state, and municipal funds and therefore represent policy actions at various levels. Poor transportation for students can also impact their health and well-being. Poor safety and health will have an impact on the attendance of a student and her overall academic success when commuting to school. Finally, the transportation of students will have a huge influence on the nature of the schooling of a pupil and the structure of their peer group. Transportation alternatives can encourage students to attend well performing schools that may have been historically unavailable, and they can

allow for involvement in enriching before-and after-school events.

The chance of children attending school reduces, according to Ainsworth et al. (2005); the larger the distance to the closest secondary school the lower the retention rate. This agrees with Nekatib (2002). In several countries in Africa, this isolation from school has become another obstacle to children's schooling. A significant number of studies in the area have indicated that there are two big issues with the long distances children cover to school, including the amount of time and the resources to be spent walking the distance, mostly on empty stomachs. The study was intended to establish this in the municipality of Kakamega.

The dilemma of isolation from school also has consequences for children's ability to stay at school. Likewise, research done by Ainsworth et al (2005) in Tanzania reveals that dropout rates are growing in areas where distance to school is longer. Mirsky (2003) projected that exhaustion from a long journey to and from school, and sometimes on an empty stomach; renders school an uncomfortable routine for disadvantaged children that contribute to school dropouts. Disease and lack of medical treatment can also contribute to withdrawal following repeated absenteeism accompanied by poor results (UN, 2000).

Despite the influence of distance, the preferences made by children (and their parents) with regard to school switching will depend significantly on the involvement of a number of factors at a number of levels. City-level variables, such as aspects of urban design and architecture, can have a mixture of direct and indirect effects on travel behaviors. Variables in school levels, in particular variations in school performance and the socio-economic quality of the student's intake, can have an effect on the choice of school and residence, potentially circumscribing travel choices and average school travel distances. The characteristics of human norms, such as age, are linked as far as children are able to reassure themselves or

select active modes of travel.

The growth in the amount of road travel related to the growing use of private vehicles has also contributed to increasing concerns regarding public safety, which in turn has led to a decline in the freedom of children and increased parental monitoring. Parental strategies to handle this combined difficulty sometimes include more conveniently bringing kids to school while traveling to work. Both of these factors have combined to produce a very complex pattern of home-to-school travel that is made possible by the rise in the use of motorized means of transportation.

A large variety of variables have been shown to be correlated with successful cycling in classrooms. 480 correlates were uncovered by Stewart's (2011) analysis of 42 studies: distance to school, family income (private transport access), anxiety about traffic and crime on routes, parental opinions on cycling, cycle use, and family timetables. Urban type has a direct impact both on the mode of travel collection and an indirect effect by affecting parental opinion. The urban shape variables defined by Stewart (2011) from other studies include active transport infrastructure, such as pavements, protected crossings, bike routes and barriers such as main road or railway crossings.

However, two significant gaps were found in the literature review. First, numerous studies on urbanization and student retention have been conducted in regions around the world, including America, Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa; as a result, these studies have taken place in a variety of settings. Only a few studies on the topic have been conducted in Kenya, and more specifically in Kakamega Municipality. Second, whereas the majority of researches have focused on the retention of students in various Municipalities regardless of their classification, the current study is based on Hoyt's model, which identifies the origins of

students.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the sector model put forth by Hoyt (1939). The assumptions of the model are that wealthy people, who could afford highest rates, choose the best sites as they have ability to pay for services and goods. Hoyt (1939) further believes that similar land uses attract other similar land uses, concentrating a function in one location and repelling other functions. The second assumption is that wealthier citizens might afford private vehicles or public transport, so they live further from industry and closer to key highways. He claims that this procedure promotes sector development.

This theory highlights the fundamentals for emergence of urban centers. These factors are distance, industries and the economy of the surrounding population. The theory also mentions how urban centers expand in the shape of sectors that radiate out along the primary transportation routes. Because of the purpose it fulfills, activities within a sector are thought to be consistent throughout the sector. These sectors are either categorized as high, middle or low class residential areas. The high quality residence remains high-class, as this is the most wanted place to live. In these areas reside wealthy and prosperous people. The area is safe, has less noise, calm and large houses. Spine stretches from CBD to the border and is better housed so that most quality facilities are accessible comfortably by the high class.

The residence in the Middle Class consists of middle income individuals who can afford to move more and live better lives. The activities of people living in the residential areas of the middle class include multiple activities and not just industrial jobs. Like the high-class industry, it has more ties to CBD and some retention to industries. The sector is born from the proximity of industrial work and CBD. The development of this sector is also a result of

affordable services for urban medium-sized residents.

Low class residential area is characterized by low-income group residents. There are small houses with low ventilation, narrow roads, and high population density. The industries where most people in this sector work are often linked to narrow roads. Industry proximity reduces the cost of transport, thereby attracting industrial workers. Often because of the proximity to the factories, the environment is unfavorable for living. Therefore, poor conditions of life and the environment can hinder the child's retention.

This theory was relevant to this study as it addresses the structure of urban settlement, dispersion and distribution of resources that directly influences the growth of urban centers which impacts on the retention of child's education. Urbanization directly affects the political, economic and social-cultural aspects of the life of the people. Therefore, education being part of the social aspect of urban life it is directly affected by growth, settlement and economic sectors of urban life. This paradigm was utilized in all levels of the study when addressing child's retention in schools in Kakamega Municipality. The theory provided a base upon which the structure of education was assessed, highlighting on the issues concerning settlement, transport, distance and economy of the town.

The effect on the structural configuration of the city of transport routes is underlined. The distance and development path of the city center are taken into account. This can interfere with the schooling of children in the long run. This is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

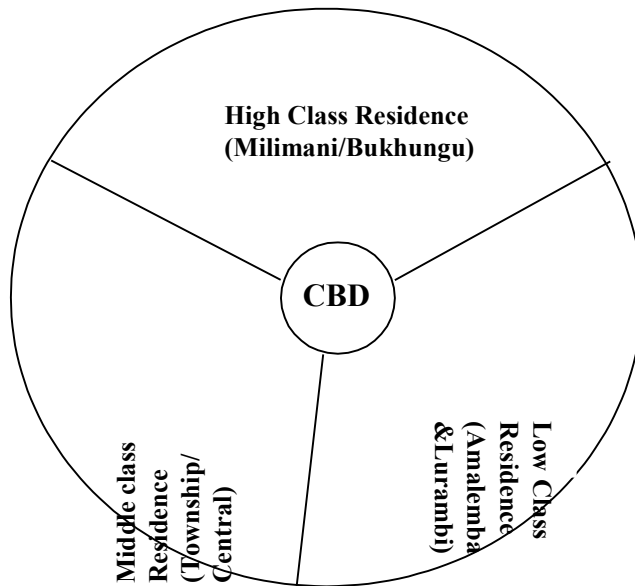


Figure 2. 1: Hoyts' Sector model

Source: Modified from Hoyts sector model (1939)

2.6 Conceptual Framework

Urbanization still remains a factor influencing the retention of primary and secondary school students in schools. Therefore, the conceptual framework below illustrates the relationship between independent and dependent variables in the urban setting that are key determinants of school students' retention in Kakamega municipality. The independent variables are urbanization issues and effects that include drug abuse, transport and parents' income in the municipality. The dependent variable is students' retention in schools which is conceptualized through school completion. These are reflected in Hoyt's sector model that is utilized in this study, which shows the typical structure of an urban Centre that is

categorized either as high class, middle class or low class respectfully. Mechanisms and methods should be put in place to address the aforementioned issues, which calls for county policies, support from stakeholders including parents, the ministry of education, and local administration to function as intervening variables. If these strategies are adopted the result would be high retention of students in schools in Municipality. This is demonstrated in the following figure 2.2.

Independent Variables

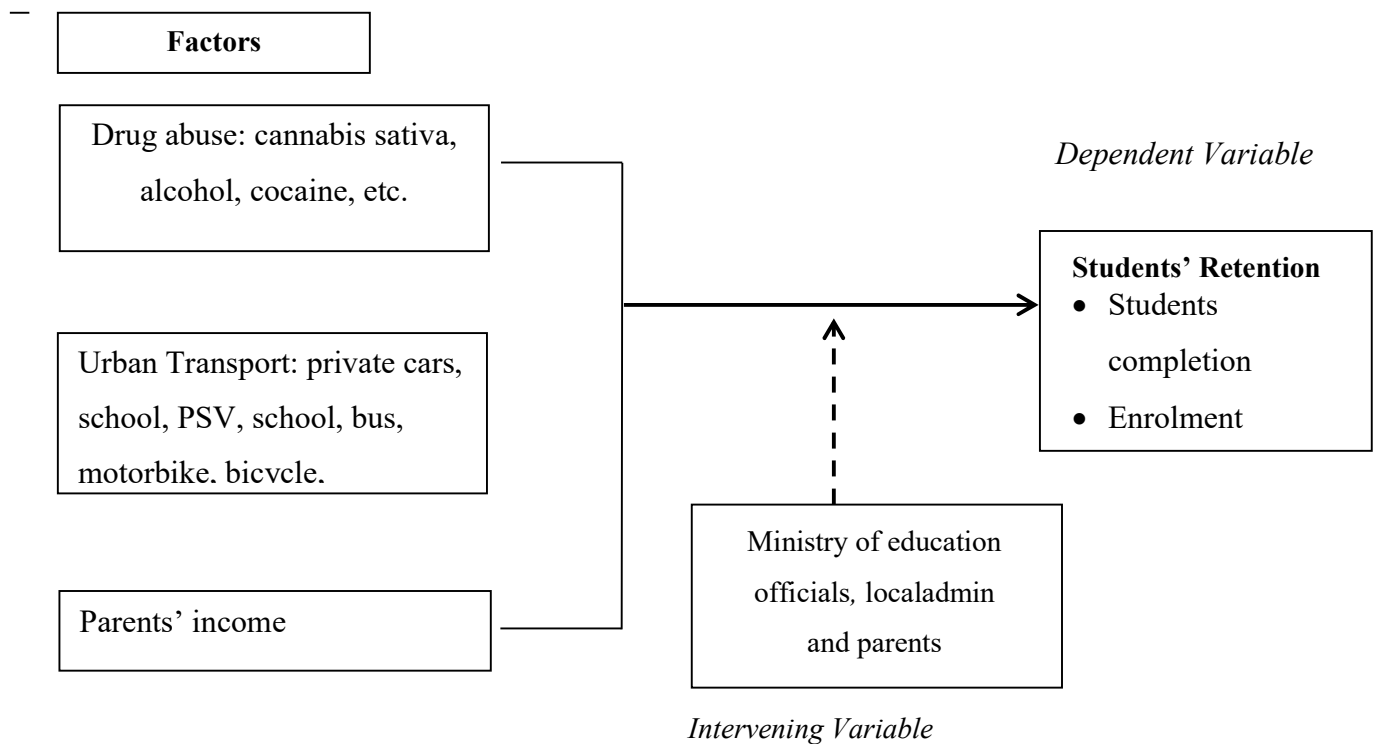


Figure 2. 2: Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology that was used in the study. It comprises of Research Design, Study Location, Population Target, Sample and Sampling Procedures, Research Instruments, Validity and Reliability of the instruments, Data collection and analysis.

3.2 Research Design

According to Orodho (2003), a research design is a framework that is used to produce answers to a research problem. In this research, a descriptive survey has been used since the researcher has been able to gather and interpret data from large number of respondents. In addition, information on the attitudes, beliefs, behaviors and other social questions of people was collected (Orodho and Kombo, 2002). The survey identified, documented, analyzed and reported the conditions, which existed or were presented according to Kothari (1985). Descriptive survey research is also aimed at providing statistical information on education aspects, Orodho (2002). Both primary and secondary data was obtained through door to door visits as well as from the internet.

3.3 Study Location

The study was undertaken in residential areas within Kakamega Municipality. These areas include; Milimani/Bukhungu estates, Township/central estates, Amalemba/shirere estates, Lurambi/Mahiakalo estates and Sichirai estates which are classified either as high class

middle class and low class. Kakamega is a town in western Kenya lying about 30 km north of the Equator on Latitude $0^{\circ}17'.94''\text{N}$ and Longitude $34^{\circ}43'.680''\text{E}$. It serves as the county's administrative center. There are 99,987 people living in the town (2009 census). The study site lies within the tropics and it experiences a bimodal rainfall regime consisting of the “long rains” during the month of March, April and May season and the “short rains” during October, November and December seasons (Nicholson, 2014; Owiti, 2012). About 1971 mm of rainfall annually. Rainfall is the lowest in January, with an average of 61 mm. (Ogwang *et al*, 2012; Hastenrath *et al*, 2010). The temperature here is averagely 20.4°C . Its climate is classified as tropical. The average elevation of Kakamega is 1,535 metres above sea level. According to the Kakamega District Development Plan (1997- 2001), the major economic activities taking place within the municipality are farming and business such banking, petrol stations, insurance, car wash and transport. The study location is indicated in Figure 3.1.

