EDUCATION DEMOCRATIZATION AND STUDENTS' DISCIPLINE IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MERU COUNTY

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A Thesis Submitted to the School of Education and Social Sciences in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Conferment of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Leadership and Education Management of Kenya Methodist University

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for the award of a degree or any other award in any other University.

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EDU-4-0250-1/2014

Recommendation

We confirm that the candidate carried out the work reported in this thesis under our supervision.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my father Isaiah M'Muyuri, my wife Bishop Rev. Alice Mutuma, and our children Lilian Kagwiria, Dr. Roy Muriki and Enock Kimathi.

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ABSTRACT

Students' indiscipline has been a thorn in the flesh in the management of secondary schools in Kenya. It has led to the destruction of properties and the rise of other forms of misconduct among students. The study sought to determine the effect of education democratization on the students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The specific objectives were to determine the effect of; banning of corporal punishment, allowing students to elect their leaders, participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters, and evaluate their influence on students' discipline. The study was anchored on social learning theory, social systems theory and social factor theory. The descriptive survey research design was adapted. The study targeted 395 public secondary schools in Meru County. Information was collected from principals, deputy principals, and students' leaders. A sample size of 10 principals, 195 deputy principals, and 384 student's leaders was considered in this study. Schools were stratified and then, systematic sampling technique was applied in each stratum. The deputy principals in charge of discipline were purposively selected, while simple random sampling was used to select two students' leaders from each sampled school. Questionnaires, interviews, observation schedules and document analysis instruments were utilized in collecting data. Pre-testing of instruments enhanced determination of their validity and reliability. SPSS was used to analyse quantitative data, where factor analysis, frequencies, percentages, means were computed. Ordinal logistical analysis was used to test the research hypothesis, while the thematic technique was used to analyse the qualitative data. The study found that cases of indiscipline were prevalent in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Corporal punishment cases had reduced. Only fifty-two percent of schools were allowing students to elect their leaders, while in other forty-eight percent, teachers did the appointment. This was attributed to lack of elaborate electoral processes. In addition, many schools hardly allowed students' representatives to attend BOM meetings. In other instances, students lacked the facilitation to attend such meetings. Students' partial involvement in making decisions on student's affairs was attributable to weak systems, and partly due to unrealistic demands by students. The study noted weak implementation of democratic elements and processes. The study recommended the Ministry of Education to liaise with principals to develop policies, systems and monitoring mechanisms for addressing students' indiscipline cases; streamline electoral processes; and establish guidelines for involving students in BOM meetings and other student-centred affairs. Principals should organize sensitization meetings for all stakeholders, educate students on electoral processes, and train the elected leaders on effective leadership. The findings of this study shall inject changes in the handling of democratization systems in schools.

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ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BOM: Board of Management

CED: County Director of Education

IQ: Intelligence Quotient

NGO: Non-Governmental Organization

RoK: Republic of Kenya

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TOD: Teachers on Duty

TSC: Teachers Service Commission

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Discipline is defined as the training method that corrects and perfects an individual's mental faculties through enforcement of adherence to a set of rules that regulate an individual's behaviour (Ukala, 2018). In consequence of this definition, discipline denotes correction of wrong actions, and consequently bears a negative connotation. Njogu, Mukolwe and Ogola (2017) describe discipline as acquired behaviour resulting from regulatory obedience or self-regulation. This explanation implies that the term discipline describes the act of doing the right thing at the right time, in the right way, and at the right place.

In secondary schools, written laws, rules or regulations regulate the behaviour of students. Usually, the deputy principal in public secondary schools is the custodian of discipline and the students' conduct. Generally, there are many strategies employed in Kenyan secondary schools to safeguard discipline among students. These include government involvement through enacting policies and guidelines addressing discipline, disciplinary procedures, guidance and counselling, and democratization of the school environment. Depending on the magnitude of the offence, in question, undisciplined students are rectified through punishment, guidance and counselling, parental involvement, or suspensions and expulsions (Sadik, 2018).

Teachers play a crucial role in enhancing learners discipline through corrective, assertive and preventive discipline measures (Aryati et al., 2021). In addition,

collaborative partnership among parents, teachers and other stakeholders in inculcating values that enhance discipline among high school students has also been one of the most productive ways of solving indiscipline in secondary schools (Mokaya et al., 2015). Indiscipline among students is usually characterized by truancy, riots, absenteeism, fighting, violence, students being arrested because of breaking the law, harassment and bullying.

Discipline in secondary schools bears numerous benefits; namely, active learning, appropriate functioning, quality of school life, and ultimately, good academic performance (Macharia et al., 2014). However, despite these benefits accruing from addressing discipline in secondary schools, student discipline has become a global predicament. Cases of bad conduct such as burning of school property, fighting, truancy, killings, rape, riots, the beating of teachers, threatening, bullying, vandalism, gangs, intolerance, and other forms of disobedience have continued to occur in secondary schools (Sadik, 2018; Nkotsa & Shumba, 2013). Furthermore, lack of discipline among secondary school students results in negative outcomes such as, loss of concentration, poor academic performance, bunking of classes, and depression (Nkotsa & Shumba, 2013). Ehiene (2014) emphasizes that indiscipline in secondary schools manifests itself through students' violent behaviour, poor disciplinary style, poor time management, and ineffective code of conduct.

There are discipline inadequacies among students in the developed countries as well. For example, Sadik (2018) points out that over two million students are either suspended or expelled each year in the United States of America (USA) because of violence and non-violence offences. This increases students risk for falling into

unproductive behaviour, which may affect their socio-emotional development, academic performance and life trajectories.

Miline and Aurini (2017) admit that discipline problems caused by secondary school students make teaching profession in the Republic of Canada unpleasant and challenging. This led to the establishment of a safe school act of 2000, which emphasized zero tolerance to indiscipline across all public funded schools. The implementation of this act led to the suspension of 55,000 students and the expulsion of over 400 students in Ontario schools. Similarly, Azmir and Nizah in 2017 noted rampant students' indiscipline in Malaysia. Sweden has also recorded an increase in students' indiscipline in secondary schools, which has affected learning (Sandqvist, 2014).

In Africa, student indiscipline has continued to worry education stakeholders. In Nigeria, for example, Ali et al. (2014) reported the worry of parents due to the increase of mischief among high school learners. In addition, research shows that school violence is escalating despite the measures put in place to address the problem by the Department of Education Ukala (2018) observes that students' indiscipline is the most significant problem in Nigerian secondary schools. This supports earlier findings by Temitayo, Nayaya and Lukman (2013) who described students' indiscipline as a significant problem in public secondary schools, and pointed out that some schools had been turned into a battlefield because learners are bringing arms like guns to classes. Incidences of students attacking their teachers and principals with pangas were also reported in Nigeria.

The situation of students' indiscipline is also widespread in Ghana. Ofori, et al. (2018) revealed that no calendar day elapses in Ghana without statements of indiscipline act in

secondary schools. Furthermore, Njugu, Mukolwe and Ogola (2017) reported that Bostwana had also experience a wave of indiscipline among students of secondary school. Several schools had their reputation flawed by derelict students' indiscipline. This confirms earlier findings by Kgomotso, Tshegofacto and Boipono (2015) who observed that student discipline was a severe crisis. A case in record is where students broke into the school lab and consumed a toxic amount of methanol, which caused the death of some students while others became blind.

In South Africa, Temitayo, Mohammed and Ajibola (2013) point out that learners' misconduct in high schools is on the increase; hence, resulting in regular suspension of classes and expulsion of students in the Western Cape due to physical and verbal confrontations. Students are alleged to have killed others inside the school grounds; others openly insulted teachers, while many more exhibited a ‘do not matter' attitude towards their actions.

Students’ unrest has also been witnessed in Tanzania, and the school administration has encountered severe challenges dealing with it (Temitayo et al., 2013). A similar scenario was noted in Uganda, where the government registered an increase in the frequency of secondary school students’ strikes. This has led to the destruction of school property and injuries of school administrators.

Like other developing countries, Kenya has witnessed high levels of secondary school indiscipline among students. Njogu et al. (2017) observe that between the year 1990 to 2017, Kenya witnessed many horrific indiscipline cases in high schools. They cite the murder of 19 girls in St. Kizito in 1991, Bombolulu incident in 1998 where 28 girls died, and the murder of 4 Nyeri High School prefects in 1999. The killing of 68 students at Kyanguli boys in 2001, murder of a form three student in Upper Hill secondary

school in 2008, and the killing of two students in Endarasa secondary school in the year 2010 have also been cited. Most recently, in 2015 2 students in Stephjoy secondary school were killed in school, and in 2016, seven dorms in Itiero secondary school in Kisii were burned down, after students were denied permission to watch football (Omboki, 2016). In 2017, Kenya experienced a horrific fire incident in Moi Girls, killing nine students (Ochieng, 2017). Further, three students from Hopewell Secondary School in Nakuru for confiscating a mobile phone sneaked into the school (Macharia, 2019) killed a teacher in 2019. These cases clearly show that discipline in secondary schools is wanting, as proved by the numerous incidences of unrest, razing of school property and brutal killings. This situation has not improved even with the enactment of numerous remedying strategies meant to address student indiscipline. Numerous studies have addressed discipline as pertains academic performance and principals' leadership style, focusing on identifying the indiscipline cases in secondary schools and providing remedies for the same. Notably, literature on the link between student discipline and education democratization is scanty. The current research aims to assess the effect of democratization of education on the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County, Kenya.

1.1.2 Democratization of Education

As Murati (2015) noted, the concept of education democratization is the realization of rights to education and the distribution of decision-making to all levels, including teachers, students, and non-teaching staff. Gould (2014) also shares the view that education requires active youth voice forums that provide opportunities for students to engage in educational preparation and decision-making, through student councils and student-teacher administrator committees. The view by Murati (2015) indicated that education democratization is one of the main principles of social democracy in the field

of education that is concerned with the rights of people and their active participation in solving education problems.

Education democratization in public secondary schools is depicted by numerous democratization parameters. These include banning of corporal punishment, involvement of students in electing their leaders, allowing student representatives to participate in Board of Management (BOM) deliberations, and allowing students to participate in making decisions about their affairs (social, academic, or catering issues that may affect them either directly or indirectly (Gould, 2014).

Many benefits can be realized by embracing education democratization. For example, students are challenged to think critically, develop a sense of purpose and ownership, inculcate dedication to constructive action, develop willingness to participate effectively in local decision-making, and enhance lobbying and voting (Enes, 2016). Similarly, Waghid (2014) points out that democratization of education is an educational concept in which democracy is both a goal and an instructional process. Democracy brings democratic ideals to education, including self-determination within a society of peers and enhances principles like justice, integrity, and trust. That means that education democracy is an emancipator with the voice of the students being equal to that of teachers. Ahmad, Said and Jusoh (2015) argue that the concept of democracy can be utilized in an expanded context; meaning, a condition of community existence characterized by collective involvement in societal concern for the common good of everyone is developed. This implies that in a school setup, democracy involves protecting human rights without politicizing the schools. Ahmed et al. (2015) concluded that this form of education is often elusive. However, it is essential because literature on deliberative democracy aims to accomplish the required institutional and

social changes crucial in developing it. Democratization is manifested in extensive involvement in group decision-making, negotiations and consequences in social life. From all these deliberations, education democratization in secondary school education is vital in instilling discipline, and this gave high impetus to the current study.

Students are not born with democratic principles; therefore, secondary schools serve as democratic practicing platform (Curren, 2018). By implication, therefore, schools serve as foundations of democracy. The traditional method of education was based on the scientific management philosophy, which stressed linearity, hierarchy and efficiency, where students learnt to obey directions, adhere to standards and compete with each other to excel (Khatete & Matanda, 2014). Enes (2016) criticized this form of education because the teacher was seen as the sole source of information and did not inform students about democratic processes and work within them.

Education democratization addresses limitations of traditional school management styles. Waghid (2014) argues that the limitations of the traditional methods of education led to the current global changes that liberalize education system; and the closed, autocratic classroom system replaced with an open classroom system where there is emphasis in democracy. This is in line with earlier findings by Ahmed et al. (2015) who found out that the theory of education in a democracy requires that schools are politically structured to support the style of associated living, and are embedded in a culture of social relations and social knowledge, which is a prerequisite for individual freedom and development. They also noted misconceptions around seeing democratic schools as areas where unmitigated democracy or anarchy reign. In contrast, democratic schools should, on the contrary, be organized and well disciplined.

Branson and Gross (2014) suggest that democratization of education is about equipping learners with information for making sound decisions as teachers and students work together in a school situation to rebuild curricula that involve all. Moreover, Branson and Gross stressed that its inception has a big role in harnessing students discipline in secondary schools. Sandqvist (2014) points out that when there is good democracy; individual freedom of choice is respected, but not forced as would happen in a rigid system. Sandqvist (2014) further observed that there was student dropout, repetitions, idleness, and a lot of indiscipline in situations where education is carried out in undemocratic environments. This underpins the need for embracing democracy as a strategy for curbing indiscipline among school-going youth.

Globally, Harber and Mncube (2014) observed that the concept of education democratization gained acceptance improved its efficiency in the USA in the year 1930, while in Sub-Saharan countries, this concept was introduced in the late 1960s. This observation was supported by Azmirm and Nizahm (2017) who emphasized that the concept of education democratization is more practised in the USA, where learners' voice is recognized. In addition, there is high tolerance on views of others the USA, unlike in sub-Saharan Africa, where education democratization is still taking root. Azmirm and Nizahm (2017) noted that Asian countries such as China, Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia are doing well in education democratization. However, countries such as Pakistan, Iran, Uganda, Zambia, and Cambodia are performing poorly on all indicators of education democratization. Despite the shortcomings in these countries, Harber and Mncube (2017) give much hope by observing that there is evidence of new trends of improvement in discipline resulting from education democratization. Englund (2016) observes that in Sweden, the Sweden education act

stipulates democracy in education. This act states that fostering democratic standards at work is the responsibility of anyone who works in Sweden's schools.

Regionally, Ahmed et al. (2015) observed that the South African Government is struggling to acquire full-fledged democracy after the post-apartheid era in 1994. Incorporation of this democracy in the school system has faced many challenges since students often talk about human rights without understanding what democracy is all about. As a result, several students exaggerate their rights and neglected their commitment and obligations, which leads to conflict and discipline problems in schools. It is clear that a lack of sensitization and awareness among students causes the pronounced indiscipline cases.

A study on the democratization of education carried in Tanzania revealed that appreciation of democracy in schools enhanced student discipline in schools. This was because students felt responsible for their institution (Tematayo et al., 2013). Sofo (2016) makes a similar observation in noting that if schools were organized in democratic structures, students would learn the virtues of democracy by participating in democratic practices of the school; hence, become more responsible and supportive.

In Kenya, Njogu (2017) observed that the education process has witnessed a significant change from the traditional autocratic approach to the modern democratic dispensation. According to the Republic of Kenya (2013), the Kenyan education system adopted the democratic approach in education, which recognizes the commitment of all the members of a school to the management of the institutional affairs. Democratization implies involving students in decision making on all activities of the school in order to acquire good discipline and success in its programs.

Despite these observations, Odhiambo and Anyango (2014) noted that in Kenya, school organization and education approaches tend to be autocratic. The study reported that 70% of the respondents believed that education and school organization were autocratic and the principal considered the all-powerful commander. The school system tends to bank from where students come and take knowledge.

Knoester (2015) attributed the change in the Kenyan education system from autocratic to the democratic system to United Nations (UN) declarations in which Kenyan Government is a signatory. According to the UN (2015), Article 26(3) of the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights gives parents the right to choose the form of education that the government should provide to their children. However, Article 12(1) of the Convention provides for children to contribute to all matters concerning them, depending on their age and maturity. The promotion of democracy in the Kenyan education system had taken place through various acts. One such act is the Children's Act of 2001; Article 13 postulates that a child shall have the right to protection from physical and psychological violence, neglect and any other form of exploitation, including the sale, trafficking or abduction by any individual (Republic of Kenya, 2001). The Kenyan government enacted this act by eliminating children beating in Kenya and following the United Nation convention, which states that discipline involving violence is unacceptable (Vanner, 2017).

The 2013 Basic Education Act promotes more democracy where Section 36(1) specifies that subjecting a pupil to physical or psychological abuse; barbaric, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment of any sort is unlawful (Republic of Kenya, [RoK], 2013). Furthermore, the same act emphasizes on participation of students in electing their leaders, while article 56 (9) highlights procedures in the nomination of Board of

Management (BOM) members, and states that learners' representative will be nominated as an ex-official of members of BOM.

