Analysis of Home-Based Factors and Student Personal Attributes Influencing Transition Rate by Gender from Primary to Secondary Schools in Kisii Central Sub-County, Kenya

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Abstract

The flow of students from primary to the secondary level of education known as transition is an indication of balanced and unbalanced development of education between two levels. A large number of primary school graduates fail to proceed to secondary level of education all over the world because of a number of factors. The causes may be school-based factors, home based factors or students’ based factors/attributes. The purpose of this study was to establish the home based factors and student personal attributes influencing transition rates from primary to secondary school in Kisii Central Sub-County. The study design of the study was a descriptive survey research design. The study population comprised of all the 48 secondary schools in Kisii Central Sub-County. Out of the targeted population, a sample of 11 schools was drawn through the process of stratified random sampling technique. A sample size from a target population of 5422 students and 288 teachers was then be used to select a sample of 542 form one students and 29 teachers from the sampled schools. Stratified random sampling technique was then used to determine the sample size per school, based on gender for form one students and teachers in each division. In addition all the 38 Head teachers in the sampled schools were used in the study. Structured and unstructured questions were used in the study. The study established that generally there was an increase in the number of pupils who enrolled for KCPE and those who joined form one. However, there was a general drop in the number of girls who sat for KCPE and those who joined form one. Also, the study established that home-based factors positively and significantly influence transition rates while student’s personal factors influence negatively transition rate in terms of enrolment, dropout and academic performance of students. The study recommended that: The government should continue enforcing the policy on 100% transition rate and any parent contravening this policy should be prosecuted; The community and the family at large should ensure that they support students by advising them appropriately on the importance of education to minimize dropout and increase performance of their students; and the learners should develop intrinsic motivation towards education that will push them towards achieving highest level of academic achievement.

Key words: Enrolment, repetition, rate, participation, transition.

Background to the Study

The flow of students from one level of education to another known as ‘transition’ is an integral part of development. It is an indication of balanced and unbalanced development of education between two levels. Every year, however, a large number of primary graduates fail to proceed to secondary level all over the world. This has been attributed to several reasons.
These reasons may be school based such as school rules, regulations, attitudes, the curriculum, teachers security, physical facilities, management practices or socio-economic and cultural factors such as parent’s education level, parent’s occupation, family size, birth order, gender on educational and occupational aspirations, parental involvement or students own attitudes towards education (Jimmetra, 2010).

Kikechi (2003) further observes that secondary education is a vital part of the education sector, one that has important implications for a country’s efforts to elevate the quality of life of its citizens. It is therefore important that primary school graduates transit to secondary school level. The expansionary and participation rates of the two levels are governed by different factors. The transition rates can only be analysed fully through the analysis of pupils graduating from the last year of a particular level of education (primary) as compared to the proportion of the same cohort that enters the first year of the next level of education (secondary).

Global research has established that education increases individual incomes, which are positively correlated with reductions in poverty and illiteracy rates as well as improving income, nutrition and construction of democracy (Hannum & Buchemann, 2003). Education therefore, is key to sustaining democracies, improving health, increasing per capita income and conserving environmental resources (USAID, 2008). Uyttersprot (2008) observes that secondary education is crucial to skills development relevant for growth, poverty reduction and attaining the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), secondary education also replenishes human resource lost through Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) (Lewin, 2008).

With the above mentioned factors and increased number of children leaving primary schools as a result of Free Primary Education (FPE), there is need to expand secondary education. As a result, the Kenyan government has had a long term plan of integrating secondary education as part of basic education (Rok (a), 2005). In 2008 it implemented Free Tuition Secondary Education (FTSE) which was in line with the policy of having 12 years basic education. This attempt also addresses constitutional requirement that the state should provide its citizens with free and compulsory basic education (Rok, 2011). But even with such attempts, the number of children attending secondary schools is still low standing at 1.8 million which represents 13% (RoK, 2010).

In most Western countries, there are no major problems in accessing and completing this level of education. In countries such as Germany, Belgium, Italy, Australia, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Cyprus, Finland, Spain, Czech Republic and Canada secondary education is freely provided and is compulsory. Similarly, in the fast growing economies such as China, Malaysia and Singapore, secondary education is free and mandatory up to the middle, junior or lower secondary. This has also been replicated in a few African countries such as Botswana, Rwanda and Uganda which have introduced Nine Year Basic Education (9YBE) that encompasses junior secondary education (African Population and Health Research Center (APHRC), 2007).