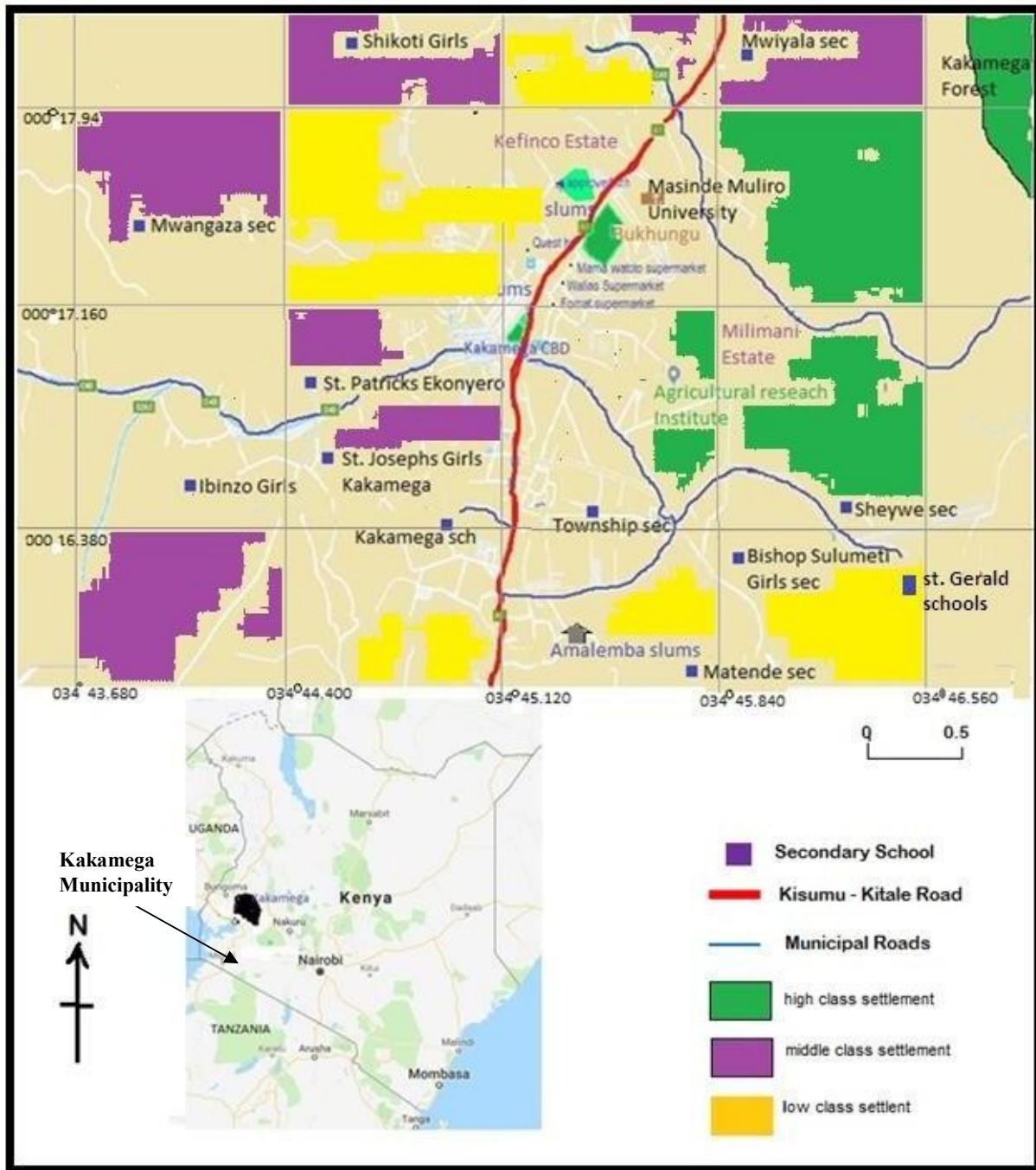


Figure 3. 1: Study area map

Source: Researcher (2019) (QGIS 2.14.21)

3.4 Target Population

This study was carried out in residential areas and schools within Kakamega Municipality. These areas include; Milimani/Bukhungu estates, Township/central estates, Amalemba/Shirere estates, Lurambi/Mahiakalo estates and Sichirahi estates. The total number of schools from which the sample was selected was 63 of which 50 are primary and 13 secondary. The distribution of sampled school student's population is indicated on table 3.3. According to Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2015) house population of these areas is as shown in the table 3.1 below.

Table 3. 1: Population of study area

Area	Type of Area	No of Male	No of Female	Total Population
Milimani/Bukhungu	High class	23,033	22,544	45,577
Township/Central	Middle class	5,268	4,787	10,055
Amalemba/Shirere	Low class	16,958	16,552	33,510
Lurambi/Mahiakalo	Low class	6,075	5,992	12,067
Shichirahi	Middle class	18,956	19,293	38,249
TOTAL		70,290	69,168	139,458

Source: Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2015)

3.5 Sampling Technique and Sample size

Probability and Non-probability sampling methods were utilized in sampling the respondents. Stratified sampling which allows for division of study population into clusters (Mugenda, 2008) was used to select schools from which students were to come from

considering their geographical location and category. Additionally, the researcher utilized purposive sampling to select head teachers and principals in the study, simple random sampling was utilized on sampling the resident's population. Similarly, stratified random sampling was used to select parents from the sampled residence on basis of gender Purposive sampling techniques was utilized to select Kakamega High school as the only National school in the municipality as well as obtaining urban administrators and education officers. This is demonstrated in the subsections that follow.

3.5.1 Sampling of urban residents

Quota sampling was used to select urban residence. The residents were categorized as either high class, middle class or low class based on their geographical location and picked a simple random sample of 10 respondents in high class, 15 in middle class and 10 in low class using Kreijce and Morgan (1970) table.

The researcher utilized simple random sampling to obtain 35 residents from all urban resident categories because quota sampling poses the weakness of over presentation of only accessible respondents Orodho (2002).The sample percentage of the population in these residential areas was 0.29%.This as shown in the table 3.2.

Table 3. 2: Target sample distribution of residents

Category	Household Population	Sample Size	Percentage	Sampling Technique
High class Residents	10,603	10	0.09	Simple random
Middle class Residents	13,138	15	0.11	Simple random
Low class Residents	10,621	10	0.09	Simple random
Total	34,362	35	0.29	

3.5.2. Sampling of Schools, Pupils and Students

Schools within the targeted residential areas in the municipality both primary and secondary were selected using stratified sampling to draw them from low class, middle class and high class setting. The municipality has 29 schools in low class, 33 schools in middle class and 26 schools in high class (KNBS, 2019). Purposively, Kakamega high school was sampled as the only boys' boarding secondary school in the municipality. These sampling techniques resulted to 7 out of 63 sampled schools from which using Bukhari's sample size calculator (Bukhari,2020) the target population of 45 pupils in primary and 33 students in secondary school was arrived. This is as shown in the table 3.3

Table 3. 3: Sample distribution of schools

Residence	Primary	Pr. Total Sample	Secondary Schools	Sec.Total Sample	Residence Total Sample size
Low class residence	Amalemba primary	16	MatendeSec	13	29
Middle class Residence	Mwiyalaprimary	18	MwiyalaSec	15	33
High class Residence	Applegate academy	11	Sheywe sec Kakamega sec	7 8	26
Total		45	43		88

In summary the previous sampling techniques arrived at 35 urban residents, 9 urban administrators, 33 students, 45 pupils, 27 parents, 12 head teachers, 8 principals and 8 education officers giving a total of 177.

Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table was utilized to obtain the sample size of different target groups. With a sample population of 340, a study sample of 177 was quite crucial in detailing information about the subject under research. This is summarized as follows.

Table 3. 4: Sample size of each category of target population

Respondents	Total municipality Population	Total Sample size
Residents	34,360	35
Urban Administrators	58	9
Students	3,888	33
Pupils	17,025	45
Parents	3,200	27
Head teachers	50	12
Principals	14	8
Education Officers	13	8
Total	58,615	177

3.6 Research Instruments

Research Instruments in this study were Questionnaires, Focus group discussion guides and

interview schedules.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used in this study to obtain information from parents of the municipality, residents and head teachers/principals of selected schools, education officers, as well as urban administrators.

3.6.2 Interview Guide

The selected respondents were asked oral questions in order to establish more on how urbanization affects child's education retention from their attitude. According to Orodho (2003) both structured and unstructured interviews suffice the attitude aspect about the research topic.

3.6.3 Focus Group discussion (FGD)

An outline of key questions was used to guide the discussions during focus group and conclusions drawn for the purpose of this research. Some respondents were selected and converged together for discussion on the urbanization impact on retention of child's primary and secondary education in Kakamega municipality. This was for confirmation of responses on questionnaire. The study utilized a total of 3 FGDs with every 1 comprising of 9 members per cluster for the 3 clusters.

3.7 Validity of the Instruments

A test's validity is a measure of how well a test tests what it is meant to measure. There was a pre-test. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine the questionnaire's consistency and

validity. A pilot study was carried out in three residential areas in Bungoma municipality in order to test the validity of the instruments. In an effort to improve the performance of the measuring instruments, unsuitable items were either abandoned or their measurement variables were adjusted. The researcher has employed material validity to determine if the objectives are reflected in the research instruments. Experts in the field of study frequently validated the methods prior to their deployment.

3.8 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability is the proportion of variance due to a variable's true measurement, and the accuracy of such measurement is calculated over time. In other words, it calculates to what extent research instruments can obtain the same findings following repeated experiments (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). A pre-test was performed to boost the reliability of the instrument.

The technique to obtain an estimation of reliability was accomplished by applying the reliability test process, where the same instrument was administered twice to the same subject group. The product moment correlation was computed in order to give a test of the correlation. A minimum correlation of 0.5 was considered in this analysis as a good indicator of the instrument's reliability.

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques

In order to assess their precision, completeness and recognize the things that were wrongly responded to, spelling errors and blank spaces, the collected data was reviewed. For research, quantitative information was entered into the machine using the Statistical Software

for Social Sciences (SPSS). This provided the frequencies and percentages that were used to discuss the results. The data was first coded to remove irrelevant data. Secondly it was tabulated in form of tables, charts and pie charts and graphs for the purpose of presentation. Conclusions were then drawn from the results presented.

Table 3. 5: Data collection, analysis and presentation according to objectives

OBJECTIVES	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS	DATA ANALYSIS METHODS	DATA PRESENTATION METHODS
Objective one <i>To determine the effect of urban sprawl on students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality</i>	Urbanization	Students' retention in schools	Questionnaire Interview guide and Focus group discussion guide	Chi square test statistic Descriptive narratives Secondary sources Descriptive statistics	Graphs, Charts Tables, Figures
Objective two. <i>To examine the relationship between urbanization and students' retention in primary and secondary schools in Kakamega Municipality</i>	urbanization	Students' retention in schools	Questionnaire Interview guide and Focus group discussion guide	Descriptive narratives Secondary sources Descriptive statistics	Graphs Charts Tables
Objective three. <i>To evaluate the effects of urbanization on students' retention in schools in Kakamega Municipality</i>	Effects of urbanization	Students' retention in schools	Questionnaire Interview guide and Focus group discussion guide	Descriptive narratives Secondary sources Descriptive statistics	Graphs Charts Tables

3.10 Ethical considerations

Permission to engage in the study was sought and granted by the deputy Director, directorate of postgraduate studies by Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. Similarly, National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and Kakamega County Commissioner permitted the collection of data.

The consent of the respondents to engage in this study was obtained. They were also assured of security and confidentiality in handling of the information given. The information was only intended for use in informing this research and not for any other agenda.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the presentation of results, interpretation and discussion of findings. The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of urbanization on retention of a child's education in Kakamega municipality. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and is presented in the form of tables, pie charts and bar graphs.

4.2 Response Rate

Three (3) residential areas were classified as either High class, middle class or low class settlement and questionnaires were administered to 177 municipality residents (53 in high class areas, 66 in middle class areas and 53 in low class areas). 169 questionnaires were received representing 98.8% (53 in high class areas, 63 in middle class areas and 53 in low class area). The response rate culminated to 98%. Focus group discussion was held with three residents from each residential class. Table 4.1 shows the rate of response from the respondents:

Table 4. 1: Response rate

<i>Questionnaire</i>		<i>Response Rate</i>	
Class	<i>Submitted</i>	<i>Received</i>	<i>%</i>
Low class	53	53	100
Middle class	66	63	96
High class	53	53	100
Total	172	169	98

This response rate was way above the minimum rate suggested by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) who suggested that for generalization a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting. It was considered a success and acceptable for this research for further analyses.