Moreover, the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) planned to involve learners in choosing the punishment they should receive. Teachers have to negotiate with students on the type of punishment to be given (Nyassy & Gicobi, 2015). The delegates of the 2015 Principals' conference learnt that there was a misplaced misconception of punishment during the era of corporal punishment, which widened the closeness of a teacher to a leaner. This left the learners at the mercy of cruel teachers (Nyassy & Gicobi, 2015). The old ways of beating students several times only made them hate the school and turned them into hard-core criminals since violence begets violence.

This new system of education democracy was practised in five other countries - was introduced in Kenya (Nyassy & Gicobi 2015). Nevertheless, there are scanty studies on democratization, mainly in relation to its influence on students' discipline. Therefore, this study set out to analyse the effects of education democratization on students' discipline in Meru County. It focused on the effect of banning corporal punishment, student involvement in electing their leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings and involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs matters.

1.1.3 Students Discipline in Public Secondary Schools in Meru County

The need to address students' discipline in secondary schools has been a concern in Meru County. Through the Ministry of Education, public secondary schools in Meru County have embraced strategies to enhance the discipline of students. Despite the clear directive from the ministry, cases of indiscipline in Meru County have remained a subject of discussion. Over the last ten years, incidents of student indiscipline cases of riots have been rampant in public secondary schools. Njogu et al. (2017) cited a case

on the midnight of 13th July 1991 where St. Kizito secondary school students in Meru County went on a rampage damaging school property, raped, and seriously injured female students. Sadly, the strike resulted in death of 19 students. Recently in Meru County, there have been several cases of student unrest, which have resulted in property destruction and time wastage (Mutunga, 2012). Kiplagat and Oruko (2015) highlighted a complaint from the Meru County Governor Hon. Munya condemning a wave of unrest in public secondary schools. The governor complained that learners had burnt down many secondary schools and destroyed within few minutes facilities that had taken schools years to build.

Aboo (2016) reported that between January and May in 2016, sixty-three public secondary schools of Meru County had been involved in school unrest. According to Aboo (2016), burning school buildings, breaking windowpanes and learners walking out of school characterized this unrest. Due to the high rate of students' indiscipline, political leaders and educationist from the region called for quick investigation of the unrest causes. A more recent observation by Ndung'u (2018) indicated that in the first two weeks of July 2018, ten public secondary schools in Meru County had reported cases of students' unrest and destruction of school property. This made the Governor of Meru County Hon. Kiraitu Murungi to caution principals and other education stakeholders to be in touch with their students to ensure that the school property that the stakeholders have struggled to put up with meagre resources was secure.

Furthermore, RoK (2019) found out that in the second term of 2018, Meru County was leading in secondary schools with cases of unrest among students. The magnitude of this unrest forms a potentially significant threat to secondary education in the county. Despite this, no studies have exposed the influence of education democratization on

students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. This raised the need to find out how student involvement in education democratization was affecting the discipline of secondary school students. Against this background, this study gained formidable ground to establish whether education democratization had any effect on learners' misconduct in public high schools of Meru County. Public secondary schools in Meru County has embraced these strategies to enhance the discipline of students.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Students discipline is vital in the realization of academic performance in a secondary school. Discipline in public secondary schools is enhanced through various strategies, including; guidance and counselling, punishing, suspensions and parental involvement. Besides that, the Ministry of Education effected democratic approaches by incorporating student council leaders in the decision-making processes. To do this, the Ministry of Education put structures to enable students elect leaders of their choice to the student council. The student council are expected to take part key decision-making process in the school. Moreover, there has been emphasis on the rights of children in Kenyan secondary schools, which led to the banning of corporal punishment in schools in April 2001 (Khatete and Matanda, 2014) a policy that was aimed at boosting students' discipline by eliminating illicit behaviour such as truancy, riots, and all manner of rebellion.

Furthermore, there was extension of the democratic process that required students' representations in the BOM meetings, and involvement in decision-making forums where students' affairs are discussed (RoK, 2013). These democratic processes are supposed to help Meru County secondary schools realize a high level of discipline by bridging the gap between them and their teachers and further contribute to erasing

teachers' negative perceptions as dictators, cruel, and punishers. This attests to the considerable efforts made by the Ministry of Education towards improving students discipline in public secondary schools.

However, this is not the case in public secondary schools in this county considering the numerous cases of indiscipline reported in many public secondary schools, the numerous mechanisms to avert indiscipline notwithstanding. The public secondary schools in Meru County have experienced numerous incidences of students' indiscipline in which several schools have been burnt down and property worth millions of shillings destroyed (Aboo, 2016). The Kenya National Assembly report of 2018 ranked public secondary schools in Meru the highest in students' unrest (RoK, 2019). The situation calls for remedies, failure to which the destruction of properties and other forms of misconduct among students will continue to rise.

Studies analysing the area of student discipline enumerate numerous student misconduct and further identified diverse antecedent factors for students' unrest and chaos in schools. Nevertheless, a knowledge gap exists in studies that have linked democratic changes to the discipline of students in Kenyan Secondary Schools, particularly in Meru County. The current study examined the effect of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County to fill the aforementioned gap. It specifically investigated the effect of banning corporal punishment, student involvement in electing their leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings and involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs on students' discipline in public secondary schools Meru County. The moderating effect of peer pressure on the relationship between education democratization and student discipline was also assessed.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish the effect of education democratization; as exemplified in banning of corporal punishment, involvement of the student in electing their leaders, incorporating students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on matters affecting their welfare; on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The following objectives guided the study:

i) To examine the effect of banning corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

ii) To determine the effect of students' electing their leaders on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

iii) To assess effects of students' participation in BOM meetings on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

iv) To determine the effect of involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

v) To examine the moderating effect of peer pressure on the relationship between education democratization and student discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

- H_{01} Banning of corporal punishment has no statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.
- H_{02} Involvement of student in electing their leaders has no statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.
- H_{03} Participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings has no statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.
- H_{04} Involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs matters has no statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.
- H_{05} Peer pressure does not moderate the relationship between education democratization and student discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

1.6 Justification

The study was prompted by the increasing cases of students' indiscipline in public secondary schools in Kenya, which has become a significant issue in secondary school administration in Kenya. Introduction of measures to improve education democratization in secondary schools aimed to bring down cases of indiscipline. However, cases of indiscipline have continued to go up unabated (RoK, 2019). Therefore, the current study sought to investigate education democratization activities practised in public secondary schools, with the aim of assessing their effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meu County.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The actions recommended by this study goes a long way to improving the understanding of democratic processes and the stakeholders' roles and responsibilities regarding students' discipline in secondary schools. Furthermore, the study upheld the mechanisms for education democratization considering their significant impact on students' discipline in public secondary schools. Therefore, the findings of this study are valuable and bear significant implications to various stakeholders and practitioners, as described below:

The results of this study will help create a healthy relationship between learners and teachers, particularly the deputy principals who are in charge of students' discipline in public secondary schools. They will help the deputy principals to change their perception of democratic space and dispensation that allows more involvement of students in decision-making processes. The findings also will help change students' perception of deputy principals as merciless, inhuman and persecutors, and instead see them as valuable mentors who play a crucial role in moulding acceptable behaviour in students. Teachers will find the results of this study instrumental. With the improved discipline of students, teachers will enjoy fewer interferences; hence finishing the syllabus in good time. It will further afford them time to go the extra miles in ensuring the achievement of good performance.

Secondary school students will benefit from the findings of this study because of the enhanced democratic systems and mechanism manifest in their representation in decision-making. Consequently, there will be favourable conditions at the school contributed to by good behaviour among students. Students' improved conduct and behaviour will translate to better achievement of their ambitions in education due to

fewer obstructions. Furthermore, by being involved in the decision-making process, the concerned students shall learn the value of a collaborative approach in solving problems in society, hence becoming responsible citizens.

The findings will have implications on electoral processes and mechanisms for electing students' leaders. It also implicates systems for contributing motions during BOM meetings and others where critical decisions concerning students' welfare are made. This further implicates an inclusive decision making policy in secondary schools. With this, secondary school principals will establish and strengthen systems for involving students, further informing on awareness programs, appropriate training, and advocacy to ensure that students' leaders understand their roles in BOM meetings and sensitize them on ethics related to meetings. Moreover, the validated empirical findings of this study are beneficial to principals and justify the investment for strengthening the elements of education democratization in public secondary schools.

The findings are also helpful to the Ministry of Education in improving the policy framework for fostering and enhancing acceptable students' discipline in public secondary schools. For example, the need for moderated, mild corporal punishment to deter minor indiscipline cases among secondary schools and strengthen alternatives to corporal punishment. At large, parents and society will get a reprieve if there are fewer cases of indiscipline cases in secondary schools. This is because properties will not be destroyed; hence, monies can be used in other helpful social-economic activities. An undisciplined child is usually a financial bother and a cause of stress to parents. Therefore, better mechanisms of addressing students discipline would lead to improved parent-child relationship, hence less stressful life.

The findings of this study will also contribute new knowledge to the management of students' discipline in secondary schools. The findings of the study indicated that democratization of education affects students' discipline significantly. However, mishandling of democratic elements and processes can result to rising indiscipline and other forms of unacceptable behaviour of students in secondary schools. The study underscores the need for elaborate systems, mechanisms, processes and policies for implementing democratic elements. This accentuates induction/orientation and training of students, teachers and principals in handling the new discourse and dispensation.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study was limited to the analyses of the effect of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Data was collected from principals, deputy principals and students in public secondary schools in Meru County. The specific constructs explored were banning corporal punishment, student involvement in electing their leaders, participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on students' matters on students' discipline in public secondary schools. In addition, the moderating effect of peer pressure on the relationship between education democratization and student discipline was assessed. Other factors that influence the discipline of students, such as parental guidance, institutional-based factors, technology were not covered in this study. Moreover, the magnitude of alternatives to corporal punishment were not covered since they were outside the scope of the study.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

The study restrained itself to analysing the effect of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Therefore, the

findings are limited to Meru County only and no other counties in Kenya. This bears limitation in the generalization of the findings in counties that are from different geo-political regions. Generalization of the findings in private secondary schools was also limited due to the different management and operational models compared to public secondary schools. This is because public secondary schools are governed by public policy applicable to government institutions, while private secondary schools are personal investments, hence negotiation on discipline matters may be minimal. For example, a student may be required to comply to set behaviour at zero option in a private secondary school.

In this study, data was collected from public secondary schools during the COVID-19 pandemic when most teachers and the majority of students were at home except the form four students. This posed limitations in observing the students' disciplinary elements such as response to bells and cleanliness of the school compound. In addition, the long period of lockdown may have contributed to the deterioration of students' discipline; hence, data collected may not have reflected the actual scenario at 100 percent.

Data was collected using a one-time cross-sectional self-reported instrument where opinions and experiences were sought; hence, responses were subject to instrumentation bias. The cross-sectional method was limited due to the lack of monitoring and observation of change and progress of students' discipline over time. To mitigate the effects of this particular limitation, the study opted to collect data from form four students' leaders believed to be experienced and better placed to respond to questions regarding their participation and involvement in the decision-making process at their schools. The question of years of experience sought from deputy principals and

principals proved that most of them were experienced and had a lot to share on how they were handling students' discipline in public secondary schools. In addition, the study elaborated the purpose of the data and encouraged respondents to be sincere and truthful in answering the questions posed to them. Proper sampling procedures also ensured proper representation of the target population, which was critical in enhancing the generalization of the findings to other public secondary schools in Kenya, considering that the directives on the democratization of education were from one source: The Ministry of Education.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

The implementation of this study happened under critical assumptions, as discussed herewith. It was assumed that the Ministry of Education had standardized guidelines regarding educational democratization and in the handling of students' discipline in public secondary schools in Kenya. Secondly, the study assumed that participants gave correct information regarding the sentiments under observation.

1.11 Operational Definition of Terms

Democratic education

It refers to an ideology of education in which equality is an educational aim and system.

Democratic leadership

It involves the experience of successful team activity rather than how orders should be implemented.

Democracy

This is the practices or principles of social equity where every member of the society has a say on any decision or action that affects him/her.

Discipline

This is the process of teaching people to follow laws or regulatory code to establish a healthy attitude in compliance with appropriate norms.

Education

This is the process of acquiring the desired knowledge and skills required by individuals to socialize and participate in all life activities.

Education democratization

This is a situation where there is a presence of meaningful students' voice in all issues affecting them. This includes creating incentives for students to be part of planning and decision making on all of the topics that concern them.

Governance

The action or manner of governing a school to ensure there is orderliness and achievement of schools goals and objectives.

Indiscipline

Refers to inability or reluctance to make any effort possible to achieve such defined goals and objectives.

Public Secondary Schools

These are government-supported high schools. In Kenya, the government charges students' tuition fees in these schools.

Punishment

Refers to the intentional affliction of pain, shame or unpleasantness on students because of what teachers may consider misbehaviour.

School

In this study, school refers to an institution that imparts specific knowledge to students and socializes them.

School governance

The action of managing or controlling a school in order to attain the set goals

Student

This is an individual studying in secondary school.

Student participation

Refers to the participation of students in collective decision-making, at school or class level of interaction, between students and other decision-makers.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of reviewed literature addressing the effects of education democratization on students' discipline. The empirical literature is presented first, followed by a theoretical and conceptual framework. The empirical literature is organized according to the main variables of the study. It starts with a review on students' discipline (dependent variable) in public secondary schools, followed by banning of corporal punishment, student involvement in electing their leaders, students' representatives participating in BOM meetings, and the students' participation in making decisions regarding their affairs. The chapter concludes with a summary of research gaps and discusses theoretical and conceptual frameworks in that order.

2.2 Students' Discipline in Secondary Schools

Discipline refers to the management of an individuals' behaviour with the aim of enabling that individual to implement organizational goals and objectives (Okumbe, 2013). To achieve this, members of an organization are expected to adhere strictly to different standards of conduct appropriate for optimal efficiency.

Discipline can be either preventive or corrective (Okumbe. 2013). On one hand, preventive discipline is an institutional measure that educational administrators take to motivate staff and students to obey the established guidelines that deter offences. On the other hand, corrective compliance is meant to prevent further violations of law.

Maingi (2015) emphasizes the need to adopt preventive discipline in schools since this helps mitigate corrective behaviour by engaging students actively in their concerns.

Indiscipline among secondary school students is a global issue that many schools are struggling to address today. There are numerous factors conjectured to cause indiscipline in schools; namely: drug and substance abuse; negative peer pressure, negative mass media influence, societal rot, incitement from teachers, political interferences, examinational phobia, and devil worship. Bloated formal curriculum, autocratic school administration, adolescence crisis, extra-ordinary powers of student leaders, poor school management, disparity in the distribution of resources, failure by the society to accept school management, and lack of security and sensitization on human rights are also said to be cause indiscipline (Maingi, 2015).

Mason (2015) attributed indiscipline to unmet basic needs described by Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory of 1968. This theory stipulates that there are basic needs that an individual requires. Inability to meet these needs results to frustration occasioned by the initial strong driving force towards meeting these needs. According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, individuals are not destructive, but their destructive nature is a manifestation of the unmet needs. In addition, all individuals require psychological needs; namely, identity, love and recognition; and esteem and self-actualization, some of which are acquired through democracy. According to this theory, indiscipline can be explained as the failure by school environment to meet one or more of the students' need in the hierarchy.

According to Mason (2015), there are five manifestations of misbehaviour: aggression, which constitutes physical or verbal attacks; immorality, depicted by acts contrary to accepted ethical norms like cheating; defiance, which, occurs when one refuses to do

as per the teachers' request; or classroom disruption, where a student talks too loud, bangs desk, and causes disturbance to other students. It is also manifest in goofing off, which involves fooling around out of seat and not settling down to work. The nature of indiscipline in secondary schools may take different forms according to the magnitude of the problem perceived by students. It may vary from passive defiance like refusing to sing in the Church, to outright violence coupled with property destruction. Other manifestations of indiscipline include rudeness to other students and teachers alike, refusal to do punishments, and absenteeism (Wairagu, 2017).

Poor discipline of students in secondary schools can be disastrous. It can lead to interruptions of study programmes in the school, and cause unnecessary financial burden to parents who have to foot the bills of the damaged school property caused by the strikes. Sometimes, it results to substantial dropouts through expulsion and suspension of those reported as having severe disciplinary issues (Wairagu, 2017).