According to ROK (2007) Kenya recognizes that the education and training of all Kenyans is fundamental to the success of the Vision 2030. Education equips citizens with understanding and knowledge that enables them to make informed choices about their lives and those facing Kenyan society. The education sector therefore aims at providing the skills that will be required to steer Kenyans to the economic and social goals of Vision 2030. The first immediate challenge facing the sector in Kenya’s transformation to 2030 is how to meet the human resource requirements for a rapidly changing and more diverse economy. The next
challenge is to ensure that the education provided meets high quality standards, and that its contents are relevant to the needs of the economy and society. The third challenge to move rapidly in raising the standards of the regions that lag behind in enrolment to bring them to par with other areas.

ROK (2007) further observes that Education and training sector is charged with the responsibility of creating a knowledge-based society that upholds justice, democracy, accountability and encourages issue-based and results-oriented political engagements. Various interventions will be undertaken to inculcate a culture that upholds the supremacy and respect for the rule of law, one which promotes national pride, positive behaviour, a strong work ethic and a culture of saving, and which promotes attitudes favourable to environmental conservation.

Despite the governments’ efforts to raise the transition rates from primary to secondary schools in Kenya the majority of the primary level graduates do not proceed to the secondary level. In Kisii Central Sub-county only a small percentage (66%) of pupils proceeds to secondary school level from primary school level when the national transition rate is 83.9% (ROK, 2017). As such, there is a need to determine the flow of students from primary to secondary schools in Kisii Central Sub-county, and to investigate in depth the factors affecting their transition.

Statement of the Problem

Low transition rates of pupils from primary to secondary schools have been associated with lack of form one places in secondary schools in Kenya over the years. However, in some parts of the country there is under enrolment at secondary school level while the problem of low transition rate persists. In Kisii Central sub-county for example, the teacher/ students ratio in secondary schools stands at 1 teacher against 37 students, compared with the national average of 1 teacher against 45 students (Kisii County Integrated Development Plan 2014-2018). This indicates that there are enough facilities but underutilised in secondary schools in Kisii County due to low enrolment. It is therefore clear that there may be some key factors that contribute to the low transition rates in Kisii County. It is in view of this gap that the present study was designed to establish the home based factors and student personal attributes affecting transition rates from primary to secondary school levels in Kisii Central Sub-county and suggest measures that could possibly be taken to increase the transition rates.

Literature Review

For the most part, compulsory education in economically developed countries is split into two phases: primary, which generally begins at age five or six and lasts until age 11/13, and secondary which ends at 17/18, the official leaving age in many countries, but students usually continue to the age of 19. While second-level education used to be seen as the sole preserve of the elite, global economic interests and demands for an educated work force have seen an increase in this provision of second-level education to the point where, in 2004, there were around half a billion children in second-level schools worldwide (UNESCO 2007). The transition from primary to post-primary education has been noted as a critical educational step for many children (Smyth, McCoy & Dermody, 2004). According to Hargreaves, Earl & Ryan (1996) transfer is a time of triple transition as students negotiate the move from childhood to adolescence, from one institutional context to another with different regulations, teacher demands, and teacher expectations and the journey from established
social groups into new social relations. Therefore, it would appear that the impact of social, emotional, academic and institutional issues should be considered a priority for educators when examining a transfer process in the educational context.

In recent years the effects of transition from primary to post-primary school have been of particular interest to educationists due to reports that many children in the first year of secondary school regressed in major parts of their education. Galton et al, (2000) reported that up to 40% of pupils experience a hiatus in academic progress during the first couple of months after school transfer.

According to the international conference on Education, 35th Session, Geneva (1975) introduction of automatic progression from primary to secondary education through the abolition of the secondary entrance examination makes a reality of the democratisation of secondary education. It has already been applied in several European countries and Korea with the extension of compulsory schooling to include the first cycle of secondary education. This had really improved the transition rate from primary to secondary schools.

In China those who fail to join secondary school level "join the grand array of workers and peasants with the self-image of being failure" (Yang 1993: 17) There are also as many as 20 percent of students who are held back in the last grade of the upper primary school in an effort to raise the level of school performance (Wen, 1993)

According to the European parliament (1997) on education, it says that in some regions of Europe there is no distinct transfer point between primary and secondary schools. Students retain one or a small number of teachers from 6 years to 16 years throughout their transition period, which does not result in a slowing down of the learning process. Additional difficulties may occur in regions where primary school children have a wider variety of secondary school choices. This makes liaison between the many primary and secondary schools much more difficult. Where there is close collaboration between secondary school and primary school there is more likely to be progression and continuity in all subject areas and in the use of multimedia technologies for learning.