4.3. Demographic Characteristics

In the analysis, the demographic characteristics of the participants were in for purpose of fair representation of respondents to avoid bias in findings

4.3.1. Distribution of Sample Respondents according to Gender

The need for gender equality in all spheres of life necessitated the assessment of gender composition of all the respondents. The researcher sought to establish the gender of the respondents. The results are summarized in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Distribution of Respondents according to Gender

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Gender	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Male	21	40	24	38	28	53	73	43
Female	32	60	39	62	25	47	96	57
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

According to Table 4.2, Low class settlement had 40% male and 60% female, middle class settlement had 38% male and 62% female while high class settlement had 53% male and 47% female. All the settlement had more female respondents than male except in high class settlement. The slightly high representation of female gender than male is in line with the 2019 census which indicates that female population is high in the country than the male.

4.2.1 Distribution of school Principals and Head Teachers according to Gender

Purposive sampling was used to get specific information on challenges of urbanization on education retention from schools within the municipality. Gender composition of both principals and head teachers from the sampled schools was examined for the purposes of gender equity in leadership roles. The results are represented in Figure 4.1.

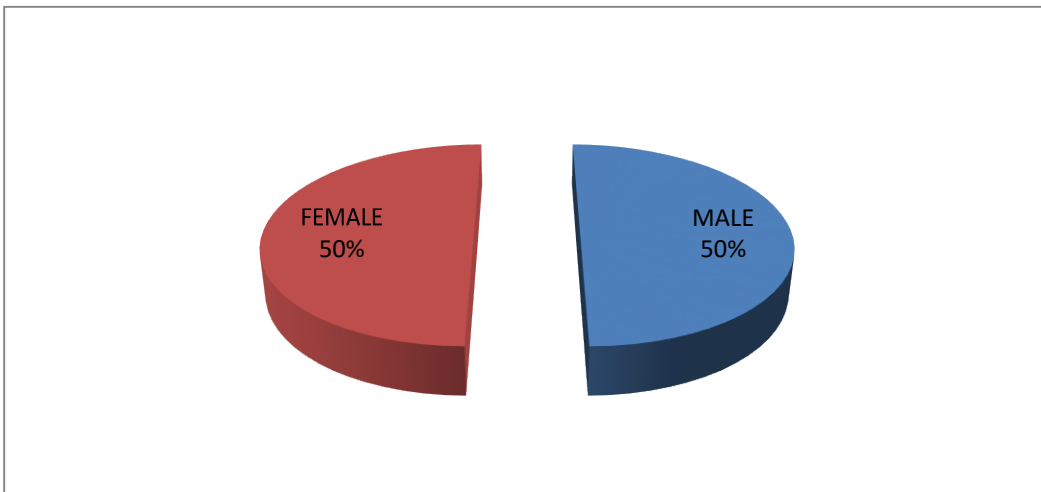


Figure 4.1: Distribution of school Principals and Head Teachers according to gender

From Figure 4.1., Principals and Head teachers' respondents registered an equal percentage of 50% male and female. This shows that there is gender balance in the leadership positions within the school system. Similarly, relationship exists between gender equality and education retention in the municipality and this act as a motivational factor to the pupils of both gender in being retained in schools in Kakamega municipality.

4.3.2. Distribution of the Schools in Residences

The study sought a fair distribution of sampled schools in the municipality. To indicate the distribution of sampled schools in the municipality, the questionnaires were purposively administered to learners in seven (7) out of 63 schools in the municipality. Two each in low and middle class neighborhoods, a primary and a secondary school. Three were selected in high class areas, one (1) primary and two (2) secondary for equal representation. All the questionnaires were received and analyzed as showed in Figure 4.3

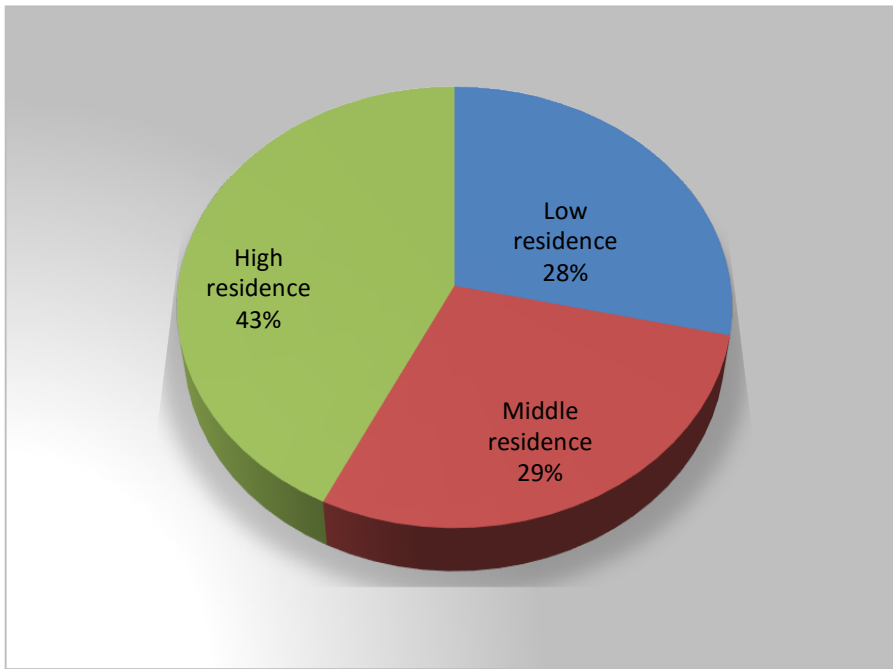


Figure 4.2: Distribution of schools in residences

4.3.3. Distribution of sample respondents according to Age

The respondents' varying ages were considered crucial in assessing how urbanization might affect children's access to and retention in their schooling. The results are summarized in Table 4.3. Most of the respondents interviewed were 36% above 35 years while 9% were at the range of 30-34 years, 7% 25-29 years similarly 7% between 20-24 years, 16% between 15-19years and finally 25% between 10-14 years as indicated in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3: Distribution of sample respondents according to Age

Age	Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
10-14 years	12	23	10	16	20	38	42	25
15-19years	7	13	5	8	15	28	27	16
20-24 years	6	11	3	5	3	6	12	7
25-29 years	3	6	2	3	7	13	12	7
30-34 years	7	13	3	5	6	11	16	9
Above 35yrs	19	35	39	61	2	4	60	36
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

The findings in Table 4.3 indicate that adults above 35 years (36%) are more than children (10-14) 25%. The findings are in agreement with the observation made by UN (2004) that urban population was large among adults than teenagers as adults are more attracted by most urban functions than children. Empirically the adults were school principals, head teachers, urban administrators, education officers and residents while children's groups were students and pupils.

4.3.4. Distribution of Respondents According to years in Kakamega Municipality

The study wanted to know how long the participants had been living in the municipality because a longer stay made the study more ideal because it ensured that most of the respondents had the knowledge and expertise needed for it. Most respondents interviewed,

35% had stayed between 4 – 6 years, 30%, had stayed in the municipality more than 10 years while 18% had stayed between 1-3 years and only 17% had stayed in the municipality between 7 – 9 years as indicated in Figure 4.3.

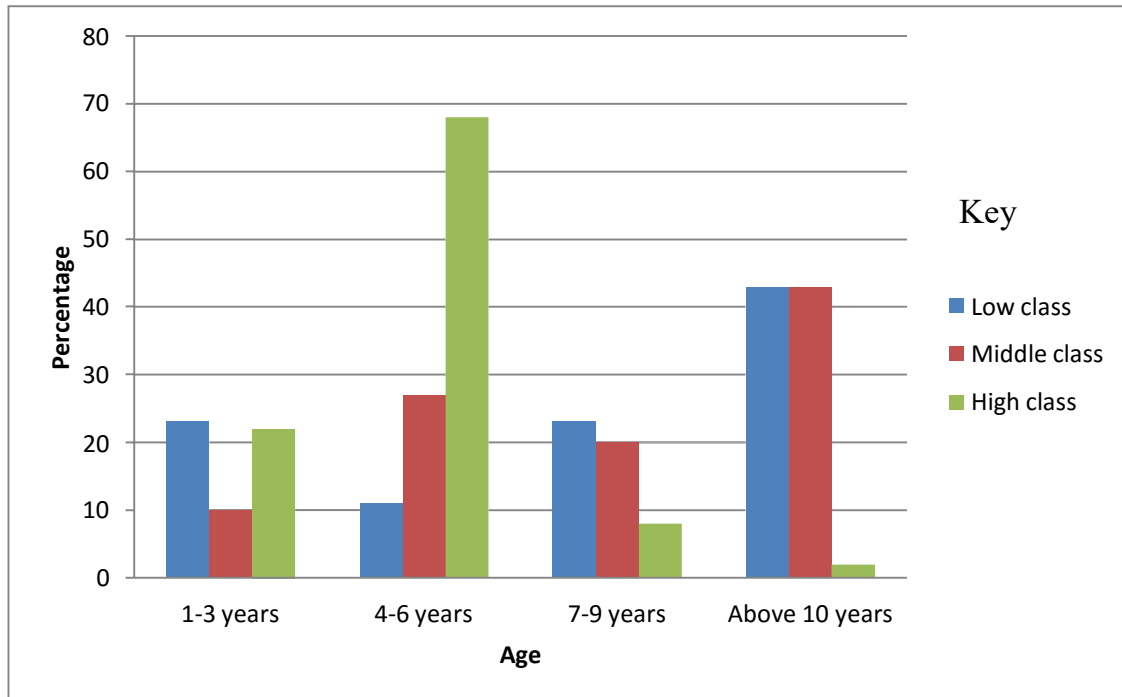


Figure 4. 3: Distribution of respondents according to period of stay in %

The high class settlement registered the highest percentage (68%) of respondents who have stayed in the municipality between 4-6 years, while low class and middle class settlement registered 43% of the respondents have stayed in the municipality for more than 10 years. This indicates that most of the middle class settlements have lived in the municipality for more than 10 years compared to those in high class settlement who only accounts for 2%. This also means that high class residents are employees who transfer to other towns while low class are slum dwellers who migrated to the town to look for employment.

4.3.5. Distribution of school principals / head teachers according to experience

School administrators experience was vital in determining the child's retention in school. Administrators 4-6 years were the majority representing 40%, followed by 7-9 years of experience at 35%, 10 years and above at 15% and 10% 1-3 as shown in Figure 4.4.

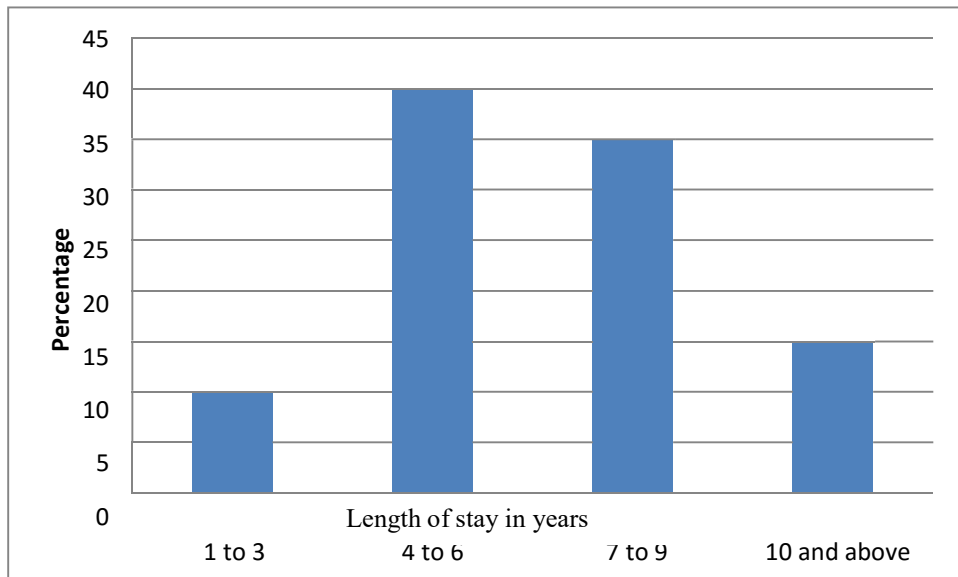


Figure 4. 4: Distribution of school Principals/Head Teachers according to experience

The previous analysis shows that the majority (4 to 6 years 40% and 7 to 9 years 35%) of the school administrators in the municipality have enough experience on matters of education retention and the effects of the municipality and the information they provided was sufficient for the research.

4.3.6. Distribution of respondents with children in school

On determining the urbanization impact on retention of a child’s education, the study set out to find out if children of school going age of head teachers, principals, education officers ,urban administrators , parents and residents were all in school or not.