Discipline is essential to successful functioning of any organization (Kirera, 2015; Ellis, 2013). In secondary schools, discipline can be instilled by incorporating positive methods, such as starting right by explaining to students the standards expected by making it clear what is expected of them in the school premises. Kirera (2015) proposed clear and simple regulations for secondary school learners and insists on helping incoming learners by socializing and inducting them properly to eliminate bullying and the spread of misleading perceptions. Kirera (2015) further stresses that trust should be built between students and teachers by allowing freedom of speech, encouraging constant praises for the good things learners do, and that the school principal becomes available for consultations.

Globally, because of increased indiscipline cases in schools, studies on the discipline of learners have been given special attention. Gary (2018) carried out a study in the USA underpinning the issues of discipline. The study found out that numerous policies developed have been critical in enhancing students' discipline in New York, Arkansas, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Philadelphia, Arkansas, among central states and cities. However, despite the numerous policies addressing children's rights in the USA, there were instances of corporal punishment in schools. It was also clear that there are myriad negative outcomes, such as poor academic performance, high students' dropout rates, and juvenile justice system involvement. Although Gary's study provided a review of past studies on students' discipline in the USA, there were no clear implications and actionable plans recommended from the previously documented studies.

Guided by the intuition that school resource officers promoted a safer and conducive learning environment for high schools, Fisher and Hennessy in 2015 conducted a systematic meta-analytic review. The review aimed to explore the possible discipline outcomes resulting from school resource officers in the UK. The quasi-experimental results indicated that there were iatrogenic effects associated with the use of school resource officers, including increased rates of corporal punishment. It was also clear that where exclusionary discipline was practised, students rebelled, were highly demotivated, and cases of dropout and truancy rose to noticeable rates. However, there lacked clear recommendations regarding students discipline, except for the suggested weighing of the benefits and indiscipline instances resulting from employing school resources officers. Because a meta-analysis study borrows heavily from the findings of previous studies, the quality of the conclusion was subject to numerous biases, hence weakening the drawing of solid empirical conclusions.

Amoah et al. (2015) investigated the nature of students' discipline focusing on the nature and types of strategies teachers employed. Their study investigated student perception towards these disciplining strategies. Findings opined that teachers used judgemental and subjective mechanisms to halt misbehaviour, which was found to demotivate students. The study recommended change in disciplining approaches and adopt models that would foster students' involvement, for example, in making rules and regulations. This would motivate them, create a sense of ownership, and make them responsible for their faults. However, the findings of their study were incapacitated by the fact that only two public junior schools participated in the study with a sample of 36 participants, comprising 12 teachers and 24 students; hence, could not present adequate generalizations and a clear picture of the of learner discipline in UK.

In a unique setting, Ozcan et al. (2020) conducted a validity and reliability study aimed at developing a student-discipline expectation scale in Turkey. Moved by the erratic, intense indiscipline outcomes, particularly class management, the researchers developed a model that would be used to manage classes and enhance students' participation during lessons. It was clear that students misbehaved while the teacher taught and went silent when he/she poses questions to them. This misconduct was attributable to the fact that students had dominated technology, and families did not have time for them due to their engagements. Upon evaluation of the analyses made, the study concluded that a scale on discipline expectations of students was valid and reliable to measure the discipline of secondary education students. However, the study was limited in scope since a small number of students represented the validity model, thus limiting the generalizations of the model.

Yahaya et al. (2019) focused their study on the discipline challenges encountered in Malaysia. They found out that indiscipline problem was ranked as a significant problem

among primary and secondary schools in Malaysia. Salient factors such as family problems and peer group influence resulted in a negative attitude towards responsibilities, uncooperativeness, poor time management, and disrespect to teachers, and disobeying rules and regulations. The study recommended the adoption of workable policies and strategies that would address student infractions.

Similarly, Aryati et al. (2020) found noise making and unpunctuality as the most common discipline problems faced by teachers in secondary schools in Indonesia. Teachers' coping mechanisms included employing corrective, assertive, and preventive discipline measures. The study found out that despite these measures, the student continued to misbehave on the school premises. The study recommended that school administrators create a conducive school environment by involving the students in setting the classroom rules, such as attendance, learning participation, students and teacher actions, and assessment. This study mainly focussed on the coping strategies embraced by teachers when handling students' indiscipline in secondary schools but did not expose whether the cases were major or minor.

Qaiser et al. (2017) investigated students' discipline in Pakistan and found out that electronic media, family background, students' factors, peer group, and school environmental factors contributed to students' truancy in Pakistan institutions. The study recommended a ban on the use of electronic gadgets such as mobile phones in schools. Moreover, the findings of the study indicated that friendly home and school environment were necessary to learners' ability to open up and share their challenges with parents and teachers for adequate assistance. The study concentrated on truancy only and negated other forms of indiscipline prevalent in secondary schools.

In Africa, the area of student discipline is not enjoyed much attention. Literature addressing student discipline in secondary school students is not substantial, even though African nations recognize the importance of student discipline in learning institutions. The indiscipline cases in secondary schools in Africa have been reported in several countries, an indication that the problems affecting students in secondary schools have not been solved by dialogue (Kiboiy, 2013). According to Olsen, Kann, Vivolo-Kantor and Kinchen (2014), several cases of school unrest and students assaulting each other have been reported in Lesotho. Similarly, Temitayo et al. (2013) observed that learners' indiscipline cases continue to increase in South Africa, Nigeria, Zimbambwe, Zambia, Bostwana and Tunisia.

In Ghana, indiscipline of learners was noted to be high. Asare et al. (2015) found that instructors employed judgemental, punitive and harsh disciplinary methodologies to curb students' misconduct. The study recommended that the discipliners should adopt corporate disciplinary measures and verbal corrective measures. Additionally, student motivation and involvement in setting rules was recommended to replace punishment (Asare et al., 2015). This was observed to create a sense of ownership to students through the set rules; hence, they were likely to be more responsible for their own behaviour. However, the study was limited due to its weakness to envisage the instances and forms of student indiscipline that were occurring. However, this weakness does not discard the findings since the study provided amicable solutions of incorporating education democracy through students' involvement in coming up with the rules guiding their conduct in the school.

Mboweni (2014) examined factors contributing to learner absenteeism in South Africa and found out that learners' indiscipline was a significant precursor to poor academic performance. The investigative study focusing on absenteeism established that

absenteeism affected negatively on professional practice in schools, which eventually resulted in negative student performance in examinations. The study recommended adopting measures by teachers to detect early-stage truancy, late coming, and absenteeism among students and develop engaging activities involving them. Areas involving students, according to Mboweni, were ringing the bell, collecting exercise books for marking, and late-coming registers. The study underscored the need for teachers to control and monitor registers and devise systems for rewarding good behaviour depicted by students.

Ethiane (2014) investigated the effect of discipline on the academic performance of public secondary schools in Nigeria. The study concluded that students' indiscipline affected students' academic performance, and therefore, it was necessary to resolve it. The study recommended the use of punishments commensurate with the offence committed as a means of rectifying students' deviance. Moreover, the study recommended a workable committed disciplinary committee with maximum decision-making power and authority for students whose offences required counselling, while punishments be reserved for alarming offences. The study noted that adoption of the two measures was antecedent for good students' performance in secondary schools. However, the punishing strategies were unclear since the study did not list the nature and magnitude of the same.

In Uganda, Matovu and Atim (2020) investigated students' discipline concerning the school factors. The study argued that guidance and counselling, rules and regulations and school-family initiative programs largely predicted a positive impact on the discipline of students. The study challenged the school administrators to be committed to bettering these services to reduce dissatisfaction. However, the study was silent

concerning the forms of indiscipline in Ugandan schools, considering that not all cases cannot be treated the same.

Locally, since Kenya attained independence in 1963, students' unrest has been rising, a situation that deter academic performance. Marete et al. (2017) carried out a study in Meru County and established that public secondary schools in the county did not follow progressive discipline practices. Most schools lacked committees where students could appeal and voice their grievances when they felt unfairly treated. The study noted that failure to involve students bred demotivation, resentment and discontent, among other negative outcomes. Although the study covered students' indiscipline issues and its link with academic performance, it did not examine the antecedents for indiscipline, which the current study attempted to do by tracing students' indiscipline to the democratization of education. Odoyo et al. (2016) also explored the possible impacts of discipline on education achievement. The study found out that student discipline was has a moderate positive relationship with academic performance in Muhoroni Sub-County. The study recommended enhancement of discipline in order to improve the pupils' academic performance. It was, however, unclear on the specific discipline enhancement parameters that were appropriate.

Nekesa (2018) investigated the issue of discipline as regards the student councils. The study found out that there were clear criteria used in selecting student leaders, which improved satisfaction due to involvement. This further led to the improvement of students' discipline. Her study concluded that student councils played a big role in enhancing discipline among their fellow students. Student leaders exclusively depended on the principals' administrative experience. Many principals involved the students' council in planning the school activities and held regular meetings with the student

council to enforce discipline in students. The study recommended regular training of student leaders to equip them with skills necessary to maintaining discipline among their fellow students.

Omote et al. (2015) presented a critical analysis of student indiscipline in Thika. With the employment of content and desk analysis design, the study found that maintaining school discipline required critical strategies aimed at fostering academic achievement, and promote socially and morally responsible behaviour among the students. Furthermore, the study recommended partnership among education stakeholders to nurture responsible members of society. To achieve this, the study recommends developing a curriculum that provides for activities that teach social, emotional and behavioural competencies and provide opportunities for students to apply the skills and competencies learnt.

Njoroge and Nyabuto (2014) applied a descriptive survey research design to investigate the causes for the rise in misconduct cases among secondary school students. They established that misconduct among students resulted from school and social factors. Specifically, schools lacked dedicated guidance and counselling experts, cooked poor quality meals, lacked requisite learning materials, had unresponsive administrative mechanisms, and overlooked students' complaints. At the same time, drug and substance abuse and peer pressure were common. The study concluded that there are numerous reasons for student indiscipline, and recommended the implementation of necessary policies that would deal with deviant behaviours and change approaches for handling the same in secondary schools.

It is without a doubt that students' indiscipline is on the rise. This prevalent contemporary issue requires urgent intervention since it has led to death, massive

destruction of property, and disruption of teaching and learning time; hence poor academic performance in schools (Kathanzu & Thinguri, 2016). Despite the tough measures imposed by the government to curb indiscipline in secondary schools such as suing, imprisonment, denying a certificate of good conduct, and payment for damages for students suspected to have organized students' unrest, cases of indiscipline in secondary schools have kept increasing (Murithi, 2016). Muchiri (2016) pointed out that between June and July 2016, over one hundred schools in Kenya burned, and the causes of arsons were unclear. Wanyama (2016) reported increasing arson cases in secondary schools in Kenya and blamed it on the absence of education democracy, although he did not provide empirical evidence. The study called for scientific research to establish whether education democracy has an impact on students' discipline. The view by Wanyama presented a ground for the current study to investigate the effect of democratization aspects on student discipline.

2.2.1 Education Democracy

Democracy refers to a societal situation that occurs when a solution to issues that affect the society is arrived at through collective participation and deliberations on shared concern for the common good (Ahmad et al., 2015). This involves protecting human rights, but Ahmad et al. (2015) warned that great care should be taken to avoid politicizing the schools in carrying out democratization of education. Similarly, Smith (2013) argued that although education democracy is vital in secondary schools, stakeholders should not be exaggerated it to serve inappropriate functions. His observation was based on the evidence of instances where students exaggerated their rights and neglected their responsibilities, commitments, and obligations; leading to conflict and discipline problems in schools. Sugut and Waghid (2014) supported this argument, saying that eliminating students' beating does not allow learners to

misbehave. However, the authors lamented that students in Nandi South were hardly involved in the formulation of school rules and regulations and hence blamed the school administration for being too strict. Most of the principals were autocratic and did not consult students before taking various courses of actions.

Education democratization is characterized by intentional participation in classrooms and various other collective or social alliances such as Board of Management (BOM) meetings, parental associations (PA), decision-making regarding student activities, welfare, social and health issues; making rules and regulations and other essential platforms of involvement (Ahmad et al., 2015). Subsequently, the current study endeavoured to carry out an in-depth analysis of forms of education democratization. The study explores banning of corporal punishment, involvement of students in electing their leaders, student participation in BOM meetings, and involvement of the student in decision-making in matters concerning them and asserts their effect or instead influence on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

The most developed Western democracies have embraced participatory models of democracy since the late 1970s, extending democratic principles of state bodies to encompass all social aspects of society (Ahmad et al., 2015). This participatory democracy ensures that all members of the society have the ability to take part in taking decisions on anything that affects them. This activity may include voting, lobbying, community events, contacting officials and legislators, protesting, attending meetings, raising money, canvassing and boycotting (Dieltiens, 2014). Similarly, Smit (2015) claims that greater engagement contributes to greater efficiency, as it educates people and stakeholders to turn their involvement in the organization's common goal. Ahmad et al. (2015) suggests extension of participatory and intentional participation to schools,

classrooms and various other collective or social alliances, such as management board meetings, associations and parents. These findings gave high impetus to this study.

Waghid (2014) cautions that democratization of decision-making through the students' involvement does not subscribe to a laissez-faire approach to school discipline. Similarly, the study by Smith (2013) claims that although education democracy is vital in secondary schools, stakeholders should not exaggerate it to serve inappropriate functions. Smith (2013) carried out an empirical study in South African schools and established that many students exaggerated their rights and neglected their commitments and obligations, which led to conflict and discipline problems in schools. Therefore, there is the need for firm but friendly disciplinary procedures in school because that is the only way we can have learners feel secure. Waghid (2014) supports Smith (2013) recommendations that the elimination of students beating does not allow learners to misbehave.

The major cause of indiscipline in secondary schools was lack of democracy, frequent use of physical punishment, and lack of empowerment of students to learn independently (Sugut & Mugasia, 2014). The authors lamented that students in the Nandi South district were hardly involved in the formulation of school rules and regulations, and hence they find these rules too strict. Most of the principals were autocratic and did not consult students before taking various actions. The current study sought to establish whether there is any impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools. Hence, the study discusses various forms and mechanisms for championing democracy to explore the gaps thereof.

2.3 Banning of Corporal Punishment

In the context of this study, punishment refers to the intentional affliction of pain, shame, or unpleasantness on students because of what the discipliner considered misbehaviour (Wairagu, 2017; Ouma et al., 2013). According to Wairagu (2017), 80% of schools use punishments to solve discipline problems. Despite this popularity, punishment has been criticized for breeding anger and resentments among students, thus increasing the occurrence of the behaviour. Furthermore, Wairagu argues that punishment does not give students a fair chance to appeal against the unfair judgement.

Therefore, corporal punishment is the punishment, which involves inflicting pain on the body in most cases through caning (Ngwokabuenui, 2015). Corporal punishment is based on the biblical concept of 'spare the rod and spoils the child'. The task of the teacher was to enforce discipline while the duty of the student was to obey. Corporal punishment in secondary schools is evidenced by punishment that involves whipping, slapping, caning, throwing cold water at students, pulling of ears, beating, among other forms (Makhasane & Chikoko, 2016). Corporal punishment dictates the teacher's task as to enforce discipline while the student is to submit through obedience. This form of punishment may as well be referred to as punitive or reactive disciplining.

Corporal punishment usually has significant consequences, primarily when continually implemented. It may lead to psychological displacement. Psychological displacement is a defensive mechanism in which a person is irritated to frustrate the less powerful individuals by a higher and more powerful authority outcome. For example, a boss may punish a worker; in return, the worker may punish the wife at home; the wife punishes her child, who also punish the dog. The dog may respond by punishing the chicken. This scenario is what Wairagu (2017) called displacement reaction.

Furthermore, Makhasane and Chikoko (2016) summarized the effects of using corporal punishment on learners. They argued that children are more likely to be negatively aggressive, disobedient, cheat, grow destructive and associate with friends prone to delinquency. It may also lead to hostility, fear, anger, and later in life, leading to suicidal thoughts and depression. Moreover, punishing students inhibit the growth of trust and a sense of security. It predisposes one to use violence to fix issues and not learn how to address differences constructively. It causes children to develop hatred towards their teachers and parents, leading to bullying and low self-esteem, which ultimately lead to little resiliency and poor skills.

These negative outcomes resulting from corporal punishment lead to its ban in many countries (Ahmad et al., 2015). Following the outlawing of student beating, several challenges were encountered, and these were addressed by coming up with alternatives to the rod, such as humiliation, suspensions, expulsions, imposition of extra-work, and deprivation of privileges. However, philosophers and psychologist have also condemned all these since they cause humiliation to a child (Sofo, 2016). Quintero (2014) noted that suspension short-circuits dialogue and engagement of students, and withdraws students from school instead of reacting to the problem activity constructively and therapeutically. Quintero observed that suspension alienated students from schools and authority systems, causing them to perceive school employees as unjust, unreasonable and uncaring.