All children go through a transition period from childhood to adolescence. In most regions of the world students actually transfer from a primary to secondary school. This tends to result in students changing from having just one teacher to having many teachers. This discontinuity is often worked by a different style of teaching, which can result from decreased rate of learning.

According to the World Bank (1992) Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest rate of enrolment in secondary school; with less than one-third of primary-school children progressing. East Asia, South Asia and Latin America have slightly higher transition rates but still remains far behind the industrialized countries. Limited progression through the secondary system produces a limited transfer into tertiary system. Only 3 percent of Africa children, 8 percent of south Asia children and 17 percent of children in East Asia progress from primary school level to tertiary institutions.

It should not be surprising to find that examinations, which are designed to select a minority of students for further education, have low pass rate. While this is not so in all countries, high failure rates are found in several countries. In one Caribbean country only one in three primary-school students passes the common entrance examination and, of those who proceed to secondary school, almost half fail to pass any subject in one sitting of the examination (Ibid.)
School transfer is a complex process and is mediated by the students’ individuality, their social class, resources of their families and factors that relate to the second-level system in general as well as by the characteristics of individual second-level schools (O’Brien, 2004). The relationship between socio-economic background and educational outcomes has been well documented internationally. Pupils from lower income and minority ethnic groups have been found to be potentially more at risk of not making a successful transition to post-primary school (Gutman and Ridgley, 2000). Apart from socioeconomic characteristics parental support has been found to be a crucial factor in facilitating young people’s successful integration into post-primary education (Anderson et al., 2000). The nature of authority structures within the family also influences the transition process.

According to Eccles et al. (1993) and Lord et al. (1994) young people who report a democratic family environment tend to have higher self-esteem and more successful adjustment to a new school: this was found to be as a result of parents’ support of their child’s adjustment to the new school, the quality of the affective relationship between the parents and adolescent and parents’ investment in providing opportunities for their children outside of the home. Parents felt that transfer was a time of significance for their children but differed in their ability to mobilise resources to support children through this challenging time. Those with social, cultural and economic capital used it in the interest of their children in choosing schools, supporting academic work and purchasing social advantage in suitable leisure-time activities. Inequalities between families and pupils became magnified at the time of transfer. In schools designated as disadvantaged there were structures in place whereby more formal transfer programmes were implemented at both primary and second-level.

The literature on social class and education suggests that parents who themselves left school without completing second-level do not have the same ‘cultural capital’ as parents with more formal qualifications and therefore cannot engage with the system (Bourdieu, 1984). Children are at a disadvantage when their parents are not familiar with the more specialised and technical knowledge of second-level schooling and even more so when their parents are also unfamiliar with the system and culture at second-level (Bourdieu, 1986). Parents may be unaware of the significance of institutional practices in the school and consequently may seem less interested in their children’s schooling and are more distanced from the school (O’Brien, 2008).

Research has found that parents have different abilities to engage with the process of choosing a second-level school and that this is affected by cultural capital, social class and race (Gerwitz et al. 1994). Parents with high cultural capital occupy the middle classes and are skilled at choosing. Migrant families, though they may occupy the middle classes were at a disadvantage as they do not have the first-hand knowledge to decode the nuances of the education system. Those who had left school early or with poor qualifications tended to be in the lower social groupings: in general they had neither the expertise (due to limited knowledge of the education system) nor the emotional interest to engage in the process. Reay and Ball’s (1998) study found that working-class parents construe their children as the experts in making the choice. Reay and Lucey (2000) found that there are differences as to how children decide on their second-level school: these include children’s own individuality, their ability to engage with their parents and the way in which power is handled in families.

Anticipating the move to post-primary school has been found to cause a certain amount of anxiety for the majority of first-year students while at the same time most students look
forward to the move with a sense of excitement (Naughton, 2000; O’Brien, 2001; Hargreaves & Galton, 2002). The main anxieties centred on fear of being bullied, changes in friendships and relations with teachers. Organisational factors such as disciplinary procedures, timetables, more difficult work and homework, having several teachers and subjects and changing classrooms were also found to contribute to pre-transfer anxieties (Naughton, 2000; O’Brien, 2001). Girls were found to have expressed more anxiety than boys about transferring to the new school (Hargreaves & Galton, 2002; O’Brien, 2001). Concern about post-primary school was also expressed by those students who did not secure a place in the school of their choice (or whose parents actually made the choice!).