The majority of the respondents, 84% had all their children of school going age in school and only 16% did not have their children at school going age in school as indicated in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Distribution of respondents with all children in school

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
All Children in School	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Yes	26	28	35	38	17	18	78	84
No	9	10	4	4	2	2	15	16
Total	35	38	39	42	20	20	93	100

It was established that most of the respondents (84%) had children of school going age in school. This could be due to accessibility of education promotion services and programs like good infrastructural systems, security among others and government policy of 100% transition among others. On the other hand, 16% which is a small number of parents or

guardians with children of school going age and not in primary or secondary school implies there is diminishing retention and accessibility in education. This is more so in the low class residents, the decline of child’s retention in education is due to factors that will emerge in the subsequent analysis and interpretation of findings.

4.4. Effect of urban Sprawl on students’ retention

The study’s first objective sought to establish the effect of urban sprawl on students’ retention in schools. The results are presented below according to assorted variables.

4.4.1. School Size

The study intended to determine the size of schools in terms of the number of streams that each school had in order to determine how urbanization affected students' retention ability in schools in the municipality. Table 4.5 shows the findings.

Table 4. 5: Distribution of schools according to size

No of streams	<i>Freq</i>	%
1 stream	0	0
2 streams	3	42
3 streams	2	29
4 streams	2	29
5 streams and above	0	0
Total	7	100

Table 4.5 above indicates that two streamed schools at 42 percent were the majority of schools in the municipality, followed by three and four streamed schools at 29 percent each.

There was no school with one or five streams. The presence in the municipality of schools of two streams and above is an indicator of increased enrollment. This may be due to the government's free primary and regular secondary education and enforcement of governmental policies on education and government administrators.

4.4.2. Schools type (Gender)

On school gender, it was found that 43% were girls' school only, another 43% were mixed schools and 14% were for boy's schools in the municipality as shown in Table 4.5 below.

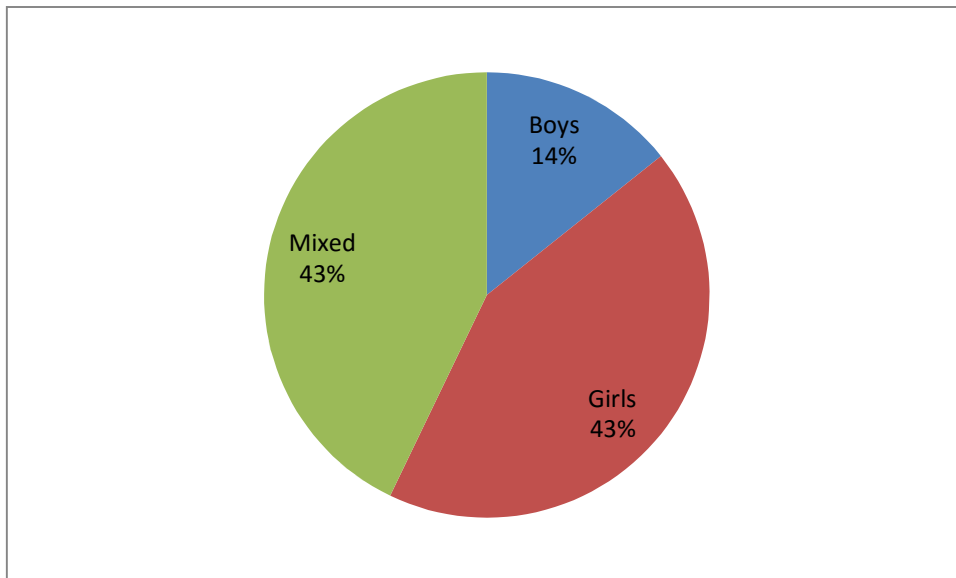


Figure 4. 5: Distribution of schools according to Gender.

4.4.3. Schools Type (Boarding or Day school)

In the municipality, boarding schools made up 58% of all educational institutions, pure day schools 28%, and day and boarding schools 14%. This is an indication that transport to school in the municipality least determines education retention because more than a half of the children in the municipality are boarders.

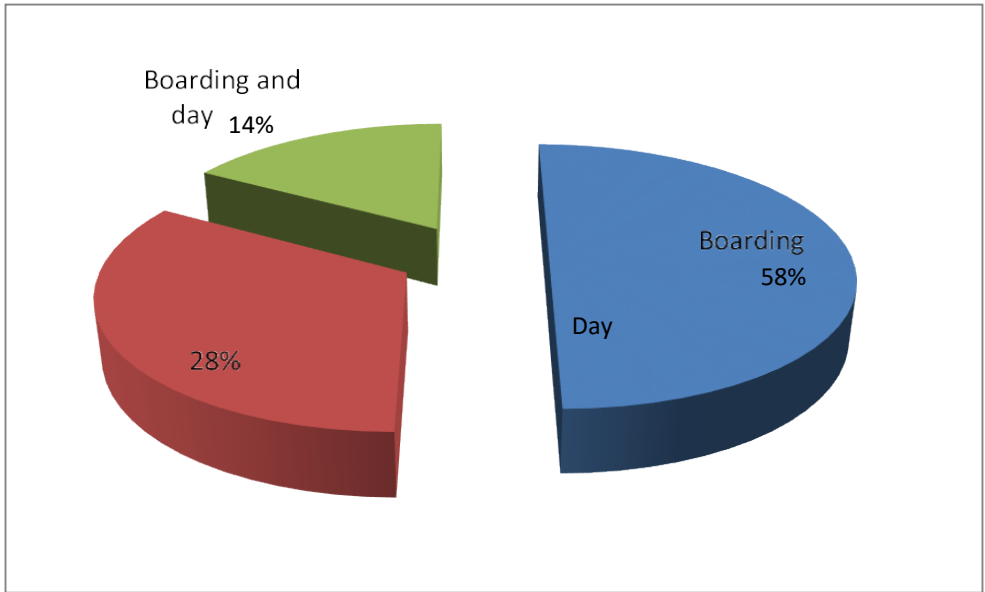


Figure 4. 6: Distribution of schools according to type

4.4.4. School Enrolment for the Last eight Years

The study assessed the retention of children’s education in municipality for the last eight years from primary in class five to class eight and form one to form four the final year of secondary school education. The findings areas shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6: Distribution of primary and secondary school dropout rate for the last four Years

CLASS /YEAR	LOW CLASS		MIDDLE CLASS		HIGH CLASS		CUMULATIVE	
	NO. OF LEARNERS	% DROP OUT	NO. OF LEARNERS	% DROP OUT	NO.	% DROP OUT	NO.	% DROP OUT
Class 5 2013	500	0	456	0	350	0	1306	0
Class 6 2014	492	1.60	445	2.41	322	2	1279	2.00
CLASS7 2015	470	4.47	425	4.50	305	5.28	1200	4.7
CLASS8 2016	400	14.8	375	11.7	275	9.8	1050	12.5
TOTAL/AV	400	5.21	375	4.7	275	4.27	1050	5.2

CLASS /YEAR	LOW CLASS		MIDDLE CLASS		HIGH CLASS		CUMULATIVE	
	NO. OF LEARNERS	% DRO P OUT	NO. OF LEARNERS	% DROP OUT	NO. OF LEARNER S	% DRO P OUT	NO. OF LEARN ERS	% DROP OUT
FORM1 2017	312	0	285	0	238	0	835	0
FORM2 2018	260	18.7	260	8.7	295	-23	815	2.4
FORM3 2019	254	2.3	256	1.5	286	3	796	2.3
FORM4 2020	242	4.7	253	1.1	246	13	741	6.9
TOTAL	242	6.43	253	2.825	246	-1.75	741	7.4

In the sampled primary schools, the analysis showed a declining trend in the number of school going children in the municipality as demonstrated by reduction of children

attending school from 1306 to 1050 which is 12.5 % dropout rate from class five to eight.

Dropout rate is high in low class sector (4.8 %), followed by middle class (11.7 %) and finally somewhat very low dropout rate (9.8) % in high class sector. These findings are indications of existence of some propelling factors particularly in low class to be established hereafter.

Significantly, there was an increase of enrolment in 2018 in form two from 238 in form one to 295 in high class. This points to inter sector mobility of residents, where by those in low and middle class sectors relocate to high class sector necessitating children transfer to schools in high sector as well as pupils joining the schools from outside the municipality. This was confirmed through focus group discussion where a parent stated that he transferred his child from Mwiya primary (middle class school) to Applegate academy which is in (high class) and promising in performance after he was employed in Kakamega County Governor's office and moved to reside in CBD.

It is also clear that dropout rate increased during transition from class seven to eight (12.5%) majority in low class (14.8 %). This confirms parent's responsibility shift due to high demands expected in secondary schools and in ability of pupils at this level to have control of overwhelming challenges from urbanization. This projected a problem of retention of a child's education in the municipality across all the sectors and more so in low class which is discussed in the next sections.

From the responses, this is attributed to high cost of living that hinders parents from affording schools fees as the students' progress academically. The findings are in tandem with Garret (2003) who found that financial constraints were the primary reason parents did not enroll their children in school. Statistics and long-term studies show that students from lower socioeconomic origins are more likely to never attend school or to drop out after enrolling, whereas students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds are more likely to participate in school at a low rate.

4.5. Relationship between urbanization and students' retention

The study's second objective sought to examine the relationship between urbanization factors and students' retention. The factors examined include Drug abuse, Income levels, Transport and Recreational facilities in relation to learners' retention. The results are outlined below.

4.5.1. Drug Abuse and Child's Education Retention.

The study sought to find out the impact of drug abuse on students' school retention in Kakamega Municipality. Respondents were asked if they have had any case of drug abuse in their family or in the municipality, the effects it has and its control measures.

4.5.1.1. Cases of Drug Abuse

Respondents were asked if they have had any case of drug abuse in their family or aware of drug abuse in the municipality. The results are indicated in Table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Distribution of teachers and pupils response on cases of drug abuse

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Cases of	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Drug abuse								
Yes	31	58	37	60	50	94	118	70
No	22	42	26	40	3	6	51	30
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Cases of drug	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
abuse and in school								
Yes	16	52	25	68	38	76	78	67
No	15	48	12	32	12	24	39	33
Total	31	100	37	100	50	100	117	100

From the Table 4.7, 70%, indicated that they had experienced and only 30% had not. These results meant that cases of drug abuse exist in the municipality

Most cases of drug abuse are in high class (94%) however the school dropout rate is low in this sector, this is an indication that parents in high class despite their children abusing drugs they reinforce their retention in school through mechanisms like guiding and counseling that attributes to 49%. Empirically, most of students who abuse drugs are not in school 48% of them in low class, 32% in middle class and finally 24% in high class. Respondents too

indicated that there are many cases of drug abuse as confirmed by 70% of them. This was farther verified through the help of county administrators to peruse the police records in the municipality. Police cases indicated several cases of parents complaining of their kids disappearing from home due to drunkardness and, therefore, drop out of school in the municipality. From the visit in the Shikusa Borstal institution 142 cases present were associated with drug abuse related issues 13 of which were arrested while in possession of narcotic substances as shown in appendix XII. It is clear, therefore, that drug abuse negatively influences child's retention in education in urban areas. However, parents play vital roles particularly in high class settlement to keep their children as witnessed with low school dropout rate in this sector.

This was confirmed by further establishing the effects of drug abuse on school going children on their education. Empirically 33% of those who admitted that they were aware of drug abuse cases ascertained that their children don't go to school, an indication of drug abuse leading to school dropout in the municipality thus low retention and accessibility in education. Through FGD, it was also observed that majority of the pupils drop out of schools due to inability of their parents to meet their financial obligations as they spent money on drugs, it was also noted that some of these parents become hostile forcing their children to ran away from homes and eventual drop out of school.

Table 4. 8: Correlations on cases of drug abuse and school dropout

Cases of drop Out		Cases of drug abuse YES	Cases of drug abuse NO
Cases of drop out	Pearson Correlation	1	.960
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.181
	N	3	3
Cases of drug abuse YES	Pearson Correlation	-.960	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.181	.000**
	N	3	3
Cases of drug abuse NO	Pearson Correlation	.960	-1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.181	.000
	N	3	3

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

From Table 4.8, the Spearman’s rank correlation coefficient between cases of school dropout and drug abuse was -0.960 which is a strong correlation coefficient which implies that the relationship between the two variables is strong. This affirms negative influence of drug abuse on child’s education retention as there exists a strong relationship between drug abuse and child’s retention in education. There is strong correlation coefficient between drug abuse and school dropout.

4.5.1.2. Distribution of Cases of Drug Abuse in Schools

School administrators were asked if they have had any case of drug abuse in their schools or aware of drug abuse in the school from all categories of participants in the study. The results

are summarized in Figure 4.7.