However, despite these actions, students' indiscipline has been observed to be at its peak owing to the ban of corporal punishment. Surprisingly, banning caning, whipping, and slapping is blamed for poor discipline in many schools worldwide (Maree, 2017; Ahmad et al., 2015; Kalipa, 2015). Caning has been banned in several countries of the

World, yet it is still used by some educators (Ahmad et al., 2015). Despite this disparity, Masitsa (2017) argued that corporal punishment leads to only short-term compliance and has negative short and long-term effects such as aggressiveness, feeling of revenge, hostility, and a high rate of vandalism.

After reviewing eighty researches documenting the effect of corporal punishment on pupils, Glenn (2014) disapproved of this assumption, and none of the reviewed researches found any significant long-term impact of corporal punishment. Henderson (2014) also found out that children whose parents use corporal punishment are more likely to partake in subsequent domestic abuse in their homes and continue the pattern as that was what they learnt. The study found out those children who have been struck as babies have a lower 1Q than children who have not been spanked (Glenn, 2014). Hitting a child puts him at increased risk of developing depression, misuse of drugs and violence (Glenn, 2014). Similarly, Henderson (2014) pointed out that delinquent youth were disciplined invariably harshly. Makhasane and Chikoko (2016) summarize the effect of using corporal punishment on learners as the following: children are more likely to be aggressive; children are likely to be disobedient, liars, cheats, destructive and associate with friends prone to delinquency. Further corporal punishment may lead to hostility fear, anger and later in life; it may lead to suicidal thoughts and depression. It also brings shame to students. Students believe something is wrong with them and does not reflect on behaviour. It inhibits the growth of trust and sense of security, teaches them how to use violence to fix issues and does not learn to address differences constructively. Children develop hatred towards teachers and parents, leading to bullying; children do not learn to have self-control, hatred towards teachers and students, and low self-esteem, which leads to poor performance, lack of resiliency, and poor skills. Sometimes it may lead to death, and this is not the intention of the teacher.

Globally, banning of corporal punishment has been replaced by preventive and alternative measures for disciplining students. Gershoff (2017) investigated the perception of corporal punishment among primary and high school students in the USA. He found out that learners were beaten with sticks, hands and wooden rulers, and the main targeted areas were the head, hands, arms and buttocks despite abolishing punishment through use of objects as evidence in the Rights of Children Act. The study raised a concern that such form of punishing students caused physical body harm, deterred learning among students, and caused mental distress, which eventually bred illicit behaviours such as truancy. The study concluded that corporal punishment was harmful to the life of students and contributed to academic failure. The study advocated for democracy, and reformation of strict legislative and education programs that would end corporal punishment

Following the outlawing of student beating, several challenges were met, and these were addressed by coming up with alternatives to the rod such as humiliation, imposition of extra-work, deprivation of privileges, but philosophers and psychologist have also condemned all these since they cause humiliation to the child (Sofo, 2016). Quintero (2014) found that the old school of thought assumed that strict measures were required to keep the students safe, preserve order, and create a healthy school atmosphere. These policies involved suspensions and expulsions, but recent research indicates that these harsh policies are not good for anybody, including the non-suspended students. Kipchik and Catlaw (2015) supported this argument, stating that school administration cannot achieve students discipline simply through punishments and exclusions. Kipchik and Catlaw (2015) argue that extreme penalties are for imposing laws themselves for the sake of laws and not for student progress. Such strict

laws make students impotent since they are viewed as objects for practice. Students are taught that the only choice in shaping their world is to report to school authorities without complaining or giving any opinion. This is the exact opposite of what the scholars are suggesting for democracy in education.

Font and Gershoff (2018) also explored the prevalence of corporal punishment in high school in the US. Font and Gershoff targeted blacks and learners with disabilities. The study noted that the use of corporal punishment was declining in public high schools. Moreover, it was clear that corporal punishment was a violation of human rights; stirred up students' anger and misconduct; and was not supported by the government. Also noted was that there was a clear corporal punishment legislative framework guiding its exclusion in schools. The framework included federal legislation and state legislations. The use of federal legislation and strict policies was upheld as a successful strategy for ensuring compliance. The study recommended school-wide positive behavioural interventions and support systems for fostering and nurturing good character, conduct and behaviour. The results were very informative despite a limitation in generalizing the findings to the other schools with white and non-disabled students. The context of the study was informed by the aspects of discrimination, especially between white and black students, which may not be observed in Meru County.

Malak et al. (2015) investigated the teachers' perception of disciplining students in absence of corporal punishment in Australia. Teachers' responses revealed they were supporting the use of reactive and punitive methods of cubing student misconduct. Concerning alternatives to corporal punishment, it was clear that teachers were less aware of them. Therefore, Malak et al. (2015) did not explore the use of positive and preventive disciplining strategies to curb student indiscipline. Furthermore, the study

concluded that punitive disciplining strategies were commonly used in public schools. Owing to this trend, the study recommended that policymakers develop clear and elaborate policies guiding exclusion of corporal punishment and universities who were to incorporate units that will render knowledge on preventive and positive disciplining strategies to their training teachers.

Corporal punishment causes discomfort and mental distress in learners. Bassam et al. (2018) investigated the medical aspect of corporal punishment in Lebanon, Asia. They wanted to find out if corporal punishment is a form of child abuse or a method of instilling discipline. Paediatricians who were interviewed pointed out that corporal punishment negatively impacted children's physical, psychological, and mental wellness, as well as social interactions. Medically, corporal punishment was found to predispose aggression, delinquency, and conjugal violence later in life. It was also associated with antisocial behaviour and anxiety disorders, alcohol abuse and dependence, and externalization problems. If not addressed, it was causing psychopathology-related disorders in adulthood such as depression, mania, personality disorders, suicide, disruption of the mechanisms of regulation of stress in the brain and elevation of cortisol levels. The cross-sectional descriptive study concluded that punitive punishment bred more harm than good to the Asian students' health; hence, its abolition was appropriate. The findings linked corporal punishment to mental wellness, which was critical in adding knowledge; however, students' views negated these observations hence weakening the conclusions. The current study collected views from students' leaders to understand the nature of corporal punishment and trace how the same was affecting discipline in the school.

Tiwani (2019) investigated the reasons that led to corporal punishment in Indian schools. This study was a qualitative and mainly used observations and interviews to gather data from teachers and students. Surprisingly, contrary to observations made in the US, Indian students expected corporal punishment from their teachers as a method of eradicating illicit behaviour. Teachers' views were in line with the students' since the data revealed much uncertainty over the ban of reactive measures deemed necessary to impart socio-cultural norms in society. The continued use of corporal punishment in India schools was attributable to the lack of clear implemented policies. The study recommended that policy-makers define corporal punishment clearly and develop transparent guidelines for implementing the ban to avoid misunderstanding and perplexity among teachers, learners, principals, and education officers. The study adopted the observation technique as the main data collection tool, which was limited since many aspects of discipline are not observable. Furthermore, observation of teacher-student interactions during prayer assemblies, classroom discussions, after school sports, lunch, recess and cultural assemblies, staff meetings, professional development sessions, and parent-teacher meetings were helpful in tracing cultural values, which is not comprehensive in pointing out holistic discipline among students.

Different stakeholders vary in the way they perceive corporal punishment in school. Cheruvalath and Tripathi (2015) investigated the teachers' perception of student discipline due to corporal punishment prohibition in 2015. The study indicated that corporal punishment was used to instil discipline in secondary school students in India. However, the majority of teachers criticized the physical beating of students. Cheruvalath and Tripathi (2015) came up with other mechanisms for addressing child self-discipline, such as dialogue, counselling and parental involvement. They further

noted the need for teachers to encourage students to engage in productive activities such as extra-curricular activities that engage their minds.

In Africa, several studies have emphasized the ban of corporal punishment as a mechanism for attaining education democratization. For example, in South Africa, Moyo et al. (2014) investigated the alternatives to corporal punishment on students' discipline. The study noted that following the ban of corporal, teachers felt demotivated and helpless owing to the rise of unacceptable behaviour. It was also clear that reactive punishment suffered resistance since teachers, parents, cultural and religious leaders felt undermined by the government in instilling discipline to students. The study identified a lack of consistency in the implementation of the alternative disciplinary strategies on students. This study underscored the need for public participation when making critical decisions such as abolishing corporal punishment in schools, which could explain why most respondents strongly supported corporal punishment. It was clear that respondents lacked ambivalence and understanding of the alternatives to corporal punishment. Given this discrepancy, self-disciplined culture was recommended, which should be institutionalized through involvement, capacity building, policy formulation, parental involvement and normative disciplinary assessment alternatives.

Ahmad et al. (2015) also cited an example from South Africa where beating is enforced in more than half of schools (51.4%) with the highest incidences recorded in Eastern Cape (63.3%), Mpumalanga (64.1%) and Limpopo (55.7%). This was described by Maree (2004) as cruel, degrading, a violation of personal dignity and of section 12(1) (e) of South African constitution. Moreover, studies by Kubeka (2004) as quoted by Kalipa (2015) found that over 80 per cent of instructors interviewed felt that learner's behaviour interferes with their happiness and 79 per cent had considered abandoning

the teaching profession because of learners' indiscipline problems. These advocates for corporal punishment arguing that its absence makes teachers to lose grip of the learners, which leads to growing of disregard for the authority. However, Masitsa (2017) argued that corporal punishment leads to only a short-term compliance, and has negative short term and long-term effects such as aggressive, feeling of revenge, hostility, and high rate of vandalism.

Ngussa and Mdalingwa (2017) collected students' views concerning corporal punishment in Tanzania, where they found that this form of discipline was ongoing despite its abolishment. On the one hand, students' responses revealed that punishment was helpful since it enabled monitoring of their discipline. However, on the other hand, they perceived that punishment might cause them to miss classes, drop out of school, and instil fear between them and teachers or discipliners, which negatively affected their academic performance.

Reviewed literature indicated that reactive punishment methodologies bred bad behaviours among students in Dodoma, Nairobi, western Kenya, Nyamira and Kiambu (Najoli et al., 2019; Kambuga & Manyengo, 2018; Mugambi, 2013; Ombori et al., 2016). Some of the outcomes included students skipping classes, absenteeism, truancy, increasing suspensions, fear, physical harm, psychological impact, and drop-out and wrong perception towards teachers, which ultimately culminated in poor academic performance in public secondary schools. Mugambi (2013) also established that whipping, caning, and beating bred neurotic reactions reflected by fear, anxiety, withdrawal, tension, depression, trauma, stress, timidity, submissiveness, physical harm, or even death of students. The two studies recommended training workshops for

teachers to educate them on handling the alternative methods to corporal punishment and sensitize them on the negative consequences of using corporal punishment.

Locally, Kenya banned students' beating through legal notice No. 56 of Kenya Gazette supplement number 25.199 of 30th March 2001(Kalipa, 2015). Despite the ban, several cases of beating have been reported in Kenya where other methods of instilling discipline in students were described by some teachers as ineffective (Kalipa, 2015; Kindiki, 2015). That notwithstanding, the situation is no better considering the increased cases of indiscipline in public secondary schools (Kindiki, 2015; Musembi, 2015). A study by Gitari (2015) in Meru County expounded on the effectiveness of the alternative methods of punishment. Najoli et al. (2019) and Gitari (2015) attributed the rise of indiscipline to drug and substance abuse; poor relationships between students and teachers, parents siding with students to counter school rules, peer influence, lack of defined language policy in school, failure of the principal to involve parents, insufficient dialogue between administration and students and unclear rules and regulations. The teachers' respondents' views in Gitari's study concurred with those of Cheruvalath and Tripathi (2015) where the majority felt that alternatives to corporal punishment were ineffective in controlling discipline among learners. Alternatives to corporal punishment as noted by Gitari (2015) were guidance and counselling, involvement of parents when disciplining students, strengthening prefects body, improving relationships between teachers and students, involving the student in decision making organs, improving students' activities like sports, inviting speakers and role models to school, and rewarding positive behaviour and addressing students' grievances more effectively. The study recommended that a clear student discipline policy be developed. It also recommended the need to strengthen the effectiveness of the alternatives to corporal punishment in the schools.

Kebongo and Mwangi (2020) assessed guidance and counselling services as an alternative discipline control mechanism to corporal punishment in Kikuyu, Kenya. They found that these services were highly needed for supporting the psychosocial needs of learners. Despite this need, guidance and counselling teachers had no formal training in counselling, had high teaching and classwork load, lacked essential resources such as offices, and books and programme structure. Nevertheless, guidance and counselling services were found effective in eradicating student illicit behaviour and hence support systems were called upon (Mugambi, 2013). Despite this conclusion, it is also clear that using guidance and counselling as an alternative to corporal may evoke a wrong perception of the same. Notably, students are likely to view the act of going to a counsellor as another form of punishment; hence, the deeper purpose of counselling is distorted and misplaced. The handling of guidance and counselling services requires careful handling to balance psychosocial support and its remedial role as an alternative to corporal punishment. Nevertheless, guidance and counselling were effective in eradicating student illicit behaviour and hence the TSC recommendation to employ qualified speciality teachers in the counselling field. Maina and Sindabi (2016) emphasized strengthening guidance and counselling as a critical measure towards improving students' indiscipline.

2.4 Involvement of Students in Electing their Leaders

Students are the direct beneficiary of educational services; hence, side-lining them in electing their leaders is to walk in a minefield. Most secondary school students are adolescents; an age characterized by the desire to be heard, involved, and participate in decision-making. Most adolescents are sensitive to their rights and can react at the slightest provocation. In that connection, creating an environment in the school is

critical in ensuring that learners can express their interest in issues relating to their education. The starting point is establishing systems that foster democratic election of their leaders and involving them in formulating school rules and regulations (Sofo, 2016). As such, student electing their leaders becomes an essential aspect of democracy in educational pursuit. Indeed, student electing their leaders is usually the primary strategy for implementing education democratization in learning institutions (Muthoka et al., 2018). Allowing students to participate in electing their leaders is beneficial. This is because it makes them accountable for school rules and regulations and enables them to be more dedicated to co-curricular activities in their schools (Muthoka et al., 2018).

Studies investigating students' involvement in electing their leaders to foster democracy are scanty globally, regionally and locally. Notably, most studies done in the developed countries have addressed the role of student leadership in relation to the academic performance, perceptions, challenges and lack of leadership expertise (Waldon, 2020; Lyons, 2018). This study reviewed and interrogated a few of such studies. For example, in the US, students' voice was given a priority due to the ban of corporal punishment. The same was strengthened through the enactment of policies regarding child rights (Convention on the Rights of the Child Act).

Lyons (2018) did a study that focussed on student leadership with a particular focus on training and induction. Although the study did not expound on how students were elected, it underscored the significant role played by capacity building programs. Lyons found that student leaders who were trained and inducted were more successful, responsible, and dependable. Such individuals can be mentored to be responsible members of society. Through training, the student leaders acquire skills that help them to guide and control colleagues in the class, dormitory and during social events held

inside and outside the schools. This kind of interaction between students and their leaders that help to keep student discipline under check.

Waldron (2020) focused on student leadership with an emphasis on capacity building in Michigan. One concern of Waldron was how leaders ascended to their positions. The study reported that their out-going leaders elected most student leaders in high schools; others were elected by general students; only in very few cases where teachers appointed leaders. In addition, the study noted that there are very few instances where students' leaders were trained on their positional roles. The study recommended strengthening the training and nurturing of leaders irrespective of the service period and the position and roles. Tan and Adams (2018) also investigated student leadership styles applied in leading students in high and post-secondary schools in Malaysia. A variety of leadership styles and approaches were reported. The predominant leadership approaches were the human resource frame and structural frame. The study recommended adopting a multi-frame leadership approach saying that it allowed democratic spirit and provided a balance to avoid over-emphasizing one aspect. Regarding the issues investigated in the current study, processes and systems on how student leaders ascended to various leadership position were not covered by Tan and Adams, hence a research gap.

Regionally, most African countries struggle to embrace education democratization by allowing students to elect their leaders (Bwankarikari, 2016). This is evidenced by the scantiness of the subject under discussion. Significantly, few studies have addressed student leadership in relation to their appointment, roles and contribution to academic achievement (Ambuga & Omollo, 2017; Onditi, 2018). The democratization of education is essential in nurturing responsible and accountable leadership. Boakye (2012) found two models of democracy in high schools in Ghana. The models were

direct or participatory democracy, where students were directly involved in decision-making through their leaders' representatives, and liberal or representative democracy, which involves students in electing their leaders. The study noted that these forms of democracy were unexploited, as evidenced by the little student involvement in matters affecting them. Students were regarded as the main stakeholders in Ghana schools, and therefore, it was recommended that policies guiding students' involvement be strengthened.