More recent research on the topic was commissioned by the Department of Education & Science in Ireland when the perspectives and experiences of the relevant groups in the transition process - students, teachers and parents - were drawn on. Background factors such as students’ academic performance, their social class, their gender and the type of school attended at primary level were integral to another study (O’Brien, 2004). In 2004 Smyth et al. examined the experiences of first year students, their teachers and parents in terms both of pupils’ adjustment to post-primary education and their perception of the curriculum and learning within junior cycle. This research set out to explore the social and academic factors which help young people settle into post primary school in the Irish context. It sought to address the gaps in Irish research on how post-primary schools can influence the integration and learning of their students in first year. Individual student characteristics such as gender, social class and prior educational success were also referred to in this work.

In spite of anxieties about making the transition to post-primary school only a minority of students appear to experience serious difficulties once they have moved to their new school (O’Brien, 2001; Hargreaves & Halton, 2002; Smyth et al., 2004). However, at the end of first year pupils had lost some of their enthusiasm for the new subjects and teachers, when they realised that assessments and allocation to higher and lower courses were integral to school life and that second-year class-groupings were determined by performance at first-year examinations. For most students their excitement diminished as they realised they had to conform to new rules and expectations while having to comply with the rigours of a competitive system (O’Brien, 2004).

The majority of students entering secondary school have high expectations and are hopeful about the potential of their new school. Graham and Hill (2002) have shown that the most common response was “looking forward” to a new school, new friends, and learning new things. Moreover, many students report coping better than expected and as Kirkpatrick (2004) has reported, after making the transition students seem adept at making new friends and separating the development of friendship networks in the classroom from friendship networks outside of class. Moreover peer groups were found to be a source of academic support – those deriding academics more the exception than the rule. Students see the academic importance of schools but they most expected the transition to provide a social success with new and existing friendships which would transfer with them (Pietarinen, 2000).

Akos and Galassi (2004) further states that many students viewed the transition as relatively easy and Kirkpatrick (2004) reports that they were looking forward to a “fresh start” with the greater challenges and more interesting opportunities for meeting friends and studying new subjects. However, many of these research studies took place prior to the actual transition, and as Kirkpatrick (2004) suggests, students had little accurate information about the culture
of secondary school. However, the repeated finding of the optimism about the transition is clearly a good starting point, and an avenue for further study and program focus. The contradiction is that students also express anxiety about the transition prior to its occurrence. For example, immigrant youth state that they expected things to be easier than they turned out (Graham and Hill, 2002). Tilleczek (2007) suggests that an emotional paradox exists at this transition point, as it does at many life junctures. Students are both excited and anxious, and both doubtful and hopeful. The source of anxiety most pervasive is the loss of status and the worries that this loss is accompanied by initiation rituals which are unpleasant (Tilleczek, 2006; Graham and Hill, 2002; Pietarinen, 2000; Kvalsund, 2000). Dips in self-perception and learner identities are pervasive (Silverthorn et al, 2005). Kvaslund (2000) concludes that students are concerned about a “great fall” and a “social descent” (p.412). As Hargreaves & Earl (1990) have pointed out, the move to secondary school is contradictory in that students move toward adult status as they move out of elementary school. At the same time, their status initially decreases while in grade 9. Given the importance of status to adolescents, the social and academic implications are obvious. Therefore, student’s perceptions of the transition are both positive and negative. Academic concerns such as homework, pressure to do well, and potential drops in achievement are paramount for both students and parents (Akos and Galassi, 2004; Kvaslund, 2000). Social concerns such as getting lost, bullying, and making friends (Schumacher, 1998; Kvaslund, 2000) are the most prevalent perceived risks. Being separated from friends was “dreaded” for male and female students in all types of schools (Kvalsund, 2000). Beyond the negotiation of the transition, structural problems are imagined and/or experienced by students. Of concern are the size and layout of secondary schools, the time table, and complicated schedules, getting picked on, not knowing anyone, potentially getting lost, having multiple teachers, and remembering where to go (Graham & Hill, 2002; Kvaslund, 2000; Schumacher, 1998). The aspect most troubling in relation to school work was the increase in homework (Graham and Hill, 2002). Kvaslund (2000) further points out that these perceived negative risks in larger urban communities are often passed on through rumours which begin as early as grade 6. In contrast, students from smaller rural schools had already been to visit their local secondary school and knew most of the people there. They were therefore able to “explode some myths” associated with transition. As a result, they concentrated more on the risk of being separated from their friends in class (Kvaslund, 2000). In following the students through the transition and over two years, Kirkpatrick (2004) found that the students felt that the “honeymoon was over” after the initial adjustment phase. At the later phase, academic issues took the forefront over the social and procedural issues of the adjustment phase. As time progressed, many students expressed dissatisfaction and disappointment with the low level of academic challenge, resulting in boredom and a feeling of a lack of control. In other studies, students expressed increased levels of academic pressure and homework, and shifts in pedagogy that were less child-centred and difficult to manage (Kvaslund, 2000). Students spoke of the “way school is” and the perception that teachers controlled their work. Hargreaves & Earl (1990) also makes the provocative statement that “the tragedy of the transition years is not that student’s experience anxiety on transfer to secondary school. The tragedy is that this anxiety passes so quickly, that the students adjust so smoothly to the many uncomfortable realities of secondary school life. These realities…can restrict achievement, depress motivation (especially among the less academic) sowing the seeds for dropout in later years”. These student voices point to the importance of knowing which students?, From which school?, to which school? In measuring and facilitating successful transitions.
Kirkpatrick (2004) suggests that students also feel that there is still much more to be done to facilitate the transition and that the ability to do so is well within the grasp of educators. For example, more accurate information in final years of elementary school is needed. In secondary school, teacher beliefs about friendships, academic interests, and youth as motivated learners need work. Procedural strategies allowing more interaction with teachers are considered helpful as is a transitional approach to curriculum itself. Such momentum will help to capitalize on the positive feelings about the transition that many elementary students express. Students further advised their fellow students to a) be aware that secondary school is not that frightening, b) make friends, c) talk to people about your emotions, and c) do not listen to rumours (Kirkpatrick, 2004).