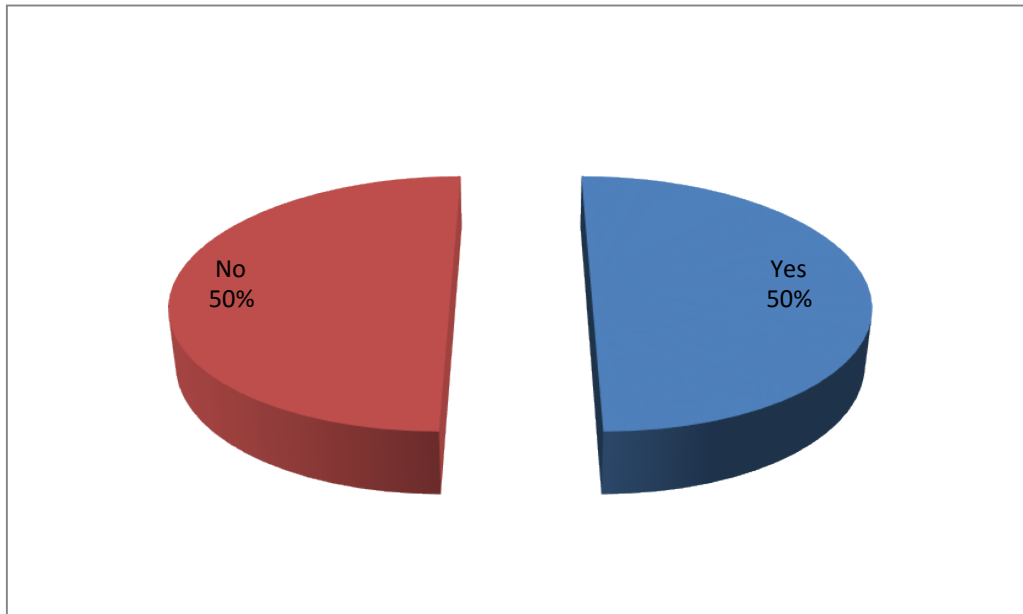


Figure 4. 7: Distribution of respondents' response on cases of drug abuse in schools

From Figure 4.7, there was equal response, 50%, indicated that they had experienced and 50% had not. Through interview with some principals, these findings were established to be true when one of the principal availed recorded information on form three students who had been arrested by police from bars during school hours. The principal revealed that one of the students eventually dropped out of school as he failed to change in his behavior because of addiction to alcohol and suspected cannabis sativa abuse.

The researcher further sought to get the correlation cases of drugs abuse and students' retention in schools. The results are outlined in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Correlation cases of Drug abuse and student retention in school

Cases of Drug Children in abuse School			
Cases of Drug abuse	Pearson Correlation	1	-1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.
	N	2	2
Children in School	Pearson Correlation	-1.000**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	
	N	2	2

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

From the above Pearson’s correlation coefficient, it is clear that there exists a strong negative correlation co-efficiency of cases of drug abuse and children in school (-1.00). The significance of these findings is that drug abuse influence child’s low school retention. These results confirm the findings of Shoemaker (1984), who discovered that a great deal of speculation has been placed on the relationship between family environment and substance abuse. The family, particularly the guardians and parents, are the primary socializing agents. The learner's substance abuse is attributable to their living conditions and the family's global impression. Additionally, being with a parent having a drug predicament amplifies the probability of similar predicament budding in the children. Similarly, the World Health Organization (1993) found that factors such as prolonged or traumatic absence of parents, severe parenting, failure to interact, and drug use by parents may contribute to or increase young people's drug abuse. Students in their teenage years, however, may take drugs because of peer pressure or for fun. A UN Drug Control Program(UNDCP) study confirms that 60% of students misuse drugs.

In connection to the foregoing authority, the current study found out that indeed there are cases of drug abuse in schools confirmed by 50% of the school administrators. Additionally 84% of the respondents indicated that the cases of drug abuse in schools affect child's education retention in schools with drug abuse cases among students as well other workers in school environment. This is through teachers and school workers who are caregivers that instill negative attitude to learners by their drug influenced behavior. This situation creates an unpleasant environment in schools forcing children to school truancy and eventual school dropout. Also, children who abuse drugs in schools who are not identified for rehabilitation programs develop addiction to drugs thus dropping out of school to avoid being noticed and have time for drug abuse.

4.5.1.3. Type of Drugs Commonly Abused

This section provides information focused on the drugs most often abused in schools by students. In proposing potential preventive and intervention strategies, knowledge of the most commonly used drugs by students was deemed essential. The results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4. 10: Distribution of respondents' response on type of drugs abused

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Type of drug	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Alcohol	32	60	35	55	31	58	98	58
Bhang/marijuana	12	23	15	24	10	19	37	22
Cocaine	3	6	4	6	6	11	13	8
Heroin	2	4	1	2	5	9	8	5
Others	4	7	8	13	1	2	13	8
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

The presumption was that inexpensive drugs were more frequently abused. When respondents were asked about the type of drug commonly abused in their area of settlement, 58% mentioned alcohol, 22% mentioned Bhang/Marijuana, 8% said cocaine and only 5% mentioned heroine. Low class settlement and middle class settlement are mostly affected by alcohol, bhang/marijuana and other small drugs while High class settlement recorded effects of hard core drugs like cocaine and heroin that are expensive to acquire.

The study further sought to establish the correlation between the types of drugs used. The results are summarized in Table 4.11.

Table 4. 11: Correlations between types of drugs abused on education

		Alcohol	Bhang Marijuana	Cocaine	Heroin	Others
Alcohol	Pearson Correlation	1	-.300	.115	.386	-.637
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.403	.463	.374	.280
	N	3	3	3	3	3
Bhang/Marijua Na	Pearson Correlation	-.300	1	-.982	-.996*	.926
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.403		.061	.029	.123
	N	3	3	3	3	3
Cocaine	Pearson Correlation	.115	-.982	1	.961	-.839
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.463	.061		.089	.183
	N	3	3	3	3	3
Heroin	Pearson Correlation	.386	-.996*	.961	1	-.957
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.374	.029	.089		.094
	N	3	3	3	3	3
Others	Pearson Correlation	-.637	.926	-.839	-.957	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.280	.123	.183	.094	
	N	3	3	3	3	3

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

From Table 4.111, alcohol is the most commonly abused drug findings may indicate the overall current situation of drug abuse among the urban youth. This is according to NACADA (2004) which stated that the national prevalence of drug abuse among the youth was 60 percent alcohol, 58 percent tobacco and 23 percent cannabis among others. It could be due to the current scenario that Kenya has become an increasingly important transit point for drugs bound for other countries. In addition, use of drugs such as alcohol, and tobacco is culturally, socially and legally appropriate in Kenya and these drugs are locally manufactured. Such factors have compounded the problem of substance abuse and dependence among the youth including students.

The magnified effects of using these substances together can be very unpredictable and may cause panic, anxiety, or terror for people who use them in the same period. The long-term use of these substances can greatly affect the academic retention and performance of long-term students. Since the trends of drug use appear to cluster among students. It is necessary to note that their impact on academic performance can have additive or synergistic effects that are separable. The use of drugs has been directly linked to a number of academic concerns, including: students skipping school, spending less time learning, exhibiting diminished interest and disrupting sleeping habits. All together, these outcomes lead to low retention of children in school.

4.5.1.4. Control measures to drug abuse

Respondents were asked about the most appropriate control to drug abuse in their area. The results are indicated in Table 4.23.

Table 4. 12: Distribution of respondents’ response on control of drug abuse

	Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Control of Drug abuse								
Guidance and counseling	32	60	47	75	26	49	105	62
Closure of recreational facilities	14	26	5	8	24	45	43	26
Police arrests	7	14	11	17	3	6	21	12
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

From the findings, 62%, preferred guidance and counseling, 26% indicated closure of recreational facilities and only 12% wanted police arrest and prosecution. Low class settlement and middle class settlement preferred guidance and counseling at 60% and 75%

respectively while high class preferred guidance and counseling and closure of recreational facilities at 49% and 45% respectively. Guidance and counseling took lead as schools have teachers who double their teaching roles with guidance and counseling. Like Kamara, (2011) confirms that the majority of teacher counselors continue to teach in addition to their counseling duties. Due to their dual responsibilities, school counselors have insufficient time to provide counseling services to students. As the same teacher is responsible for assessing the academic performance of students during all counseling sessions, it is also difficult to establish rapport with students.

Table 4. 13: Descriptive statistics on control of drug abuse

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Guidance and Counseling	3	49.00	75.00	61.3333	13.05118
Closure of Recreational Facilities	3	8.00	45.00	26.3333	18.50225
Police Arrests	3	6.00	17.00	12.3333	5.68624
Valid N (listwise)	3				

Table 4. 14: Correlations on control of drug abuse

		Guidance and counseling	Closure of Recreational Facilities	Police Arrests
Guidance and Counseling	Pearson Correlation	1	-.995*	.941
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.033	.110
	N	3	3	3
Closure of Recreational Facilities	Pearson Correlation	-.995*	1	-.971
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.033		.077
	N	3	3	3
Police Arrests	Pearson Correlation	.941	-.971	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.110	.077	
	N	3	3	3

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

From the above findings there is need for the urban planners to set up sufficient counseling centers in the municipality to help in controlling cases of substance abuse which normally later results to low retention of children to education in the municipality.

4.5.2. Recreational Facilities on students' Retention in schools

The study sought the effect of recreational facilities on child's education retention in Kakamega Municipality. Respondents were asked if they have recreational facilities, the type and the effects they have on the school going children in their area of residence. The effects of recreational facilities were established during FGD by discussants. One of them

expressed that

“In most cases I have seen students in video dens and bars during school hours playing video games. On one Wednesday while from duty at 3.00 pm I saw a group of students being ferried by police car and as I later interacted with one of them he confirmed they were accused of cannabis sativa abuse”

The above statement is enough to confirm that indeed drug abuse affects student’s retention in schools as they spend time in bars and video dens during school hours.

4.5.2.1. Presence of Recreational Facilities in the Area

Recreational facilities in the residential areas of the respondents were assessed to establish their influence on child’s retention in schools. (78%) of the respondents confirmed the presence of recreational facilities in the area and only 28% disagreed. High class settlement and middle class settlement had the highest rate of presence of recreational facilities at 100% and 90% respectively .while low class settlement had the lowest rate at 21% as indicated in table 4.15 and the descriptive in table 4.16.

Table 4. 15: Distribution of respondents’ response on presence of recreational facility

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Presence of recreational facility	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Yes	21	40	57	90	53	100	131	78
No	31	60	6	10	0	0	37	28
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

Table 4. 16: Descriptive statistics on presence of recreational facility

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Yes	3	40.00	100.00	76.6667	32.14550
No	3	.00	60.00	23.3333	32.14550
Valid	N	3			
(listwise)					

4.5.2.2. Types of Recreational activities found in the Study Area

The study sought the type of recreational activities found in the residential areas of the respondents. 34%, mentioned club as the main recreational facility in their area, the highest being 62% in the high class areas. Gambling, betting and video dens accounted for 22%, 21% and 23 respectively. Video dens were highest in the low class areas at 47% as indicated in table 4.17 and consequent descriptive statistics in Table 4.18 and 4.19.

Table 4. 17: Distribution of respondents' response on types of recreational activity

Type of recreational activity	Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	Freq	%
Clubbing	5	10	20	32	33	62	58	34
Gambling	14	26	9	14	15	28	38	22
Betting	9	17	23	37	2	4	34	21
Video dens	25	47	11	17	3	6	39	23
Total ₀	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

Table 4. 18: Descriptive statistics on types of recreational activity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Low-class	4	10.00	47.00	25.0000	16.06238
Middleclass	4	14.00	37.00	25.0000	11.22497
High-class	4	4.00	62.00	25.0000	26.95676
Valid N (listwise)	4				

		Low-class	Middleclass	High-class
Low-class	Pearson Correlation	1	-.717	-.617
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.283	.383
	N	4	4	4
Middleclass	Pearson Correlation	-.717	1	.139
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.283		.861
	N	4	4	4
High-class	Pearson Correlation	-.617	.139	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.383	.861	
	N	4	4	4

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

It's evident that clubbing and video dens are the most recreational activities in the study area that is at 34% and 23% respectively. The response from low class respondent show that video dens are the most recreational facilities at (47%). This is in agreement with the findings that majority of the children in this category (10%) at school going age but not in school being caused by addiction to watching video. This habit forces them to drop out of school to have enough time for this recreation.