Recently, Kuranchie and Affum (2021) reckoned student leadership in high schools as an essential means of achieving education democratization in high schools in Ghana. Most high schools were reported to have adopted democratic approaches and electoral processes in electing students' leaders. The students' body was taken through an electoral education that included picking and ticking nomination forms, vetting, supervising election and counting casted ballots/votes. Moreover, student leaders who were elected were trained and inducted before they took up substantive positions and responsibilities. This nature of electoral process and practices unravelled similitude and semblance of democratic ideologies in selecting their leaders in high schools. Kuranchie and Affum further provided a quintessential approach for ensuring that the elected leaders were inculcated with appropriate culture, values, and skills to execute their roles effectively. With this orientation and approach, the elected leaders are instrumental in controlling and guiding students' behaviour and conduct.

In Arusha, Tanzania, student leaders were largely appointed by teachers based on essential qualities such as discipline, confidence and academic excellence (Ambuga & Omollo, 2017). However, despite them not participating in the democratic election, top position prefects participated in various meetings where decisions were made. It was

also clear that prefects faced numerous challenges resulting from accepting to take the respective appointed positions. Issues discussed in such meetings included missing lessons, failure to complete class assignments on time, lack of enough time to engage in private studies, and fear to report on teachers who miss and those who came late for classes. However, prefects were not trained in their job. The study recommended that high schools adopt democratic elections where students participate in electing leaders of their choice. Emphasis was also put on the need to train the student elect on their roles and responsibilities.

A similar study was conducted in Uganda by Hakiza (2016) who investigated how leaders were elected in secondary schools and the role of student leaders in maintaining discipline in Uganda. The study found out that students' council members were elected democratically by their fellow students. Their leadership roles influenced other students to obey school rules and thwarted planned strikes. Furthermore, student leaders were involved in decision-making, attended management meetings; and were allowed to air out students' views on matters concerning their affairs. Despite being elected democratically, there was a disconnect in how student leaders were disseminating information to their fellow students, causing confusion and frustrations; hence riots and unrest in the schools. The study recommended that student leaders be trained on communication to avert the indiscipline cases arising from misinformation.

In Kenya, Ogwano et al. (2016) investigated students' involvement in matters that affect them in public secondary schools in Nairobi. Results indicated that students were less involved in decision-making. Moreover, principals did not exploit extra avenues of involving the students such as in electing their leaders in most schools. Only a few schools had adopted students' council leadership approach in public secondary schools

in Nairobi. Nevertheless, the study noted that in the schools where students were involved in decision-making, there were fewer cases of indiscipline as compared to where they were not. Although the study provided information regarding students' leaders being involved in decision-making and avenues, such as open forums and suggestion boxes, the information on the electoral process was partially mentioned. This exposes a gap, which the current study sought to address.

Several studies have linked students' leadership to discipline in secondary schools. Onditi (2018) supported this proposition, saying that students' leaders played a significant role in managing student' discipline in public secondary schools. The way the leaders are elected is therefore paramount and marks the genesis of democracy. The induction and the roles that the elected leaders play is also equally very important. According to Onditi, the students' leaders contribute to discipline in the school, considering that they participate in formulating school rules and regulations, deciding punishments for fellow students who misbehave or have deviant behaviour, and resolving disputes among students.

In Kisii, Singoei (2019) revealed how students' participation in electing their leaders positively influenced the discipline of students. In most cases, student leaders collaboratively worked with teachers in decision-making treated others with respect and dignity, reported wrongdoers to the deputy principals, and encouraged their fellow students to maintain discipline. The study indicated that adoption of education democratization in secondary school was bearing fruits if tactfully managed. Students electing their leaders motivated them to a great extent and fathomed obedience and compliance by students to the laid rules and regulations in the schools. Key recommendations noted by Singoei were the need to empower the student leaders with

leadership skills and the establishment of systems and policy guidelines on how prospective student leaders can be vetted to deter rogue and undisciplined students from being elected. Although the study gathered views from primary school learners, it exhaustively explored students' participation in electing their leaders, which played a role in improving the discipline of public primary schools.

Similarly, Jepkemboi et al. (2018) investigated the role of students' council members on the discipline of students in the Waren Sub-County. Jepkemboi' study was motivated by the rise of students' indiscipline in public secondary schools in Waren Sub-County. The study found that some student councils were aware of the school's mission and vision, acquired requisite training, were imparted with problem-solving techniques during induction and depicted good communication and public speaking skills. Although the study did not investigate how leaders ascended into power, the preceding attributes were critical in controlling students' discipline in secondary schools. Alexander (2018) examined whether the recurrent student unrest and indiscipline could be attributed to students feeling alienated in decision-making process. The study observed that most public secondary schools had established student councils elected directly by their fellow students. This was termed as the reasons why cases of indiscipline in Tharaka Nithi and Nairobi Counties had reduced.

Kandie (2017) focused on how school democracy could be achieved in secondary schools. It was clear that democracy in school was realized through stakeholders' participation and involvement. The study concluded that practices and processes involving stakeholders enabled the democratization of education in several secondary schools. However, the study noted that the effective achievement of education democracy was impeded by parents' apathy, lack of proper communication,

curriculum, time and lack of training among stakeholders. The study examined the role of the principal in achieving education democracy. It recommended that the Ministry of Education develop a comprehensive policy regarding all areas of education democracy. This approach is different from the one adopted by the current study. Students' perspectives were central in understanding how the said democracy was linked to students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. In addition, Kandie omitted practises and processes of achieving education democracy through the democratic election of student leaders, a gap that was addressed by the current study.

Nekesa (2017) examined selection of students' leaders in secondary schools, and investigated how student leadership affected students' discipline of students in Likoni Sub-County, Mombasa. It was revealed that 97.1% of the students had elected their student leaders, and 83.3% of the respondents indicated that they were leaders. On how student councils enhance discipline in schools, it was clear that student leaders helped maintain order. However, leaders showed lack of experience and competencies in the meetings, which was attributed to the lack of training and induction. Therefore, a comprehensive electoral policy in schools was recommended. However, the study did not explore the electoral processes adopted in ensuring watertight mechanisms in students' election. The current study addressed this gap.

Chemutai et al. (2020) investigated the causes of student unrest in public secondary schools. Among the many causes of unrest, political reasons stood out among many reasons for students' misconduct in Kericho County. It was observed that the schools where principals and teachers appointed leaders, instead of the student electing their councils, experienced more unrest and arson cases. Need for strengthening election

policies, advocacy and awareness programs to maximize students' participation in secondary schools was recommended.

2.5 Participation of Students Leaders in BOM Meetings

The idea of students participating in BOM meetings is a crucial tenet and a management principle in the human relations theory of management (Mondy et al., 2014). In the current study, the principle is about learners' inclusion in the administration process. Key administrative themes entrenched in democratic principle participation are decentralizing decision-making, managing interpersonal relations, and delegation of power and authority. For example, in some countries, student participation is enhanced through alternative forms of student governance; namely, student advisory committees, appointments to the school board, and advise superintendents (Education Reform, 2016).

Student participation in BOM meetings is a requisite strategy that increases democratic involvement, resulting in students being more accountable, optimistic, and receptive to the school goals and objectives and taking responsibility by creating a problem-solving environment (Macmillan, 2015). Moreover, student council representatives in management meetings form a crucial communication channel through which students' air out their views, opinions and other salient issues affecting them in academics, welfare, health and security (Wairagu, 2017). Furthermore, the involvement of students not only makes the work of teachers easy but also helps to evade possible conflicts (Muthoka et al., 2018). The students representing others in management meetings, in addition, develop leadership, interpersonal, interrogating and communication skills (Macmillan, 2015; Muthoka et al., 2018).

Lack of participative involvement of students' leaders in managerial meetings has been criticized and linked to most unrests and infractions in high schools. This is because lack of involvement disables communication links between students and the school managers (Muthoka et al., 2018). Other perceived challenges brought about by poor or lack of engagement of students in decision-making meetings include the inability to achieve set academic goals, poor performance, lack of motivation, lack of platforms to air out views, strikes and strained student-management relationships (Ejimabo, 2015).

Teachers feel uncomfortable in students demanding for more participation in BOM decision-making, which gives students room to carry out their activities, organise games and competition of various types, elect their leaders, and form a committee responsible for looking after the school projects (Kindiki, 2015). However, participation of students in BOM meetings in some schools is limited since students are not allowed enough opportunity to express their views when sensitive matters are being discussed, such as the expulsion of other students since the students are requested to move out when such cases are being discussed (Mncube, 2017).

Students' participation in BOM meetings may be influenced by the type of schools, stakeholders themselves, regularity of attendance, policies and procedures, and gender stereotypes that mainly inhibit girls' performance. For example, in a most mixed school, girls are overshadowed by their male counterparts since females leave most of the decisions to their male counterparts (Waghid, 2014; Glover, 2015). Moreover, lack of training expertise among student leaders is an impending setback to inclusion of student council in managerial meetings and decision-making platforms (Tikoko et al., 2017; Glover, 2015). To some extent, student representatives rarely attend meetings. The main excuse given is that most management meetings are held during the day when

classes are in progress, which means their attendance will cause such students to miss classes (Saitis & Saiti, 2017; Tikoko et al., 2017).

In the developed countries, the issue of the student participating in management meetings has been emphasized. Jones et al. (2018) presented a report on teachers' disciplinary actions to rectify behavioural diversion in high schools. It was evident that purely reactive disciplining methodologies were primarily less preventative disciplinary components to address challenging behaviour. Other actions taken to rectify behaviour were; suspension, confiscation of the offending item, detention, mediation, call home, community service and disciplinary meetings with teachers, parents or both. The centre highly criticized the discipline system since it did not evaluate what learners went through. The deterioration of discipline was attributed to the lack of communication, engagement in management, decision-making and incorporation of students in matters that affected them in the school environment. The study recommended inclusion of student representatives in the management meetings.

Cooper (2019) carried a study in Columbia where student involvement in school's management was discussed. The study focussed on the involvement of students in education meetings, particularly those with disabilities. The research established that the involvement of students in educational meetings positively influenced their academic plan and their performance in examinations. It also found that engagement created a platform where students' needs were heard and interrogated.

Saitis and Saiti (2017) lamented that most of the institutions were task-oriented to the detriment of effective interpersonal relationships, which compromised the effectiveness of involving learners in school management meetings. School principals opposed to learners' inclusion in management meetings argued that participation could make

students proud, overconfident, leak meeting deliberations, and those decisions may fail to achieve the intended intentions. The study recommended that students' involvement be limited to meetings discussing welfare matters and not management and other sensitive decisions made by the school management. The study is valuable to the present study. It reveals the underlying principals' attitude towards allowing students in management meetings. However, it did not suggest remedial measures for addressing the leaking of information and others issues that principals raised. The current study managed to address these gaps.

Sofo (2016) focussed on the challenges hindering the successful implementation of education democratization in Russia, Iran, Pakistan, Ghana, and Ukraine. Issues such as corruption, poor educational quality and excessive administrative control featured prominently. It was also clear that less participation of student representatives was largely attributed to the autocratic administrations. The report recommended that educational institutions embrace democratization by encouraging students' participation in decision-making, policy, rules and regulation formulation; and presenting their needs in management forums.

In Turkey, Erdol (2018) analysed the issue of democracy and participation. The findings noted the partial involvement of students' leaders in decision-making meetings. In addition, the study noted variation between girls' and boys' student representatives in leadership positions in secondary schools in Turkey. Moreover, it was clear that the proportion of female students decreased as the level of representation in decision-making increased. Students had gender stereotypes about women's participation in decision-making forums. The study recommended the empowerment of girls to undertake positions of leadership and be able to participate in decision-making

meetings. Levels of management involved in running schools, for example, BOM, were not evident in this study. The current study specifically examined the involvement in BOM meeting where strategic decisions are made.

Ngwokabuenui (2015) examined school indiscipline in secondary schools in Cameroon and found out that misconduct among students was caused by students-based, society-based and school-based factors. Among the main causes of indiscipline was failure to engage students in meetings where they could air out their views. The development of a comprehensive policy guiding student participation in meetings was recommended towards remedying the problem.

In the arid and semi-arid areas, student participation in management meetings and its influence on discipline has not been explored. Many studies have investigated leadership, student participation in academic meetings concerning academic performance, and the challenges hindering students' involvement in the arid and semi-arid areas. In Nigeria, for example, Oni and Adetoro (2015) compared leadership effectiveness when students were involved and when they did not participate in management meetings. The study revealed a significant difference in decision-making outcomes when students participated and when excluded. Conversely, student inclusion in managerial decision meetings proved significant due to the positive outcomes noted, for example, in the discipline. Thus, the study provided empirical for involving students' leaders in the school management meetings. It also provided evidence on best leadership practices to avert unrest and discontent among students in secondary schools.

Studies conducted by Tikoko et al. (2017) showed that most of the instructors interviewed felt that when students are involved in all aspects of school management, they could make some counterproductive decisions to their success especially when

deciding on the number of examinations. This is because students are too young and lack experience in teaching methods and grading systems, and their opinions disagree with those of school administration. This is in agreement with the earlier finding of Hannam (2003) in which the teachers in the pilot study stated that learners should only take part in matters affecting their welfare such as cleanliness, setting standards, their academic work and co-curricular activities. Furthermore, the research pointed out that learners should not be involved in making decisions in major administrative issues such as curriculum, school budgeting, school fees, and discipline of staff members. Some of the other reasons given by teachers for their failure to incorporate the views of students are that student's participation may empower the student's body to the extent of pausing a threat to the administration set up of a school and that student's involvement may make students proud and overconfident (Tikoko, Kiprop & Bonnet 2017). On the other hand, the findings of Muthoka et al. (2018) and Kavula (2014) sharply contrast with the results of Tikoko et al. (2017) and say that the involvement of students in management meetings not only makes the work of teachers easy, but also helps to evade possible conflicts.

The public secondary schools covered by Glover (2015) in Ghana had established students' representative councils. However, there was no policy to guide the areas of involvement for students' representatives in school management meetings. The school administration argued that the students were immature to participate in managerial meetings. Consequently, representative student councils were limited to supervising their fellow peers. The study recommended policies and procedures for institutionalizing democracy. The findings contradict the earlier works by Waghid (2014) which argued that students deserve to take part in decisions that affect their lives, making them grow up as responsible and democratic citizens. This argument was also

supported by Ong'inyo (2014) who said that the more empowered and engaged learners are in decision-making about their education, the more powerful they can be in helping them take responsibility for their education. Similarly, Devries and Zan (2014) point out that when students care about a classroom problem and are involved in solving it, the resulting rules are more likely to be seen as fair. Since they took part in electing their leaders, they are more likely to respect and obey them. This participation supports students' growth as a moral and self-regulating human being.

Beach and Dovemark (2013) view indiscipline in school as a direct result of school authorities' failure to involve the students in electing their leaders and decision-making concerning their discipline. This is attributed to the general absence of a culture of freedom and dialogue in secondary schools, leading to increased misconduct in high schools. Unlike in Ghana, Hakiza (2016) student councillors in Uganda were frequently involved in decision-making meetings. Active involvement was reported to have positively influenced the students' disciplines. Carlitz (2016) also supported student engagement and involvement in decision-making, saying that it promoted social accountability and led to the reduction of riots in secondary schools in Tanzania. However, it was evident that student representatives in secondary schools in Uganda faced communication and expression challenges, hence the need for training on communication for students' leaders.

Locally, Tikoko et al. (2011) observe that teachers regard learners' inclusion in BOM as problematic since the students were treated as minors, inexperienced and lacking the skills and technical knowledge that is required to influence administrative decisions in the school. Student participation in BOM decision-making was limited to student welfare issues and not to governance issues. The study argues that when students were involved in all aspects of school management, they made petty and counterproductive

decisions, such as deciding on the number of examinations they wished to do. Mncube (2017) concur and support the exclusion of learners in BOM because of their age, noting that such minors hardly contribute to the debate but only listened to discussions on behalf of others. According to Mncube (017), learners' continuous attendance and participation in management meetings may have substantial information leaking, resulting in a strenuous relationship between students and school administration. Both Tikoko et al. (2011) and Mncube (2017) argued against the involvement of students in management meetings, a proposition that the current study refuted.