Beyond the perceptions and issues addressed by students making the transition, what has other research suggested about the distribution of risks and problems in transition- both short and long term? Why and how is the transition experienced as a problem? What, if anything, has been and can be done to alleviate these problems both short and long term. We now address each question in turn.

Methodology

The study design of the study was a descriptive survey research design. The study population comprised of all the 48 secondary schools in Kisii Central Sub-County. Out of the targeted population, a sample of 11 schools was drawn through the process of stratified random sampling technique. A sample size from a target population of 5422 students and 288 teachers was then be used to select a sample of 542 form one students and 29 teachers from the sampled schools. Stratified random sampling technique was then used to determine the sample size per school, based on gender for form one students and teachers in each division. In addition all the 38 Head teachers in the sampled schools were used in the study. Structured and unstructured questions were used in the study.

Results

Inferential statistics were mainly used to analyze data. The correlation analysis is shown in table 1.

Table 1: Correlation between home-based factors and transition rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home based factors</th>
<th>Transition rates</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Enrolment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family background</td>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender bias and domestic chores</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture beliefs and practices</td>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
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<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in table 1 show that family background positively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment, dropout and performance at (r=.601**, P<.001 significant level), (r=.782**, P<.001 significant level), and (r=.654**, P<.001 significant level) respectively.

Gender bias and domestic chores negatively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment, dropout and performance at (r= -.607**, P<.001 significant level), (r= -.717**, P<.001 significant level), and (r= -.517**, P<.001 significant level) respectively.

Culture beliefs and practices negatively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment and dropout at (r= -.417**, P<.001 significant level), (r= -.617**, P<.001 significant level), but does not significantly influence performance.

The significant home-based variables were merged to form home-based factor and transition rate variables were merged to form transition factors using SPSS transformation technique and correlated between each other as shown in table 5.

**Table 2: Correlation between home-based factors and Transition rates factor**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home based factors</th>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Transition rates</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.641**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>532</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 2 show that home-based factors positively and significantly influence transition rates at r=.641**, p<.001 significant level contributing 41% variability to transition rate when other factors are held constant.

Correlation of students’ personal attributes and transition is shown in table 3.

**Table 3: Correlation between student's personal attributes and transition rate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student personal attribute</th>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Transition rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Enrolment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear losing friends</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.531**</td>
<td>-.382**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of being inferior to others</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.327**</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability to leave comfort zones</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.424**</td>
<td>-.643**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td>N</td>
<td>532</td>
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The results in table 3 show that Fear losing friends negatively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment, dropout and performance at (r= -.531**, P<.001 significant level), (r= -.382**, P<.001 significant level), and (r= -.354**, P<.001 significant level) respectively.
Feeling of being inferior to others negatively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment and performance at \( r = -0.327^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level, \( r = -0.317^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level) respectively, but does not influence dropout of the student from school.