Based on current study, cases of drug abuse in middle and low class are minimal but have extreme effect to abusers than in many cases in high class. This is because parents who are also abusers of drugs in high class have financial ability to seek intervention before their children who abuse drugs drop out of school. In conclusion, urban planners should set up sufficient

counseling centers in the municipality to minimize cases of drug abuse for high optimal child's retention in education. The study found that recreational activities are in every residential class and the main recreational activities being clubbing, gambling and video dens depending on the class of residence. The main effects of these recreational activities in the residential area are drug abuse and school dropout as most parents and residents noted that these facilities have attracted their children even during school going days and time. Furthermore, one education officer said that secondary school students were nabbed by police officers in a club at the time they were supposed to be in school. It was further shared by a parent during FGD.

“I have several times met my son who is in form three intoxicated after spending his time at the club with his elder brother who is a DJ at one of the (name withheld) in the municipality?”

This means that recreational facilities in the municipality aid in drug abuse that adversely affect the child's education retention.

Finally on this objective, observably, urbanization creates scarcity of urban land, which is mostly reserved for housing and economic demand. Without planning and specification of land use for public amenities such as schools, play grounds and community centers, it fosters disillusion and discontent giving children the impression that the only alternative to recreation is gambling and clubbing in private social places. This in turn promotes drug abuse and violence among the schoolchildren.

4.5.3. Parents' Income on Child's Education Retention

The study sought to find out the effect of parents' income on child's education retention in Kakamega Municipality. To find out this, respondents were asked about their occupation, type of housing they occupy and sufficient safe water available in their homes as indicators of parents' income.

4.5.3.1. Occupation of the Respondents

The study sought the sources of income in the various residential areas within the municipality social groups. The results are displayed in Table 4.19.

Table 4. 19: Distribution of respondents' income

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Income in Kshs.	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>
Above 70,000	8	15	15	24	48	92	71	42
31000-70,000	9	17	31	49	5	8	45	27
10000-30,000	22	42	12	19	0	0	34	20
Below 10,000	14	26	5	8	0	0	19	11
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

According to Table 4.19, it was observed that 42% of the respondents had white collar job, 27% of the respondents earned 31,000-70,000, while 20% of the respondents were Below 10,000 and 11% of residents were earning below 10,000. Low class settlement had the

highest rate of residents earning below 10,000 residents at a rate of 42 %, middle class settlement had the highest rate of blue collar job residents at a rate of 49 % while high class settlement had the highest rate of white collar employees at a rate of 92%.

These findings indicate that the nature of occupation and income of parents differently contributes to child's retention in education. Based on the total school children enrolment in selected schools in the last four years in the municipality, the dropout rate is high in low class (6.43%), followed by middle class (2.825%) and increased enrolment in high class (-1.75). In the middle class the dropout rate is so high (6.43 %) due to autonomy by parents to children in this category yet abused resulting to school indiscipline and failure to cope with school correctional procedures.

It is clear that majority of respondents in low class who earn Below kshs.10,000 (42%) or KShs. 10,000-30,000 (26%) among other low earners fail to sufficiently meet their financial obligations due to financial constraints leading to low retention of their children in education. On the other hand, the respondents in middle class majority who earn Kshs. 31,000-70,000 (49%) and at least a handful (24%) above Kshs. 70,000 earners keep their children in school to ensure they succeed in academics but because of their high expectations some of their pessimistic children drop out of school as they realize they are unable to succeed academically. This is captured in 7.8% of those children not in school. Finally in high class residents most parents earn above 70,000 which mean that they have all it takes to guarantee their children's education, however due to some of their children being too complaisant very few (2.6%) may not complete basic education.

In comparison to Mingat (2002), who found that 76 percent of their children attend school in the richest households, compared to 40 percent of the poorest households, the majority of residents in the municipality have a source of income. This indicates that there is much lower participation in schooling for children from poor families than for those from wealthier households.

Mingat (2000) agrees with Pscharapoulos (1985)) that one of the most important factors on school enrolment rates in developing countries is the level of family income. Parental socio-economic history affects the involvement of their children in education, in line with Onyango (2000). Despite these scholars observations on high rate of school attendance in high class as there is enough support from wealthy parents, there still exists cases of school dropout as this study confirms that 2.6 % of children at school attending age do not attend school. This is so significant and it points out to other flaws that not only financial constraints can deter children to retention and be retained in school.

4.5.4. Urban Transport on students' Retention in schools

The study sought to evaluate the effects of urban transport on child's education retention in Kakamega Municipality. The respondents were asked if urban transport had challenges on students' retention in schools within the municipality, the common means of transport they use in the municipality and the distance from the residence to the school students attend.

4.5.4.1. Transport Challenges in the Municipality

Means of transport being important for movement of people and commodities, the respondents were asked if students have any transport challenges. This information was to

inform the study the impact of transport on student’s retention in education. Through FGD and interview the researcher was informed that transport challenges range from lack of fare by some pupils to board PSV or motorbike, traffic jam and exposure to diseases like common cold particularly while using motorbike among other transport challenges. 51% of the residents said that students don’t have any transport challenge while 49% said they have a challenge in transport within the municipality. High class had no transport challenges at 94% but low class and middle class residents had transport challenges at 57% and 79% respectively as shown in the following table 4.20 and further descriptive statistics in Table 4.21 and 4.22.

Table 4. 20: Distribution of response on students’ transport challenges

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative		
Transport challenges	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	Freq	%
Yes	30	57	50	79	3	6	83	49
No	23	43	13	21	50	94	86	51
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

Table 4. 21: Descriptive statistics on students’ transport challenges on education

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Yes	3	6.00	79.00	47.3333	37.44774
No	3	21.00	94.00	52.6667	37.44774
Valid N (listwise)	3				

Table 4. 22: Correlations on students’ transport challenges on education retention

		Yes	No
Yes	Pearson Correlation	1	-1.000**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
	N	3	3
No	Pearson Correlation	-1.000**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
	N	3	3

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

From the above findings it is confirmed that transport negatively impacts on the child’s retention in education. This is confirmed by a strong correlation coefficient between transport challenge and education access. It is further witnessed by high rate (57%) of transportation challenge in low class residents of which the child’s retention is also low as 6.43% have no retention to education compared to -1.75 % in high class. The transportation challenge brings about means of transport boredom as they wake up very early and take long

on the way to school by children at early age particularly in class five. If not checked these children will eventually drop out of school or become truant resulting to school dropout in later years of their schooling at basic levels. On the contrary if transport is good children will be motivated and there will be high child's retention in education as witnessed in high class that only 6% experience transport challenge.

4.5.4.2. Means of Transport of the Respondents

On the means of transport, 30% of the students use bus/car and walking, 29% and 11% use motorcycles and bicycles respectively. Most of the pupils in low class and middle class settlement just walk at 47% and 40% respectively. Whereas bus/car are common in high-class settlement at 75% as shown in Tables 4.23. Table 4.24 further shows the descriptive statistics.

Table 4. 23: Distribution of respondents' response on means of transport

Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
Means of Transport	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	Freq %
Bus/car	3	6	8	13	40	75	51 30
Motorcycle	17	32	22	34	9	17	48 29
Bicycle	8	15	8	13	3	6	19 11
On foot	25	47	25	40	1	2	51 30
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169 100

Table 4. 24: Descriptive statistics on means of transport

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Bus or car	3	6.00	75.00	31.3333	37.97806
Motorcycle	3	17.00	34.00	27.6667	9.29157
Bicycle	3	6.00	15.00	11.3333	4.72582
Foot	3	2.00	47.00	29.6667	24.21432
Valid	N	3			

(listwise)

4.5.4.3. Distance from Residence to School

The study set out to find out the distance to school from the residential areas so as to find out how this influences child's retention in education. The results indicate that 73% of all residents lived between 1-3 kilometers from the school children attend, 21% lived at 4-6 kilometers distance from school and only 6% combined lived a distance of 7 kilometers and more. Majority of the high and middle class pupils 70% and 94% respectively live within a range of 1- 3 km. Despite this short distance the high class pupils use comfortable means of transport like bus and cars. On the other hand quite a big number of low class pupils live within a range of 4-6km 28% and 7-9km (18%) as shown table 4.25 and Table 4.26.

Table 4. 25: Distribution of respondents' response on distance from residence to school

Distance from Residence	Low class		Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	Freq	%
1-3km	28	53	59	94	37	70	124	73
4-6km	15	28	4	6	16	30	35	21
7-9 km	8	15	0	0	0	0	8	5
Above 8km	2	4	0	0	0	0	2	1
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

Table 4. 26: Descriptive statistics on distance from residence to school on education

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Low class	4	4.00	53.00	25.0000	21.08712
Middle class	4	.00	94.00	25.0000	46.08687
High class	4	.00	70.00	25.0000	33.16625
Valid N (listwise)	4				

The researcher sought to establish the correlation between distance from residence to school on students' retention. The feedback was summarized in Table 4.27

Table 4. 27: Correlation on distance from residence to school on education

		Low class	Middleclass	High class
	Pearson Correlation	1	.909*	.977*
Low class	Sig. (1-tailed)		.046	.011
	N	4	4	4
	Pearson Correlation	.909*	1	.929*
Middleclass	Sig. (1-tailed)	.046		.036
	N	4	4	4
	Pearson Correlation	.977*	.929*	1
High class	Sig. (1-tailed)	.011	.036	
	N	4	4	4

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

There is generally strong positive significant relationship between distance to school and education retention at more than (+0.9) in all sectors. This implies the nearer the school is to children the high chances of education access.

Research still points out that distance to school is an important determinant of educational retention and these confirmed findings by Juneja (2001), who observed that, in areas where schools are further away from homes, the distance may be considered too far for younger children to travel. This is in agreement with the current study as majority who live far from school are in low class (15%) of whom it was observed that they walk (47%) or use bicycles (15%) as they cannot afford bus fare for better means of transport. This also triggers time management challenge as they spent so long on the way to school.

In this scenario children who walk for long distance may drop out of school due to fatigue and being uncomfortable as indicated that 55 % of children who drop out of school due to long distance are in low income sector. However those in high class who have good means of transport don't experience these problems this is confirmed by high rate of use of bus or cars and high retention among high class children.

4.6. Effects of urbanization on students' retention.

The final objective of the study was to establish the effect of urbanization on students' retention. The findings are outlined as below.

4.6.1 Drug Abuse on students' Retention in schools

In the quest to determine the influence of effects of drug abuse on child's education in the municipality, the respondents were asked about the extent of drug abuse effects on child's retention in schools. The results are shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4. 28: Respondents’ response on influence of drug abuse on students’ retention

Low class			Middle class		High class		Cumulative	
	Drug abuse on Access& retention	<i>Freq</i> %	<i>Freq</i>	%	<i>Freq</i>	%	Freq	%
Very high	30	57	18	29	30	57	78	46
High	16	30	42	67	11	19	69	41
Moderate	6	11	3	4	10	20	19	12
Very low	1	2	0	0	2	4	2	1
Total	53	100	63	100	53	100	169	100

From Table 4.28, 46% said it affects very highly, 41% highly, 12% moderately and 1% very low. Low class settlement and high class settlement recorded highest number of very high effects of drug abuse on child’s education 57% each while middle class recorded that drug abuse negatively influence child’s retention in education highly at 67%

The study used the Likert scale with parameters of very high; high; moderate and very low from respondents with school-aged children who have dropped out of school due to substance abuse or other factors. From the findings, it was established that the low class settlement respondents indicated that drug abuse negatively influence the child’s retention very highly at 57%,highly at 30%,moderately at 11% and very low at 2% in this class 78% of children dropped out of school due to drug abuse.

Among the middle class respondents drug abuse negatively influence the child’s retention at

29%very high, 67%highly, 4%moderately and 0% very low, 50% of children in this sector dropped out of school as a result of abuse of drugs. Finally among the high class respondents 57% confirmed that drug abuse negative influence child's retention in primaryand secondary schools, while 19% and 20% moderately and very low respectively that drugabuse negatively influence child education. In this sector 100% drop out is as a result of drug abuse .This implies that half (50%) of the factors fueling child's school dropout thus low retention in education are drug abuse while half of cases are due to other factors.

On the analysis of low income class respondents' response very highly at (57%)that child's retention in primary and secondary school being negatively influenced by drugs is attributed to availability of commonly abused drugs among the residents, poverty and other social problems in this class leading to fear of victimization and truancy .Thus low retention in school.

From the middle class response, drug abuse negative influence very highly on accessibility and retention at 29% and 67%highly and 0% very low. This implies that despite drug abuse negatively influencing child's retention in school, there exists parental control. In high class drug abuse confirms to negatively influence child's retention at 57% very highly a similar response in low class, the reasons behind this are different. Through Focus group discussion with parents in this class, they stated that their children abuse drugs due to peerinfluence as well as the availability of recreational facilities that sell alcohol and drugs to children. Many children are left in the care of house helps because the parents have to work. Irresponsible house helps aids children to acquire drugs to abuse. This is confirmed by highcorrelation of drug abuse and school dropout in low class, moderate (+0.53) correlation between drug abuse and school dropout in middle class and finally somewhathigh (+0.98) in high class.