Nduta (2018) also disagreed with the proposition by both (Tikoko et al., 2011 and Mncube, 2017). Nduta noted that there were instances when student leaders in secondary schools in Kirinyaga County thwarted planned strikes, mobilized for quietness and talked in person with misbehaving students. The results showed that such leaders attended school management meetings and worked with school administration to address students' issues. However, the study found gaps in the electoral process caused by a lack of guidelines for systematic formation, structuring and capacity building of the student council bodies. The nurturing of leadership skills and role modelling was described essentially in improving students' discipline, hence the need for continuous training of elected student leaders. Nduta argued that there is a positive correlation between students' council leadership training and effectiveness in the execution of their duties. This is believed to influence the effective execution of duties in the school positively. Kagendo (2019) noted that failure to involve students' councils in the school management meetings could explain the high rates of misconduct, incessant desires of striking and destruction of property in secondary schools. According to Kagendo (2019), students' acts of violence is often a way of communicating their dissatisfaction and involvement in decision-making.

Kimame (2018) investigated the role of student councils in high schools to curb indiscipline cases. Kimame found that student unrests were rampant in Elgon and were evidenced by strikes, go-slows, riots, burning of school property and violent behaviour. It was found out that student councils from the affected schools did not participate in the management meetings, were not involved in decision-making, and BOM did not take time to listen to students' issues. The communication role of student leaders was found to be undermined at a greater extent. Mwabwanga (2019) and Kandie (2017) too reported the lack of involvement of students' leaders in management meetings in Kwale County and Baringo County, respectively. The key areas of decision making in which students were not involved were financial budgeting, construction of physical facilities, employment of school workers, academic programs, deciding guidance and counselling programs, co-curricular decisions by the student councils, games, clinics, training, writing and directing plays and songs. The need for training and development programs through seminars, workshops, and benchmarking was underscored.

Muthui et al. (2018) compared students' council participation in decision-making in boys' and girls' schools. They found out that participation of student councils in decision-making promoted inclusiveness, and eased the management of both public boys' and girls' boarding secondary schools. The study recommended that school management explore more innovative ways of involving school councils in BOM meetings where they would contribute, participate, and represent students' needs.

Given the studies discussed above, the empirical studies examining a direct relationship between students' involvement in BOM meeting and discipline were lacking. The existing ones were primarily inclined to academic performance, and internal consultations. A few others have explored the role of students' councils in the

management of students' discipline, but none has exclusively assessed the council's involvement in BOM meetings; this missing link was clear, and hence the current study focused on addressing this gap.

2.6 Participation of Students in Making Decisions on their Welfare Matters

Participation of students in decision-making comprises democratic engagements such as student voice in the school governance, democratic election of BOM representative members, and members of students governing council. It is about collective responsibility in the decision making process on all matters affecting students' affairs. By involving student leaders in making key decisions on their welfare matters implies freedom of information and expression without fear or intimidation and non-discrimination in respective decision-making meetings (Enes, 2016; Maingi, 2015; Smith, 2013). Students' active participation in decision-making serves several purposes. It can be described as functional (benefits to the school), developmental (student benefits) and social (benefits to society) (Enes, 2016).

The degree of learners' participation in education democratization is divided into three categories, where; the first category stipulates that students should remain passive and adhere strictly to the dictated rules, while the second group points out that students should participate in education democratization but only to a certain degree of extent (Aggrawal, 2015; Jeruto & Kiprop, 2011). This category depicts that students should only be involved in decision making on aspects of school life that affects them only and not others. It also implies that students cannot engage in the examination, grading, teacher appointment, and other salient issues. However, Huddleston (2016) criticized the two categories of participation in education democratization, for being

undemocratic, authoritarian and paternalistic, since they assume that learners have no say on matters they want and do not want to be included.

The third category suggests that learners should be involved fully in all decision-making areas in the school (Huddleston, 2016; Murage, 2017). This means that school administrators should be interested in making key decisions on all students' affairs matters. As such, their contributions should not be underestimated since students also improve their know-how and maturity levels. Similarly, Mncube (2017) suggested that students be interested in school-life areas, including rules, incentives, teaching approaches, and learning curricula. Other areas of involvement include deciding the nature of assignments, projects and topics selected by learners for engagement (Huddleston, 2016).

Despite the numerous benefits of involving students in decision-making in secondary schools, Waghid (2014) and Ahmad et al. (2015) argued that democracy in schools should be controlled. This control involves the equalization of power among key role players in the institutions. The agreement arrived at through consensus of both teachers and students to increase learners' motivation to work hard, which also motivated other stakeholders such as parents and teachers (Mason, 2015). Notably, lack of student's inclusion in the school's administration has been found to cause indiscipline among students in several countries in the world, including Kenya (Wairagu, 2017). This culminates in riots, burning and destruction of property, strikes, go-slows and rebelliousness among students (Mason, 2015).

Globally, students' participation in decision-making has been emphasized, mainly by the use of student leadership. Although there is a great emphasis on education democratization, there is a noticeable absence of current literature addressing the issue

with clarity and depth. The area of student participation and involvement, therefore, remains scantily explored globally. An England report presented by Davey et al. (2010) on children participation in decision-making showed briefings that opined that children's decision-making in schools and at home was not a norm. However, in some instances, school councils, youth forums and parents had proactively involved students in decision-making. The report stressed that teachers, parents and the community involve children in participatory decision-making forums to ground their negotiating, thinking, networking and decision-making skills.

In Ireland, Harrison et al. (2016) noted that teachers and students enjoyed some degree of involvement in decision-making processes. However, it was clear that the student had a deficiency in metacognitive skills, which were required in decision-making skills. Therefore, active involvement in the decision-making processes has been deemed a strategy to beef up these skills. The study concluded that student and teacher involvement in decision-making improved performance, although there was significant doubt in trust, openness, and school responsibilities.

In Jordan, Irsheid (2018) investigated the influence of leadership on student academic performance. The study reported that involving students in leadership determined their academic performance. This was specifically denoted by student representatives taking part in decision-making, collaborated in coming up with academic policies, and contributed to curriculum development in school meetings, which influenced managerial decisions and policies in the school. It was concluded that student involvement created a sense of ownership, and this collaboration influenced their academic performance.

In Australia and Slovenia, Mithans et al. (2017) investigated student participation in decision-making. The findings showed that students in Australia had more avenues and were frequently involved in decision-making than in Slovenia. It was also evident that students were less aware of their rights related to participation in decision-making platforms. The study indicated the benefits that were evident from the incorporation of students in decision-making, including; achievement of education democratization, development of openness, self-assurance, independence, and self-confidence. Despite the numerous benefits relating to collective decision-making, legal basis, there were gaps in participation. A similar situation was observed in Turkey, where students had minimal involvement in making decisions on their welfare matters (Erdol, 2018). In addition, Erdol noted fewer female students in the high ranks of student council positions than male counterparts.

Regionally, very little empirical research covers the construct of student involvement and participation in decision-making in African Countries. A white paper fostering democratic institutional management in South African secondary schools observed the escalating indiscipline cases. Consequently, all secondary schools were required to include learners in all administrative decision-making facets in the school as a strategy to curb indiscipline (Mncube, & Harber, 2014). The white paper further stressed that students' leaders be democratically elected and ensure their representation in the school management. The report indicated that the move was meant to accelerate student involvement in active and responsive roles, which further enabled them to develop tolerance, rational thinking, develop appropriate attitudes and demonstrate collective decision making skills. However, a study conducted in 2017 by Nthontho focused on controversies and prospects of (Mncube and Harber, 2014; Nthontho, 2017) found that students' participation in decision-making was less regarded as the main vehicle for

promoting democracy in South African educational institutions. The study found that lack of students' involvement in decision-making, particularly in matters affecting them, denied their democratic participation and freedom of expression. The study recommended an establishment of a mechanism determining the degree of student involvement in decision-making platforms.

The perception of student leaders as being immature to handle strategic decision was also noted in schools in Ghana. Subsequently, student leaders' participation in decision-making was only limited to supervision over peers (Glover, 2015). This was probably because no policies were addressing the issue of student participation in schools in Ghana. Glover recommended fully adoption of education democratization strategies and comprehensive policy addressing student participation and involvement in decision-making. However, data was collected from four national schools; hence, the findings could not be generalized to all schools in Ghana. The current study sampled 195 schools that were drawn from various categories.

Oni and Adetoro (2015) conducted a study on students' leadership in Nigeria. They found out that student involvement in decision-making significantly influenced leadership effectiveness. The study also showed significant differences when students were involved in decision-making and when they were not. It was concluded that student involvement in decision-making significantly and positively influenced effectiveness of leadership, which in the end influenced the students' academic performance and general students' behaviour in the school. The study recommended adequate involvement of students to foster effectiveness of institutions. Oni and Adetoro (2015) did not cover the areas of students' involvement; hence, the gap was addressed in the current study where decision areas such as academic, rules and regulations, sports, meals, punishment, routine programs were covered.

A meta-analysis study by Enes (2016) on democracy of education noted deficiency in the structural systems of involvement. It was clear that, whether in the workplace, in the family, in the classroom or in school, young people require the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process, especially on matters affecting them. According to Enes (2016), involvement usually influences young people's sense of responsibility, takes a collective viewpoint, develops a pro-social attitude, embraces democratic principles and mechanisms, and builds participatory and inclusive school culture, hence a high sense of social responsibility. This implied that for any meaningful democratic changes to be realized in schools, the administration had to be prepared to articulate championship and remove conventional rigidity; instead of embracing inclusivity and collaboration in decision-making processes.

The change mentioned in the preceding discussion is eminent locally. Maingi (2015) noted the need to revise the curriculum in teachers training institutions to address the missing link. This is because teachers' orientation dictates how they behave at schools. This change would go a long way in narrowing the gap between the leaders and those being led. It will further pave way for the effective implementation of democratic approaches in secondary schools. The absence of such orientation resulted in insufficient involvement of student leaders in decision-making meetings, which may cause dissatisfaction among students. If the situation is not addressed, it escalates to unacceptable behaviour characterized by riots, destruction of properties and disrespect for authority. Kindiki (2015) and Mueller (2018) who observed that there had been recurrent unrest among secondary school students over the past few years, reported similar findings. This occasioned various stakeholders in the education sector to include learners in management to curb restlessness. The creation of the Kenya Secondary Schools Students Council (KSSSC) at the national level in 2009.

Making rational decisions and the ability to handle situations that arise in life is essential in learners. It helps to shape the conduct and behaviour of students. Muskin (2015) emphasized the importance of making students develop critical thinking on all issues they face in life. Maingi (2015) who argued that education democracy narrows the gap between the leaders and those being led, also supported these sentiments. Allowing students to participate in decision-making usually creates a reality in their minds and help them to nurture acceptable rationale in choosing what is morally and socially acceptable to the majority.

Wambua et al. (2017) investigated stakeholder involvement in public secondary schools. The study found out that students were involved in decision-making at varying degrees. It was also clear that student participation in decision-making on their welfare matters lowered the cases of indiscipline in those schools, especially cases of arson. The study attributed this to the fact that student participation created a sense of ownership, respect, and recognition. It concluded that student involvement in decision-making was a driver to student's discipline. The study recommended the adoption of collective decision-making among school stakeholders to enhance students' discipline.

Despite the value for collective decision-making among school stakeholders, some secondary schools in Kisii County had not fully adopted student council leadership style, and other democratic avenues were underexplored (Barongo, 2016). Mati et al. (2016) collated students' views in order to establish the influence of their participation in decision-making on academic performance. Involvement was found to have contributed to improved motivation, hence better academic performance. The high motivation caused students to abide by set rules, pursue collective goals, and cease any obstruction; ultimately, contributing to improved academic performance. The study

noted that students would decide on academic motivation programs, self-study programs, and academic trips. Limited participation of student's leaders in making decisions on matters affecting their welfare was also evident in other parts of Kenya. Nyamu (2020) also reported that students in secondary schools in Uasin Gishu County were involved in decision-making in academic and co-curricular activities only. Tikaye (2017) attributed the lack of involvement to the underlying perception that learners are problematic when engaged in educational, curriculum and administrative issues. This kind of perception and orientation created alienation; hence, students feel excluded. The feeling may culminate in students taking the law into their hands and may indulge in unacceptable behaviour to make the administration hear them.

In Kangundo Sub-County, Mwikali (2015) sought to find the influence of primary school student involvement in management meetings on their academic performance. It was found that student council representatives' involvement in school formulation of school rules and regulations, timekeeping issues, and planning co-curricular activities lead to high performance and easy management. Although the study population comprises primary school students, the study cannot be ignored because it explored the issue of student council involvement in management meetings. Further, the fact that student council leadership style and education democratization concepts were introduced to primary and secondary education levels explains why this study cannot be discarded.

The elected students' leaders have a critical role to play in the management of students' discipline. Kyalo (2017) investigated the role of student councils in secondary schools and found high indiscipline in schools where student councils were not involved in decision-making. Kyalo highlighted the communication role of the student council,

arguing that students have usually taken serious what is coming from their peers. In Tharaka Nithi County, Kagendo (2018) established the extent of students' participation in decision-making roles in public secondary schools. The study demonstrated that there were low levels of student participation in managing school finances, physical resources and staff personnel. Student participated moderately in the curriculum and welfare issues. Students' active involvement and participation in decision-making on the areas mentioned above were recommended in public secondary schools.

The reviewed literature has underscored the importance of involving students in decision-making on matters affecting them. However, although the benefits of involving students in decision-making regarding their welfare, academic and social life were clear, there is a lack of sufficient literature specifically in Meru County. Moreover, the reviewed literature indicated structural gaps and a lack of policy guiding the involvement of students' leaders in making decisions on their welfare matters. The problem background was also traced to the school culture and the teachers and principals' orientation. The combination of these virtues and conditions occasioned the limited involvement of students in making decisions on their welfare matters in public secondary schools. This gap was addressed in this study by exploring the various ways of actualizing education democratization. Thus, it engaged students in decision-making regarding their affairs, focusing on public secondary schools in Meru County.

2.7 Peer Pressure, Education Democratization and Students' Discipline

Peer pressure constitutes the urge and persuasion to adopt a particular set of beliefs, behaviour, norms and goals similar to those adopted by colleagues (Rubin et al., 2016). It relates to the inability of an individual to pay attention to their feelings and belief system on what is wrong or right (Onsonti, 2017). Peer pressure is classified into three categories, direct peer pressure, indirect peer pressure and individual peer pressure.

Peer pressure is mainly caused by curiosity, the desire to fit in, lack of structure and guidance from home, insecurity and the overwhelming need for acceptance among people (Castrogiovanni, 2012; Afolabi, 2019).

Negative peer pressure can lead to unacceptable behaviour such as smoking, drinking, poor academic performance, depression, addictions, physical and health impairment (Afolabi, 2019). One can overcome peer pressure by utilizing inner strength and self-confidence, which enables one to stand, say no, walk away, or resist taking a particular course of action. Peer pressure is bound to young adolescents and all calibre of people (Onsonti, 2017). Its prevalence among secondary school students prompts them to dress, shave, and talk in a particular manner. Failure to comply attracts alienation, depression and desperateness (Rubin et al., 2016). Negative peer pressure has become a subtle subject of discussion in the context of secondary school students. In particular, this vice is stirred up through drug and substance abuse, social media platforms, risky attitudes and peer judgment influences (Onsonti, 2017). Peer pressure may as well be caused by the low self-esteem of an individual.

Studies have been conducted across the globe investigating the impact of peer pressure on the academic performance of students (Gibbons & Telhaj, 2012; Vangie et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Taylor, 2015; Afolabi, 2019; Fareo, 2019; Adeyemii, 2019). A sizeable number have primarily focused on the relationship between peer pressure and indiscipline among secondary going students (Gursoy, 2013). Moreover, education democratization aspects were discussed according to their implication on students' discipline (Nandeke et al., 2017; Murage, 2014; Wairagu, 2017). However, there is lack of literature concerning peer pressure among students as a moderator between education

democratization and student discipline, except for a few which established the impact of peer pressure when students were electing their leaders (Abdallah et al., 2020).

Globally, the issue of student peer pressure has attracted attention in many countries. This is because diverse effects among school-going adolescents have been rampant (Gibbons & Telhaj, 2012). A report by Gibbons and Telhaj (2012) in England postulated that most peer pressure issues encapsulated among family upbringing matters and their effects ran from the development of deviant behaviour to poor academic performance. Consequently, Moris et al. (2020) found out that peer pressure dragged individuals to excessive alcohol use in the United Kingdom.