Inability to leave comfort zones negatively and significantly influence transition rates in terms of enrolment and dropout at \( r = -0.424^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level), \( r = -0.643^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level), and \( r = -0.423^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level), respectively.

The significant home-based variables were merged to form home-based factor and transition rate variables were merged to form transition factors using SPSS transformation technique and correlated between each other as shown in table 5.

The significant student personal attributes variables were merged to form student personal attributes factor and transition rate variables were merged to form transition factors using SPSS transformation technique and correlated between each other as shown in table 4.

### Table 4: Correlation between students personal attributes factor and transition factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>student personal attributes</th>
<th>Transition rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.731**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student personal attributes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
<td>-.731**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>532</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 7 show that students personal factors negatively and significantly influence transition rates at \( r = -0.731^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level contributing 53% variability to transition rate when other factors are held constant.

The study established that home-based factors positively and significantly influence transition rates at \( r = 0.641^{**}, P < 0.001 \) significant level contributing 41% variability to transition rate when other factors are held constant.

These findings are in agreement with many scholar. The relationship between socio-economic background and educational outcomes has been well documented internationally. Pupils from lower income and minority ethnic groups have been found to be potentially more at risk of not making a successful transition to post-primary school (Gutman and Ridgley, 2000). Apart from socioeconomic characteristics parental support has been found to be a crucial factor in facilitating young people’s successful integration into post-primary education (Anderson et al., 2000). The nature of authority structures within the family also influences the transition process.

According to Eccles et al. (1993) and Lord et al. (1994) young people who report a democratic family environment tend to have higher self-esteem and more successful adjustment to a new school: this was found to be as a result of parents’ support of their
child’s adjustment to the new school, the quality of the affective relationship between the parents and adolescent and parents’ investment in providing opportunities for their children outside of the home.

The study established that students personal factors negatively and significantly influence transition rates at $r=-.731^{**}$, $p<.001$ significant level contributing 53% variability to transition rate when other factors are held constant.

These findings are in agreement with many scholars who argue that anticipating the move to post-primary school has been found to cause a certain amount of anxiety for the majority of first-year students while at the same time most students look forward to the move with a sense of excitement (Naughton, 2000; O’Brien, 2001; Hargreaves & Galton, 2002). The main anxieties centred on fear of being bullied, changes in friendships and relations with teachers. Organizational factors such as disciplinary procedures, timetables, more difficult work and homework, having several teachers and subjects and changing classrooms were also found to contribute to pre-transfer anxieties (Naughton, 2000; O’Brien, 2001).

Students see the academic importance of schools but they most expected the transition to provide a social success with new and existing friendships which would transfer with them (Pietarinen, 2000). Tilleczek (2007) suggests that an emotional paradox exists at this transition point, as it does at many life junctures. Students are both excited and anxious, and both doubtful and hopeful. The source of anxiety most pervasive is the loss of status and the worries that this loss is accompanied by initiation rituals which are unpleasant (Tilleczek, 2006; Graham and Hill, 2002; Pietarinen, 2000; Kvalsund, 2000).

In other studies, students expressed increased levels of academic pressure and homework, and shifts in pedagogy that were less child-centred and difficult to manage (Kvalsund, 2000). Students spoke of the “way school is” and the perception that teachers controlled their work. Students have also felt that their school performance would actually improve with the transition (Graham and Hill, 2002).

**Conclusion**

The study established that generally there was an increase in the number of pupils who enrolled for KCPE and those who joined form one. However, there was a general drop in the number of girls who sat for KCPE and those who joined form one. Also, the study established that home-based factors positively and significantly influence transition rates while student’s personal factors influence negatively transition rate in terms of enrolment, dropout and academic performance of students.

**Recommendations**

- The government should continue enforcing the policy on 100% transition rate and any parent contravening this policy should be prosecuted.
- The community and the family at large should ensure that they support students by advising them appropriately on the importance of education to minimize dropout and increase performance of their students.
- The learners should develop intrinsic motivation towards education that will push them towards achieving highest level of academic achievement.
References


Bastiani (1986) ‘Going Up to the Big School’ in Youngman (ed.) Mid-School Transfer: Problems and Proposals, Slough: NEFR