These correlations are indicators of existence of negative influence of drug abuse on child's retention in school. Additionally the records on school dropout in most schools connected the cause to influence by drugs.

Study undertaken by NACADA shows that there is a clear correlation between young people's alcohol/drug addiction and their retention in schools. Alcohol and substance misuse is acceptable in today's world, with parents freeing their children from prohibitions that once regulated the consumption of alcohol. Children as young as 10 years do not only drink alcohol, but experience the resulting consequences, according to the same study. Stories of children seeking therapy due to alcohol issues barely in their teens are a source of concern (NACADA, 2008).

4.6.2 Effects of recreational facilities on students' retention.

The study sought to establish the effects of recreational facilities on students' retention. The findings are summarized in Table 4.29.

Table 4. 29: Descriptive statistics on presence of recreational facility

Response	Low class	Middle class	High class
% recreational facilities leading to school dropout YES	40	90	100
% recreational facilities not leading to school dropout NO	60	10	0

% recreational facilities leading to school dropout YES		% recreational facilities not leading to school Dropout NO	
% recreational facilities leading to school dropout YES	Pearson Correlation	1	-1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N		3	3
% recreational facilities not leading to school dropout NO	Pearson Correlation	-1.000**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N		3	3

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

Pearson’s correlation analysis indicates that there is very strong positive relationship recreational facilities and school dropout. This implies that recreational facilities lead to school dropout when pupils fail to attend schools in order to watch movies and soccer games as observed by the majority municipality adults in this study. This indicates that despite the low dropout rate in education in high class, the existing percentage is associated to recreation facilities.

It was evident that most recreational facilities are found in high class and middle class settlement because of the income of the residents in those areas. From the observation it is seen that the availability of recreational facilities such as clubs, bars and leisure halls creates an enabling environment for drug abuse. It was noted during FGD that some parents are accompanied with their children and these children end up abusing drugs and alcohol with their parents for fun. This confirms the response that the low dropout level that exists in high class cluster is 100% caused by drug abuse that is aided by recreation activities.

As confirmed earlier, this negatively influences accessibility and retention of child's education. This confirms the literature of Mahoney and Stattin (2000) who ascertained that anti-social behaviors are more likely to occur during unstructured leisure because adolescents have greater opportunity to engage in these behaviors. In low class the response indicates at 60% that there are no recreational facilities. This is an indication that factors behind drug abuse in low and high income residence vary. This differently affects child's retention in school. However this is not to say that there is low school dropout in middle and low classes compared to high class as a part from drug abuse there are a myriad of other causes of school dropout in these classes as will come out in the forthcoming sections.

Besides the observation above, child's retention in school is associated to addictive recreational activities and therefore, the availability of recreational facilities that have recreational activities such as smoking, music and dance and sexual activities lead to school dropout thus low retention rate in education.

4.6.3 Effect of level of income to child's education retention

The study further sought to establish the effect of level of income of residents in the

municipality on students' retention. The results are summarized in Table 4.30.

Table 4. 30: Correlations on level of income to child's education retention

		Above 70,000	31,000-70,000	10,000-30,000	Below 10,000
Above 70,000	Pearson Correlation	1	-.587	-.891	-.805
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.601	.300	.404
	N	3	3	3	3
31,000-70,000	Pearson Correlation	-.587	1	.155	-.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.601		.901	.995
	N	3	3	3	3
10,000-30,000	Pearson Correlation	-.891	.155	1	.987
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.300	.901		.104
	N	3	3	3	3
Below 10,000	Pearson Correlation	-.805	-.008	.987	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.404	.995	.104	
	N	3	3	3	3

4.6.4 Effects of urban transport on students' retention

The study further sought to establish the effect of urban transport in the municipality on students' retention. The results are summarized in Table 4.31.

Table 4. 31: Correlations on means of transport and child's education retention

		Bus or car	Motorcycle	Bicycle	Foot
	Pearson Correlation	1	-.980	-.993*	-.999*
Bus or car	Sig. (1-tailed)		.064	.038	.017
	N	3	3	3	3
	Pearson Correlation	-.980	1	.949	.968
Motorcycle	Sig. (1-tailed)	.064		.102	.080
	N	3	3	3	3
	Pearson Correlation	-.993*	.949	1	.998*
Bicycle	Sig. (1-tailed)	.038	.102		.022
	N	3	3	3	3
	Pearson Correlation	-.999*	.968	.998*	1
Foot	Sig. (1-tailed)	.017	.080	.022	
	N	3	3	3	3

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 4. 32: Mode of transport and its challenges to students

Mode of transport and its challenges to students	Low class challenge		Middle class challenge		High class challenge							
	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	s%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%
Private cars -delays in picking pupils	1	3.45	0	0.00	4	12.12	0	0.0	10	34.49	1	10.0
School bus -congestion -cold -fatigue	4	13.80	1	25.0	8	24.24	1	12.5	16	55.17	2	50.0
Public vehicles -harassment - missing vehicles to school -hiking of bus fare	4	13.80	3	75.0	7	21.21	2	50.0	2	6.90	3	75.0
Motorbike -abuse -health problems	3	10.34	2	66.0	7	21.21	5	71.0	1	3.45	2	67.0
Bicycle -health problems -lateness to school -fatigue - harassments by other road users	5	17.24	4	80.0	2	6.06	3	60.0	0	0.00	0	00.0
Walk to school -health problems -lateness - insecurity	12	41.38	11	91.0	5	15.15	11	100.0	0	0.00	0	00.0

Table 4. 33: School Dropout Due to Poor Means of Transport

Low class			Middle class			High class			Cumulative
school dropout due to poor means of transport	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>%</i>	
No of drop out cases due to poor transport	5	55	2	50	0	0	7	47	
No of dropout due to other factors	4	45	2	50	2	100	8	53	
Total	9	100	4	100	100	100	15	100	

In this section it is concluded that means of transport impacts on child's retention in education. This could be positively if the mean of transport is comfortable or negative if the means is uncomfortable. The correlation coefficient between good means such as bus and car is strong positive which means these mean enhance education retention by the child being comfortable and enjoying the journey and getting to school on time. The transport challenges resulting from bus and car like overcrowding are few and easily resolved. On the other hand poor means such as walking on foot or use of bicycle has strong negative correlation of (-1) and affirmation that these means do not promote education access. This is because these means are tiring to children and sometimes children are punished for being late to school which in turn make them to drop out of school. The low and middle class

entails the uncomfortable means of transport such as on foot 47% in low class and 40% on bicycle in middle class for whole respondents. Specifically, students who go on foot and bicycle in low class and face challenge getting to school are 91% and 80% respectively, while it is 60% and 100% in middle class and 0% in high class in both cases. As a result of poor means of transport like bicycle and on foot the drop out level is high in low class (55%) of drop out cases. In middleclass 45% of dropout cases are confirmed to be caused by poor means of transport. In highclass very few cases of drop out are 100% caused by other factors and not poor means of transport. This is because those in high class have very comfortable means of transport which is bus or car because they can afford it financially (75%).

The reasons behind low retention in education in low income class connected to means of transport is that some poor means of transport predispose children to health risks which results to school absenteeism and eventual school dropout due to serious sickness as established during the FGD with most of the respondents.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the findings on impact of urbanization retention of a child's education in Kakamega municipality. This summary is presented in response to research questions as drawn from the study objectives.

5.2 Summary

This study established that urbanization impacts both negatively and positively on child's retention in education. The study was concerned with the negative impact.

The first objective of the study was to find out the extent of urban sprawl student's retention in Kakamega municipality. The findings revealed that there was no school with one or five streams. The presence in the municipality of schools of two streams and above is an indicator of increased enrollment. It is also clear that dropout rate increased during transition from class seven to eight majorities in low class. This confirms parent's responsibility shift due to high demands expected in secondary schools and in ability of pupils at this level to have control of overwhelming challenges from urbanization. This projected a problem of retention of a child's education in the municipality across all the sectors and more so in low class

The second objective of the study was to establish the effects of urban sprawl on students; retention. The findings indicate that drug abuse is a major challenge to the residents of the

municipality. The most abused drugs according to the research is alcohol and Bhang/Marijuana. The findings indicate that drug abuse has negative impact on student's school retention in the municipality due to school going children being addicted and absenting themselves from school and eventual school dropout.

Since illicit narcotics are more expensive because they are illegal, they need larger and more developed markets, making urban areas more alluring to drug traffickers. Cities have more wealth for high numbers of people than rural areas, thereby increasing the likelihood of users. In total, for the same reasons why people move to larger towns, illicit drugs could be more accessible in cities. Urban regions also increase the likelihood that distributors will remain anonymous, which suggests a longer time frame for the business. As a result, there may be a higher perception that drugs are more closely associated with metropolitan regions due to the size of the sector, increased adolescent ability and willingness to pay, and increased media exposure to what is happening in cities. Urban environments are thought to speed up the rate at which adolescents participate in early sexual engagement, gang conduct, and substance misuse. It is claimed that urban youth are more likely to engage in risky behaviors as a result of a specific combination of socialization and contextual factors (Stoiber & Good, 1998). Young people living in towns that have experienced a rapid urbanization process are more at risk of using drugs. Other factors that can promote youth participation in drug experimentation and subsequent misuse are greater population density, less mutual effectiveness or social capital, more privacy in the group and reduced risks for drug dealers. Different types of drugs are abused by different groups; this study asserts that the commonly abused drugs and substance is alcohol (58%) and bhang (22%). Other abused drugs are cocaine (8%) and heroin (5%). The abuse of these drugs, their effects, and

likelihood of dependency developing vary across groups.

From the findings of the study, it was very clear that most of the municipality residents in middle and high class had either white collar job or blue-collar job. However, those in low class residents depend on casual labor (42%) and others are Below 10,000 (26%) majority of who indicated they earn below five thousand shillings per month. Most school principals when asked indicated that students from poor backgrounds are often sent home to collect fees and they end up dropping out of school as they give up with studies because they don't want to bother their parents financially as confirmed by high dropout rate (10.4%) in low class compared to low dropout rate (2.6%) in the selected schools of the municipality .This is because parents in low class strain financially to keep their children in education.

Urbanization presents a loss of security, culture, status and economic means of survival for many individuals. As their habitat is degraded, ruined or appropriated by elements of more powerful societies, many indigenous cultures or refugees have been stripped of their traditional means of support. In such cases, parents may find themselves in large urban areas searching for shelter and jobs and are exposed to stressors such as abuse, crime, infectious diseases, insufficient nutrition, inferior housing and insecurity. On the opposite, parents with greater financial wealth can find areas with higher-quality schools in the very locations where good schools are likely to be, and select more costly neighborhoods. More wealthy parents should also use their wealth to ensure their children have retention in a wide range of school and urban community extracurricular activities. This supports James Coleman's (2016) previous hypothesis that family income could have a direct effect on the academic success of a child or that differences in performance may simply be a feature of the school that the child

attends.

This study finding showed that the majority of the municipal residents have few transport challenges because most of the means of transport and types were readily available. Most schools were also conspicuously located along the road and near the residence about 1-3 kilometers distance from homes as confirmed by (73%) of the residents. This explains why most of the children in middle and low class residences simply walk or use bicycle to school. It was also found that some of the children in high class residents use bus or car because of their status in the municipality. Despite the distance being short, it was found that some children, particularly in low class travelled for between 4-6km (28%) and 7-9km (15%). This proportion of the whole target population confirms existence of children more so in low class who also walk or use bicycle for a long distance. This long distance poses negative impact on child's retention in education as children in this group are susceptible to many factors that hinder retention in education.

5.3 Conclusions

In conclusion there is negative impact of drug abuse, recreation facilities, parents' income and transport on students' retention in schools in the municipality. The statistical analysis have shown strong correlation coefficient at (1) of drug abuse on child's education , parents' income, availability of recreational facilities and distance at correlation coefficient of (0.9) impacting on child's retention in schools. It has been confirmed that the middle and low class students' school retention is most negatively affected by these factors which is in agreement with study conducted by Felter (2015) in china otherwise what characterizes urbanization. There are also cases of negative impact of urbanization of child's education in

high class which is specifically caused by availability and access of recreational facilities in this class. Childs retention and accessibility in middle class is negatively impacted by drug abuse, parents' income and transport challenges vested in long distance as have been discussed in the previous sections.

Additionally the most negatively impacted retention in education is the low group which this study has established that this group suffers many consequences of urbanization. However there is hope of retention in education of children in this group if drug abuse is contained, better transport and infrastructure is established and parent's income is improved as spillovers of urbanization in the municipality. Lastly, the high class will continue enjoying urbanization impact and thus child's retention improved if measures to control a few infiltrated behaviors of addiction to recreational activities and some cases of drug abuse established. This confirmed by the study carried out by Patrick et al (2016) who asserted that alcohol and substance use were predictive of higher rates of school dropout. The study carried out found out that transport is key in the retention of students' in schools and confirmed by (Ajayi, 2001).