In America, student peer pressure was found to influence discipline and was particularly intense among the adolescent. This concurred with a study carried out by (Liu et al., 2017). They found out that smoking initiation was more positively correlated with peers' smoking when the interpersonal closeness between adolescents and their peers was higher. The meta-analysis study established that peer groups often bred strong influences that dragged them into drug taking and addictions of many kinds, which in the long run, influenced the health of the individuals. These findings correlated with those of Taylor (2015) in Florida, who found out that peer pressure was at its peak among adolescents and led to immense deviant behaviour such as alcohol addiction.

The impact of peer pressure with respect to students participating in electing their leaders featured in the study of (Abdallah et al., 2020) in Lebanon. The researchers' findings opined that students were frequently dragged into problems, especially when making decisions about the students' council. Peer pressure was observed to be highly influencing students with weak stand-in choosing a particular leader. It was deduced

that peer pressure moderately influenced student elections in Lebanon, although the study's scope was based on universities.

In the Philippines, student peer pressure in schools was similar to the report by Gibbons and Telhaj (2012) where its influence on students' academic performance was investigated. This was also clear in the study of Vangie et al. (2019) who found out that adolescents were at a higher tendency of being carried, with particularity, a special focus on the causes of peer pressure such as curiosity; parenting, and seeking for belongingness. It was found out that peer pressure contributed both positively and negatively towards the high school student's performance. These findings correlate with those by (Liu et al., 2017 & Taylor, 2015).

Peer pressure influence may affect girls and boys to a different extent. A study conducted by Siraj et al. (2021) in Pakistan paid attention to the moderating role of peer pressure, although it was between sensation seeking and risk-taking. Pearson findings revealed a significant positive relationship between sensation seeking and risk-taking behaviour in adolescents. It was also clear that boys were at a greater state of being influenced to engage in risky behaviour than girls. Similarly, Mirjana (2020) observed that peer pressure among boys deeply dragged them to drug taking, especially bhang and alcohol, unlike girls.

In Africa, there lies a significant gap in the literature concerning the issues of peer pressure, education democracy and student discipline, although a few problems were reported in Nigeria (Afolabi, 2019; Fareo, 2019; Adeyemii, 2019; Esiri, 2016). In Nigeria, just like in the developed world, peer pressure was assessed about student academic performance (Gibbons & Telhaj, 2012; Liu et al., 2017; Taylor, 2015). Afolabi (2019); Fareo (2019); Adeyemii (2019) study paid close attention to this matter.

Results show that peer pressure significantly deterred students' academic performance, physical wellbeing and social behaviour. Despite that, Fareo (2019) established a relationship between peer pressure and academic achievement as the other researchers, (Faroe, 2019) concluded a significant difference between the academic achievement of male and female students about the peer pressure issue. Parents and school peer counsellors were stressed to be in the frontline in addressing students' behavioural issues in Nigerian schools. Limitations were however, noted that in the studies, the influence of peer pressure on academic performance was investigated in line with one subject area coverage. For Fargo's study, only four secondary schools participated in the study, a situation that may deter the generalized findings to other subjects and areas.

Esiri (2016) established that peer pressure among students bred criminal behaviour in Nigeria. These sanctions for non-conformity include ridicule, mockery, ostracism, mayhem and assault. Since peer pressure was deemed an agent issue, the study recommended grassroots solutions by governmental action so that peace and stability might be experienced. It was, however, unclear concerning the urgent possible courses of action that were to be implemented.

Locally, there is an absence of studies on the moderating role of peer pressure on the relationship between education democratization and student discipline in secondary schools. Peer pressure negatively influences the discipline of secondary school students, just as it was observed globally and in other African countries. Owing to the global findings, which revealed a significant relationship between peer pressure and student discipline, earlier researchers observed similar observations in Kenya (Gibbons & Telhaj, 2012; Vangie et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Taylor, 2015). The studies by Onsonti (2017) and Kimani (2013) revealed that peer pressure influence was deeply entrenched among secondary school students and largely contributed to students'

indiscipline. Indiscipline acts evident in the schools were drug and substance abuse, truancy and irresponsible sexual behaviour. However, the study by Onsonti (2017) was limited in scope where only form two students were involved in the study. This limited the generalization of the findings. Kimani (2013) as well was most concerned about the school based-factors that influenced students discipline; hence, the issue of peer pressure was superficially mentioned. Kimani (2013) and Okundi (2020) echoed that student indiscipline was intense in public secondary schools where peer pressure was more evident. It was linked to school drop-out rates, drug-taking, disrespect for authority and absenteeism. Similar findings were reported by Omollo and Yambo's study of 2017 in Migori County.

A study by Murage (2014) focused on the democratic election of student leaders in public secondary schools. It was clear that where elections were fair, students obeyed and listened to the leaders they elected on their own. It was discovered that the student council possessed significant influence towards fellow students, particularly in imparting discipline. These findings had little bearing with the findings of (Abdallah et al., 2020) in Lebanon. However, the moderating role of peer pressure on students electing their leaders and student discipline was overlooked.

It is clear that from the reviewed studies that peer pressure to a more significant extent influences student behaviour in secondary school. However, there is a shortage of literature about how stress influences education democracy in secondary school learners. Specifically, there were no studies noted to have explored the moderating effect of peer pressure on education democratization aspects and student discipline, hence the need for the current study.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a ‘blue print’ of an existing theory that can be borrowed by a researcher for being related to respective field of research (Adom, Adu - Agyem & Hussein, 2018). It idealizes the research process from the topic to data analysis (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). The impact of education democratization on the discipline of students can be explained from different perspectives. The study was guided by three theories as discussed below.

2.8.1 The Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura developed the social learning theory in 1977. The theory argues that human behaviour is learnt through modelling. Bandura expounded that children code behaviour they observe from the surrounding environment, which influences their actions and behaviour greatly. According to this theory, children are surrounded by many influencing models such as parents, teachers, television characters, and peer group members. These models exhibit various behaviours, and children are likely to imitate what they pick from the models, either appropriate or inappropriate. For example, Bandura theory suggests that a child who sees acts of kindness and care, hostility or aggressiveness from parents tends to reciprocate through imitation and observation. Conversely, a child who has seen parents' aggressive behaviour is likely to be violent in solving problems. The theory, therefore, emphasizes that behaviour is learnt in social institutions, and the environment can influence it either positively or negatively.

Bandura explained that rewards and vicarious reinforcements, and others influence imitation to a great extent in social learning theory. That is to say, for example, a child observing someone being rewarded for particular conduct may be influenced easily to

take up the behaviour that was rewarded for. Therefore, most likely, people around a child's environment, including peers, parents, relatives, teachers and even social media models, determine one's behaviour. This clearly explains why students take to striking to communicate their anger and needs in schools, a character they could have observed from their teachers when they go on strike demanding their rights; after all, they usually get their demands. This is critical in underpinning the students' discipline (the dependent variable). The theorist as well unveiled that self-regulation of discipline was a means to control and suppress undesirable behaviour.

Osofsky (1995) supported Bandura's argument, who claimed that children learn aggressiveness and violence as a means to seek attention and control in families and institutions, especially when the perpetrators go unpunished. Consequently, it was in line with the idea that children who watch television programs depicting nasty sexual behaviour or violence and disrespect for authority becomes the genesis for most deviant behaviour in schools, such as striking, sexual harassments and other illicit acts. Moreover, Najoli et al. (2019) and Omote et al. (2015) also adopted this theory.

This theory was relevant to the study because it emphasizes secondary schools to provide an appropriate environment for teaching and learning and moulding appropriate behaviour and conduct. Moreover, because it sheds light on how behaviour can be learnt and imitated, it addresses the issues of corporal punishment in public secondary schools to enforce discipline. The use of aggressive mechanisms of rectifying unacceptable behaviour usually becomes the breeding ground for students' strikes, violence, and other misconduct as a means of enforcing their positive communication.

Bandura as well suggested self-regulation as a means to controlling actions. Based on this, public secondary schools should mitigate negative peer pressure and influences by encouraging students to be themselves instead of seeking acceptance from their peers.

Teachers should also be good role models in the school environment to foster positive behaviour.

Besides, the theorist emphasizes that, in order to suppress undesirable behaviour, punishment should be administered fairly and promptly. This implies that teachers should adhere to its implementation guidelines and not go overboard by adopting the appropriate disciplinary strategies such as guidance and counselling, and parental involvement when discussing student discipline issues. Furthermore, teachers should use motivation to influence other students to copy good behaviour such as piety by rewarding and recognizing good behaviour among the students.

2.8.2 The Social Systems Theory

Ludwig Von Bertalanffy, who was a Biologist, propounded the social systems theory in 1968. Ludwig Von Bertalanffy draws his argument from an analogy of an organism constituting an integrated system of interdependent structures and functions. The theorist stipulated that an organism constitutes cells that are composed of molecules. All these constituents are required to work harmoniously towards a specific goal. Ludwig emphasized that each molecule must know what the other is doing, be capable of receiving messages, and be disciplined to obey to achieve the common goal.

The theorist relates the organism to an organization that is comprised of systems and different sections or parts, known as sub-systems. These sub-systems are interrelated, interdependent, coordinated in functioning and geared towards attaining some common goals. For the system to achieve the common goal, it receives inputs from the environment, referred to as the supra environment. The common role of the system is to transform the inputs obtained from the supra environment into finished products.

Therefore, drawing from the analogy, secondary schools are the social systems. This observation is founded on the fact that Okumbe supported Ludwig's analogy that the social systems theory was drawn from the social theory to underpin organizational behaviour. Conversely, secondary school institutions receive students, teachers, parents, non-teaching human resources, financial resources, among others, from the environment. Thus, the institutions transform students into responsible, knowledgeable and skilled members of the society just as the system transforms its inputs.

Public secondary schools have principals, teachers, student councils or leaders/representatives, support staff who engage in various tasks towards achieving student learning. As the theory's founder argued, the sub-systems possess distinct properties in specialization and scope of responsibilities. However, not even a single of them is superior or inferior to the other. On the contrary, the units perform unique but complementary roles to attain the common goals of the system. This means that, although the principal is higher in rank in terms of the administrative role, the student councils cannot be belittled since it works inter-dependably to complement the achievement of student discipline in public secondary schools. This alludes that the malfunctioning of one unit deters the functioning of the whole institution. Moreover, a change at one point triggers a chain of events that affect the entire system; this is referred to as the spill over effect or the concept of multiple causations.

This explains why student unrest may lead to the destruction of property and life simply because the principals became the controller, planner and coordinator while underestimating the power of student councils. Taking the principal as the figurehead, there is a need to carry out the division of labour, invest in stakeholder involvement and clearly define the scope of responsibilities to be partaken by each group of individuals.

The theory is very significant in the study since it underpins student participation and involvement with specific emphasis on student councils, student participation in BOM meetings, and engagement in decision-making. The schools' principals should share autonomy by delegating roles and responsibilities to the student council. This means that student representative councils should have a stake in the decision-making process. There is a need for smooth two-way communication channels to facilitate proper coordination and communication among the institutional units. This may be achieved by using student leaders as communication channels who represent the students' voice in managerial meetings such as PA, BOM and other administrative meetings.

Moreover, the theory advocates for student involvement in important matters that affect them such as coming up with school rules and regulations. It also addresses essential facets such as student leaders being aware of their roles and responsibilities. This will enable them to act responsibly towards achieving the common goal, which is student discipline. However, it is also clear that this cannot happen without engaging student leaders in training and induction programs to equip them with skills relevant for their leadership positions.

The theory recognizes the need for interdependence of stakeholders in organizational effectiveness. This broadens the theoretical lens for viewing organizational behaviour that can be achieved through the harmonious collaboration of principals, support staff and students' representatives. All these stakeholders should work inter-dependably to achieve desirable students' discipline in public secondary schools.

2.8.3 The Social Factor Theory

Mead propounded this theory in 1970. According to this theory, both the individual and society cannot be separated from each other since both are created through social

interaction; however, neither can be understood independently. Furthermore, the individual is found within a society that is changing rapidly. Mead's theory has two sets of sides or phases, according to Matsueda (2006), and these are: 'me' and 'i'. 'Me' is the socialized aspect of the individual acquired through learned behaviour, attitudes, and expectations of society, while 'I' is the present and future phase of the self. Mead argued that the social self is based on social interactions and not logical or biological preconditions of that interaction.

The theory also believes in five central ideas of symbolic meaning. First, it implies that human beings must be understood as social individuals. These rational beings do not specifically feel their surroundings but rather describe the circumstances in which they place themselves. Moreover, the origin of human behaviour is the product of what happens in our present circumstance, and lastly, human beings are active beings concerning their environment. The theorist, therefore, sheds light that indiscipline is due to the rapidly changing society. This implies that the way schools respond to issues should also change in response to the shifting needs of students. The clamour for democracy that is sweeping across the world is not obscure to students. Therefore, schools should involve students in school affairs, such as choosing students' leaders and determining their discipline.

The social factor theory is relevant to the study because, according to Mead, there is a relationship between the discipline of an individual and the social aspect of the environment, which according to the underlying argument are acquired through democratic participation and communication. Mead argues that students may disagree with teachers and parents without loss of affection, self-respect, or emotional stress. This is what democratization of education is all about. The use of education

democratization led to learners' involvement in making decisions in all activities affecting them, which made them own the decisions made. In conclusion, the theory advocates for buying in education democratization, which is revolutionary shaping the world, and the students are not an exception. The study focused on banning corporal punishment, involvement of students in electing their leaders, participation of students in BOM meetings, and involvement in decision-making in matters relating to their welfare issues, which were prominent forms of education democratization in Kenya.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

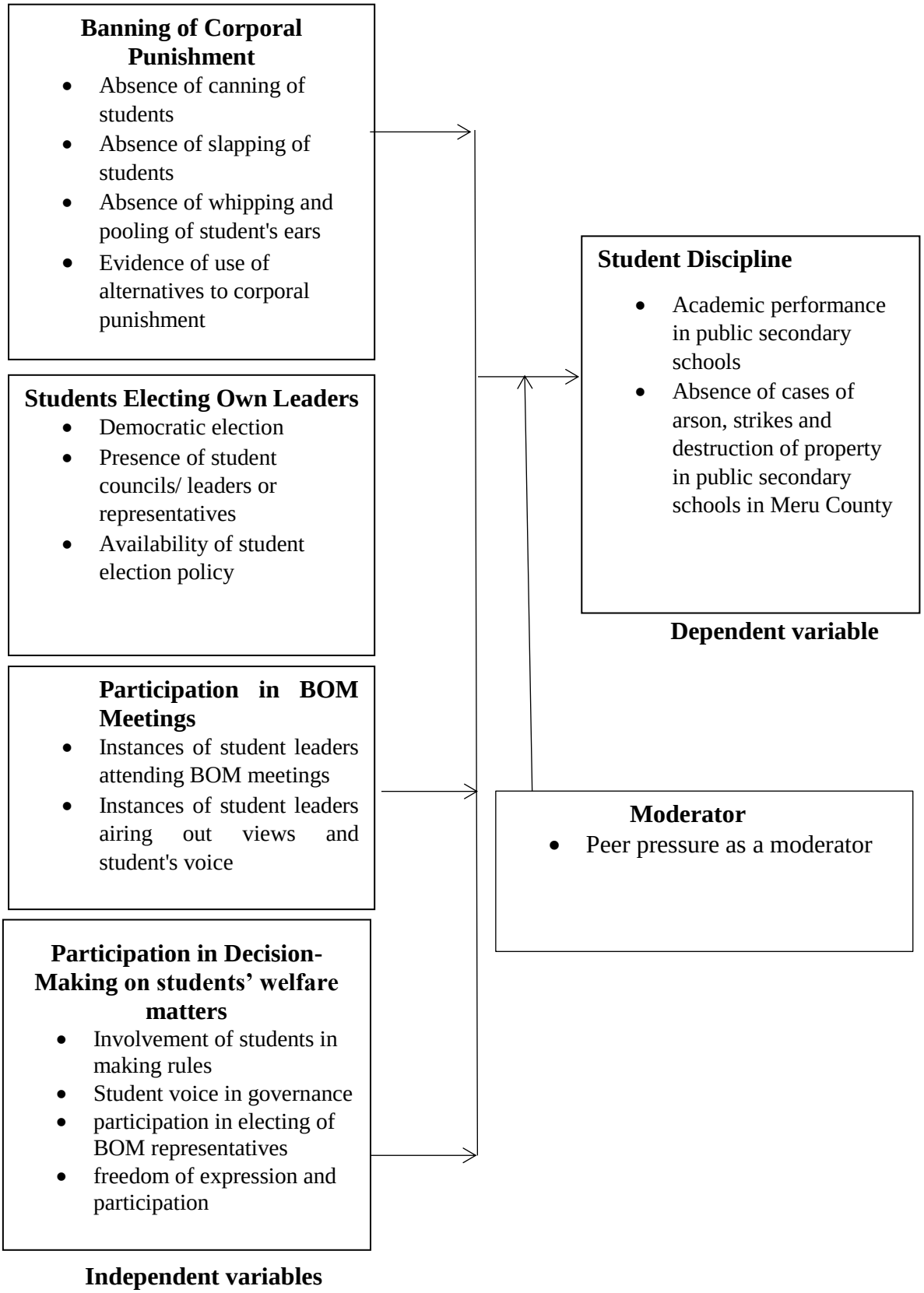
According to Akpabio and Uyanah (2015), a conceptual framework is a set of major variables and their indicators within a phenomenon. It is used to structure subsequent presentations. According to Sacksteina and Slonimsky (2017), this framework assists researchers in framing research tools and creates coherence throughout the study and catalyses visualization of items that are worthy of focus. The foundation of conceptual framework is literature review (Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Quillin and Thomas (2015) discusses that conceptual framework consists of relationships of variables with guiding arrows that offer guidelines for reasoning and analyses. Every study has variables that guide its action and analysis. Laura et al. (2014) and Namazi (2016) adds that everything that undergoes measurements in a study is called a variable.