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The following are the recommendations of this study objectively:

1. To control drug abuse in the municipality, counseling services should be availed by institutions and operationalized by professionals in schools to curb its negative impact on students' retention in schools. It is however notable that much as Guidance and Counseling is used in schools, it is not effective because of challenges in identifying lack of qualified Guidance and Counseling masters. It is necessary to strengthen centres in

municipality to offer services to other institutions like Prisons

2. More employment opportunities should be created for middle and majority low income classes by reserving specific jobs in the county for these groups to enable better access of these groups child's retention in education.
3. The national and county governments should collaboratively establish more policies on transport for school going children in urban centers.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Study

This study could not exhaust all impacts of urbanization on accessibility and retention in education. Therefore the following suggestions for research are recommended to scholars in this area or other related areas:

1. The impact of drug abuse on child's social development in urban centres
2. Governments role on improving the living standards of low income owners in the municipality
3. Efficiency of existing policies on transport for school going children in urban centers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

1. What is your occupation.....
2. Does your occupation above affect your children’s retention in education
Yes No
3. What is your approximate income
Below 5000 5000-10000 10000-20000 Over 20000
4. a) Where do you stay? State the estate
- b) Is there a school in your estate? If no how far is the school where you go/your children go to?
1-4km 4-10km
5. What are the challenges of taking your child or children to the best school in the municipality?

Urban transport

6. Do you /your children experience any challenges in terms transport to school?
7. What transport challenges do they experience?
8. What means of transport do your children use to school?
9. How far is the school to which your children go from your residential area?

Urban Recreational facilities

10. Do you have recreational facility near your residential area?
Yes No
11. Do school children go to these facilities during school time?
Yes No
12. Which recreational facilities are children mostly found during school time?
- i) Videos
 - ii) Indoor games
 - iii) Bars
 - iv) restaurants

Drug abuse

13. Have you ever experienced cases of drug abuse in your family?
Yes No
14. Are there any cases of children in your estate who take drugs
Yes No
15. Have you ever seen school going children drinking or taking drugs during schooltime
Yes No

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESIDENT PARENTS

Introduction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to seek information on the Challenges of Urbanization Impact on Accessibility and Retention of a Child's Education in Kakamega Municipality. The information you give will be treated as confidential and will be only used for the purpose of this study. Please feel free to respond to the following questions as openly as possible. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Background Information

1. Gender

Male []

Female []

2. Age

10 – 14 []

15-19 []

20-24 []

25-29 []

30-34 []

Above 35 []

3. Do you have a child in school? [] Yes [] No

If yes how many.....

4. How long have you stayed in Kakamega municipality

[] 1-3years

[] 4-6years

[] 7-10years

[] above 10years

Social-Economic activity and family income

1. What is the range of your salary per month?

Above Kshs. 70,000 []

Kshs. 31,000-70,000 []

kshs. 10,000-30,000 []

Below 10,000 []

2. In which estate do you live?

Milimani	
Bukhungu	
Township/Central/Shichirahi	
Lurambi/Mahiakalo	
Amalemba/Shirere	

Urban transport

3. What means of transport do you use?

Bus [] Motorcycle [] Bicycle [] on foot []

4. Does your child experience any challenges in terms transport to school?

Yes[] No[]

5. If yes what are the challenges?

.....

.....

.....

6. How far is the town from your residential area?

1-3 km [] 4-6 km [] 7-8 km [] Above 8 km []

Urban Recreational facilities

7. Do you have recreational facility near your residential area?

Yes [] No [] If yes what facility is it.....

8. Have ever seen any school going age children in the facility?

9. What does urban recreational facilities result on your school going children?

Drugabuse [] Early pregnancy [] school Dropout []

10. Which recreational facilities affect children's education?

Clubbing [] Gambling [] Betting [] Video dens []

Drug abuse

11. Have you experienced cases of drug abuse in your family?

Yes [] No [] If yes which drug.....

12. Have you come across a school going age child taking drugs/alcohol? Yes No

If yes state the specific drug/ alcohol?.....

13. What are the control measures do you propose on drug abuse?

Closure of recreation facilities [] Guidance and counseling [] Police arrests []

14. What are the effects of drug abuse on children in your residential area?

Early pregnancy [] School Dropout [] Robbery and violence []

APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDENTS

Introduction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to seek information on the Challenges of Urbanization Impact on Accessibility and Retention of a Child's Education in Kakamega Municipality. The information you give will be treated as confidential and will be only used for the purpose of this study. Please feel free to respond to the following questions as openly as possible. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: Background Information

1. Age in terms of years 0-14 [] 15 – 19 [] 20-24 [] 25-29 [] 30-34 [] Over 35 yrs []

2. Our gender Male Female

3. Class/Form.....

4. Name of your residential Estate.....

5. Number of siblings in your family

1-3[] 4-6[] 7-9 [] Above 10 []

6 . Type of the family?

[] single parent [] both parents alive [] Total orphan

7. Occupation of the parent/guardian

Teacher [] Doctor [] Businessman [] any other specify.....

8. Distance from School to your home

1-3 km [] 4-6 km [] 7-8 km [] Above 8 km []

9. What type is yours school?

Boarding Day

Day / boarding

10. If day school how do you travel to school (please write down the means of transport)

Bus

Motorcycle

Bicycle

on foot

11. What are the difficulties you face when using these means to

school?.....

.....

12. Is there any instance of pregnancy in your school?

13. How many girls and boys are in your class?

Boys

Girls

not applicable

14. (i) Are there friends of your school who don't come to school regularly Yes No

a. If yes what do you think makes them to miss coming to school?

15. (i) Are there times you have been send home because of fees and other school requirements? Yes No

a. Are there friends of yours who have been send home because of fees?

Yes No

If yes, do they sometimes fail to come to school Yes No

APPENDIX IV: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PRINCIPAL/HEADTEACHER

Introduction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to seek information on the challenges of urbanization impact on accessibility and retention of a child's education in Kakamega municipality. The information which you give in this questionnaire will strictly be confidential and will only be used for research purposes.

Kindly respond to the questionnaire by ticking in the appropriate boxes or filling in the required information. Please feel free to respond to the following questions as openly as possible. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

1. What is your gender? Please tick. Male Female

2. What is the category of your school? Primary Secondary

3. Number of years as a Principal/Head teacher in the current station 1-3 years 4-6 years 7-10 years over 10 years

4. What is Size of your school?
Stream 2 Streams 3 Streams 4 streams above 4 streams

5. Type of school
Boys only Girls only Mixed

6. Is your school Boarding or Day? Boarding Day

7. What was the enrolment of the current candidate class in previous classes in the last 8 years?

YEAR	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
2015(Class 5)			
2016(Class 6)			
2017(Class 7)			
2016(Class 8)			
2017(Form I)			
2018(Form II)			
2019(Form III)			
2020(Form IV)			
TOTAL			

What reason can be given for the drop in numbers/no continuation if any?

Lack of fees early pregnancy distance of the school drug abuse

8. What type of residential settlement is your school located Low-class Middle class High-class

Urban transport

9. What type of road is next to your school?

Seasonal roads Tarmac roads All weather road

10. Do your students/pupils experience any challenges in terms of transport to school?

Yes No if yes state these challenges-----

That means of transport is mostly used by your students/pupils? Bus [] Motorcycle []
Bicycle [] on foot []

Urban Recreational facilities

11. a). Do you have recreational facility near your school area? Yes [] No []

If yes

b). which ones among the following? Kindly tick on one

Bar [] Gambling/Betting [] Video dens [] Restaurant []

c) Are there cases when some school going children have been found in these facilities Yes
No

c). How do these facilities affect school going children? Drug abuse [] Early pregnancy []
School Dropout []

12. Have you experienced cases of drug abuse in your school?

Yes [] No [] If yes which drug is mostly abused.....

13. What are the control measures do you propose on drug abuse?

Closure of recreation facilities [] Guidance and counseling [] Police arrests []

14. What is the level of effects of drug abuse on children in your school?

Very high [] High [] Moderate [] Very low []

APPENDIX V: KREJCE AND MORGAN (1970) TABLE

<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>S</i>
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

APPENDIX VI: UNIVERSITY AUTHORIZATION LETTER



MASINDE MULIRO UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (MMUST)

Tel: 056-30870
Fax: 056-30153
E-mail: dps@mmust.ac.ke
Website: www.mmust.ac.ke

P.O Box 190
Kakamega – 50100
Kenya

Directorate of Postgraduate Studies

Ref: MMU/COR: 509099

Date: 3rd July, 2019

Emily Nasimiyu Kotiano
GEO/G/04/2016
P.O. Box 190-50100
KAKAMEGA

Dear Ms. Nasimiyu,

RE: APPROVAL OF PROPOSAL

I am pleased to inform you that the Directorate of Postgraduate Studies Board has considered and approved your Masters proposal entitled: *'Challenges of Urbanization Impact on Accessibility and Retention of a Child's Education in Kakamega'* and appointed the following as supervisors:

1. Dr. Margaret M. Immonje
2. Dr. Joash Mabonga

You are required to submit through your supervisor(s) progress reports every three months to the Director of Postgraduate Studies. Such reports should be copied to the following: Chairman, School of Arts and Social Sciences Graduate Studies Committee and Chairman, Department of Geography and Graduate Studies Committee. Kindly adhere to research ethics consideration in conducting research.

It is the policy and regulations of the University that you observe a deadline of two years from the date of registration to complete your Masters thesis. Do not hesitate to consult this office in case of any problem encountered in the course of your work.

We wish you the best in your research and hope the study will make original contribution to knowledge.

Yours Sincerely,

DEAN
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
MASINDE MULIRO UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY
Date: _____

Dr. Consolata Ngala
DEPUTY DIRECTOR, DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

APPENDIX VII: NACOSTI RESEARCH LICENCE

 Ministry of Science and Technology	 NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
Ref No: 632007	Date of Issue: 08/September/2019
RESEARCH LICENSE	
	
This is to Certify that Dr. Beatrice Muteba of Makerere University of Science and Technology, has been licensed to conduct research in Kakamega on the topic: CHALLENGES OF URBANIZATION IMPACT ON ACCESSIBILITY AND RETENTION OF A CHILD'S EDUCATION IN KAKAMEGA MUNICIPALITY for the period ending : 08/September/2020.	
License No: NACOSTI/19/010	
632007 Applicant Identification Number	 Director General NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
	Verification QR Code 
NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.	

APPENDIX VIII: COUNTY COMMISSIONER RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



**THE PRESIDENCY
INTERIOR AND CO-ORDINATION OF
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT**

Telegrams "DISTRICTER" Kakamega
Telephone 056 -31131
Fax 056 - 31133
Email: cckakamega12@yahoo.com
When replying please quote

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA
P O BOX 43 - 50100
KAKAMEGA.

Ref: ED/12/1/VOL.V/135

Date: 6th April, 2021

**Emily Nasimiyu Kotiano
P O Box 190 - 50100
KAKAMEGA**

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your authorization vide letter Ref: NACOSTI/P/19/1010 dated 9TH September, 2019 by NACOSTI to undertake research on "*Challenges of Urbanization on Accessibility and Retention of a Child 's Education in Kakamega*" for the period ending 9th September, 2020.

I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out the research on the same.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Eredi C. M.'.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY

**EREDI C. M.
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY**

APPENDIX X: SAMPLE OF CASE FILE REPORT ON DRUG ABUSE FROM CORRECTIONAL FACILITY.

SUPERINTENDENT IN CHARGE
 SHIKUSA BORSTAL INSTITUTION
 P. O. Box 77-50100,
 KAKAMEGA
 shikusa.borsta@yahoo.com

Mid way progress Report.

Name	
SHB NO.	
Attitude	Responding well to training and rehabilitation programmes. Willing to acquire sound attitudes and behavior.
Offence	Possession of Narcotics.
Section/ Vocational Guidance	Agriculture-To acquire skills that will help be self reliant
Risks/ needs assessment	His risks/ needs were assessed. Most of his problems were as a result of poor parental guidance, monitoring, parental care and support. Pressure from his pro criminal friends and low levels of satisfaction at a early age.
Psychosocial intervention	He was placed on a counseling therapy that targets both dynamic and static aspects of these factors as well as Dishonest living, drug and substance abuse management, stress management, truancy and general delinquencies. We have helped him build relationships with pro-social friends that will help him shape his life.
Institutional Ties	Obedient.
Recommendation	His successful rehabilitation and reintegration requires strategy that addresses long term and short term welfare needs. There is need to strengthen family connections.