There are two broad categories of variables: independent and dependent variables. Other variables such as ‘treatment’, ‘intervention’, ‘predictor’, and ‘risk factor’ are essentially synonyms for independent variable. ‘Response’ and ‘outcomes’ are synonyms for the dependent variable. ‘Extraneous’, ‘nuisance’, and ‘confounding’ variables are terms for intervening variable. An intervening, mediating, and moderating variable is one that interferes with the establishment of the relationships between

independent and dependent variables (Laura et al., 2014). The study comprised of four independent variables and one dependent variable. The information provided in Figure 2.1 described the relationship between the variables.

Figure 2.1

Conceptual Framework



2.9.1 Description of variables in the Conceptual Framework

The independent variables in this study were banning corporal punishment, students' involvement in electing their leaders, involvement of students' representatives in BOM meetings, and Students' participation and involvement in decision-making on students' welfare matters such as academic, social, and catering issues in Meru County. Banning corporal punishment was evidenced by the absence of whipping, slapping, pouring of cold water on students, canning, and pulling students' ears. Moreover, policy documents addressing the banning and suggested alternatives to the same served as empirical evidence to the banning of corporal punishment.

The second objective on student involvement in electing their leaders was indicated by critical features such as the presence of student councils, student leadership, and representatives replacing the prefect system in Meru County public secondary schools. Moreover, regulatory and statutory framework depict awareness of the operational structures. The participation of student leaders in BOM meetings was characterized by the availability of policies addressing the level of students' participation, student leaders' representative participation and involvement in administrative meetings.

The presence of school barazas determined the involvement and participation of students decision-making on students' welfare matters, student forums and suggestion boxes where students speak their minds, involvement in making rules and regulations, consultation for students' views concerning meals to be offered, participation in electing BOM representatives and participation of students in electing their leaders.

Student discipline was the main issue in the study. The education democratization constructs could influence the dependent variable under study negatively or positively.

Student discipline was characterized by the absence of student riots, strikes, arson cases, and general poor academic performance of public secondary schools in Meru County.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains how the research was conducted. It describes the location of the study, research philosophy and design, target population, sample and sampling method, data collection tools, validity and reliability, and data analysis methods.

3.2 Location of the Study

The study was carried out in Meru County, Kenya. The county of Meru comprises eleven administrative sub-counties, with the county headquarter being in Meru town. These sub-counties are Imenti south, Imenti central, Imenti North, Buuri west, Buuri east, Tigania west, Tigania East, Tigania central, Igembe south, Igembe central and Igembe north. Meru County, as illustrated in appendix 8, bounders several counties, including Isiolo, Tharaka Nithi, Kitui, Laikipia and Nyeri. Kindiki (2009) observed that cases of learners' unrest have been on the rise in Meru County for the last ten years. Kiplagat and Oruko (2015) who tasked the Meru County leaders to check on escalating rates of secondary school students' unrest, also noted these observations. These unrests have led to loses due to massive property damage and time wastage. This justifies the choice of Meru County as the location of study. According to Aboo (2016), Meru County was chosen because the region has experienced the highest rate of public secondary school students' unrest in the country. It was also clear that there has been no previous research undertaken to assess the effect of democratization of education on the discipline of students in public secondary schools in this region.

3.3 Research Philosophy and Approach

Research philosophy outlines the belief, lenses, and stances on how legitimate knowledge is determined or derived from phenomena under investigation (Saunders, 2016; Creswell, 2009). It provides a general picture of how reality is viewed and how legitimate knowledge is created (Walliman, 2011). Research philosophy helps the researcher visualize research ideas and hence identify methodologies and detailed steps/processes on how data is collected, analysed, and integrated to generate knowledge (Walliman, 2011). There are five research paradigms commonly used in research. These are realism, post-modernism, positivism, pragmatism and interpretivistism (Fletcher, 2016; Saunders, 2016). A research philosophy adopted in a study underpins the selection of a research approach and further help to select appropriate research design.

This study adopted a pragmatic philosophical worldview due to its flexibility in choosing and applying appropriate methodologies in solving a known research problem. According to Bryman (2012), pragmatism as a philosophy emphasizes flexibility of the methods and techniques used to investigate a research problem. The methods and techniques used in the investigation justify the research approach adopted to understand the deeper domain of knowledge about a given phenomenon (Creswell, 2009). Students' discipline was at the centre of this study; hence, the flexibility in the choice of methods and techniques for investigating this problem was paramount in order to understand its linkage with democratization processes adopted in secondary school education.

Considering that, flexibility was essential in understanding how democratization of education was influencing students' discipline, and the mixed methods research

approach was hence adopted. This meant that qualitative and quantitative approaches were utilized in data collection, analysis and in deriving conclusions (Creswell, 2014). There are three approaches commonly used in research. These are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003; Bryman, 2012). Notably, the study was predominantly quantitative, considering that it was guided by an established theory and research hypotheses to validate, reject or modify them. However, the process of validation, rejection or modification required explanatory justification information, which in this study was gathered using observation, document analysis and interview; hence, effective, and appropriate triangulation. A good example was the need to understand why schools were not involving students' representatives in the BOM meetings. The study also wanted to understand the electoral processes adopted in school. The narrative given by various participants helped to understand whether democracy had been entrenched in the electoral process.

The process of combining data from both quantitative and qualitative approaches utilized the embedded design. This is because; both qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously. Collected data were analysed separately, but qualitative data was regarded as supportive and primarily helped to explain the quantitative data. With the adoption of a mixed-method approach and considering the hypothesis tested, the study applied a descriptive correlational research design.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is a blue print used in integrating all the components of a study logically in order to address a problem (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018). The commonly used designs in social sciences are correlational, experimental, descriptive survey and phenomenological (Qutoshi, 2018: Bhat, 2019; Khan Academy, 2019). Research

design can also be described as a model or scheme used to provide a solution to a research problem (Creswell, 2014). Research designs are procedures and plans, which facilitate a researchers' decision-making process to deal with assumptions to come up with tangible solutions to the research problem and provide direction to the research study (Schindler, 2019). Similarly, Kothari (2014) suggests that a research design requires the arrangement of requirements for collecting and analysing the data appropriately and incorporating significance to the research purpose and economy in the process.

This study adopted the descriptive correlational research design. The descriptive technique in this context is a means of gathering data by questioning several people in a real-life situation (Creswell, 2014). In correlational design, variables are related statistically, to predict the magnitude of one variable, based on the information available on the other (Kalla, 2011). Therefore, the correlational research design assesses two or more constructs to determine whether a statistical relationship between them exists. The design enables a researcher to determine the extent to which one variable change because of the other (Creswell, 2014) scientifically. In this study, democratization of education was assessed in consideration of how it affected the students' discipline in public secondary schools.

The collected data comprised opinions, attitudes, preferences, and perceptions of respondents and this made descriptive design to be the most suitable technique for this study. The said views were collected in form of sentiments. They were computed and consolidated to constitute four composite independent variables; namely, banning of corporal punishment, students electing their leaders, participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students' leaders in decision

making on their affairs. These four independent variables characterized the democratization of education, which were hypothesized to have an effect on the students' discipline in public secondary schools. Therefore, a correlational design, which is descriptive in nature, was the most suitable in this study. As such, observation, document analysis interview and questionnaires were jointly used to collect the required data. Adopting this design further enabled the researcher to collect and analyse the data as it existed in different public secondary schools in Meru County. Although the researcher cannot control variables compared to experimental design, the correlational design is cheaper and less time-consuming. Moreover, it enabled cross-examination of observed patterns in the democratization processes in determining the students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

3.4 Target Population

Population refers to all cases of people and organizations or institutions, which possess certain characteristics that reflect the purpose of the study (Schindler, 2019). A target population consists of the narrower and refined group from general population, from which the researcher wishes to generate research results (Asiamah, et al., 2017; Mack, 2019). The target population in this study was the public secondary schools. Information was gathered from principals, deputy principals, and students in year four. The use of principals and deputy principals in the study was informed by the fact that they are concerned with students' discipline, which is the primary concern. Form four students were chosen because they were more experienced in school and had stayed longer than the other classes; hence, they were expected to be more objective and resourceful in providing the required information.

For this study, the public secondary schools were grouped into the following categories: national schools, extra-county schools, county schools and sub-county schools. According to the Meru County Director of Education Office (2020) data, Meru County had 395 public secondary schools. This implied that the number of principals and the deputy principals in charge of discipline in the school were also 395. In Meru County, the public secondary school students' population was 118,791 out of whom 24,259 were form four students.

3.5 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

A sampling technique is a method of selecting subjects from a target population, to act as a sample for a study (Atitwa, 2013). Two broad categories exist. These are non-probability and probability sampling techniques (Wilson, 2010; Uprichard, 2011). According to Bryman (2012), non-probability sampling is a technique where some units in a population are more likely to be selected than others are. Units are deliberately selected to reflect the characteristics of the target population (Ritchie & Lewis, 2012). Four methods of sampling exist in this technique. These are; judgmental/purposeful (researcher's judgment on the best respondents); convenience/accidental (convenience in accessibility), snowball (identifying and using individuals as brokers for data collection); and, quota (stratified sampling, causing stratums of the target population by use of demographical variables) (Uprichard, 2011; Khan, Reddy & Rao, 2015; Vehovar, Toepoel & Steinmetz, 2016).

On probability sampling, this technique has less risk of bias and it enables one to make inferences from information about a random sample of the target population from which it was selected (Bryman, 2012). Four types of probability sampling techniques exist. These are; stratified (homogenous groups, each with similar characteristics); Cluster

(geographical demarcations); Multi-stage (taking further samples from clusters); and, simple random (equal chances of selection through fish bow draw or computer program) (Uprichard, 2011; Etikan & Bala, 2017).

The number of participating public secondary schools was calculated using the formula given by (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003) for a population less than 10,000, that is,

$$nf = \frac{n}{(1+n/N)}$$

Where:

nf = desired sample size when the population is less than 10000

n = sample size (when population is greater than 10000) = 384

N = estimate of population size =395

Using this formula, the number of public secondary school participating in this study will be:

$$\frac{384}{1 + 384/395} = 195$$

Using the same formula, the number of deputy principals taking part in this study will be:

$$\frac{384}{1 + 384/399} = 195$$

Therefore, the study was carried out in 195 public secondary schools, and involved 196 deputy principals, and 384 form four students; that is, two students from each sampled school. In order to have proper representation, each of the sampled schools had two students. The stratified technique of random sampling was applied in selecting schools

from each category. The individual deputy principals in charge of discipline from each sampled school were purposively selected, while a simple random sampling was applied to get student leaders respondents.

A sample size of twelve principals was considered sufficient for the interview session. According to Ritchie and Lewis (2012), an interview of a homogenous group requires only 12 interviewees to reach saturation. The saturation point is reached in a situation when you are no longer getting any new information from each subsequent interviewees. Schindler (2019) also supported this argument, which stipulated that a sample of 12 interview participants from a homogenous population is enough to reach generalization.

The twelve principals were drawn from each category of schools. Five participants came from the sub-county schools; three from county schools (one boy's school, one girl's school, and one mixed school from each of the aforementioned two categories); two participants from extra-county schools; and two from national schools; in which one boys' school and one girls' school was considered for each of these two categories.

The form four class was purposively sampled for this study. This is because the class was considered mature and more objective in giving required information on the effect of education democratization on the discipline of students than their colleagues. Being in the school longer than other classes, the four students were regarded as very resourceful in providing the information sought by this study. The use of purposive sampling is suitable for this study because, according to Robinson (2014), the sample chosen fulfils the criteria of objectivity and is chosen for intensive study and understanding a given phenomenon. Dudovsky (2015) also concurs with Lisa that purposive sampling also referred to as a judgemental sampling technique, saves money

and time and is easy to manage. The list of form four students; leaders was gotten from the principals' office in each sampled schools. Two students' leaders from four class were selected through systematic random sampling, using the sampled school list. This information has been summarized in Tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4.

Table 3. 1

Distribution of schools per Sub-County

Sub County	National Schools	Extra-County schools	County Schools	Sub-County Schools	TOTAL
Igembe N	00	01	04	27	32
Igembe C	00	03	03	35	41
Igembe S	00	02	01	22	25
Tigania E	00	00	07	18	25
Tigania W	00	01	12	37	50
Tigania C	00	01	05	20	26
Imenti N	01	03	08	33	45
Imenti C	00	03	10	32	45
Imenti S	01	06	20	43	70
Buuri W	00	01	01	12	14
Buuri E	00	03	04	15	22
TOTAL	02	24	75	294	395

(Source: CDE Meru County, 2020)

By categorizing public secondary schools per sub-county, the study was able to ensure that each sub-county was well represented in the proportional computation of the sample size of schools. The students' population from each school was then obtained. The same was organized according to the sub-counties that were available in Meru County. The spread of students population across the eleven sub-counties is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2

Distribution of students per Sub- County

Sub County	National Schools	Extra-County schools	County Schools	Sub-County Schools	TOTAL
Igembe North	00	708	1,133	8,552	10,393
Igembe South	00	1,928	403	5,308	7,639
Igembe Central	00	2,865	844	11,119	14,828
Tigania East	00	00	2,111	4,933	7,044
Tigania West	00	1,056	5,087	6,793	12,936
Tigania Central	00	791	1,276	4,988	7,044
Imenti North	1,580	2,811	2,719	6,134	13,244
Imenti Central	00	1,894	4,243	6,574	12,711
Imenti South	1,184	5,676	8,006	8,835	23,701
Buuri West	00	560	434	2,951	3,945
Buuri East	00	1.243	575	3,477	5,295
TOTAL	2,764	19,532	26,831	69,664	118,791

(Source: CDE Meru County, 2020)

As shown in Table 3.2, there were 118,791 students in public secondary schools in Meru County. In this study, the specific units of observations were the form four students. The spread of the form four students across the eleven sub-counties is shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3. 3

Distribution of form 4 students per Sub County

Sub County	National Schools	Extra-County schools	County Schools	Sub-County Schools	TOTAL
Igembe N	00	143	228	1,604	1,975
Igembe C	00	501	174	2,024	2,699
Igembe S	00	403	75	976	1,457
Tigania E	00	00	539	939	1,478
Tigania W	00	283	990	1,451	2,724
Tigania C	00	171	290	867	1,328
Imenti N	322	575	517	1,613	3,027
Imenti C	00	460	847	1,274	2,581
Imenti S	205	1,188	1,575	1,930	4,898
Buuri W	00	126	112	622	860
Buuri E	00	103	366	763	1,232
TOTAL	527	3,953	5,713	14,063	24,259

(Source: CDE Meru County, 2020)

Having obtained the number of form four students per sub-county, the next step was to compute the required proportional sample size. The spread of the computed proportional sample size across the eleven sub-counties is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3. 4

Distribution of sample schools per sub-county

Sub County	National Schools	Extra-County schools	County Schools	Sub-County Schools	TOTAL
Igembe N	0	1	2	13	16
Igembe C	0	2	2	16	20
Igembe S	0	1	1	10	12
Tigania E	0	0	4	8	12
Tigania W	0	1	6	18	25
Tigania C	0	1	3	9	13
Imenti N	1	2	4	15	22
Imenti C	0	2	5	15	22
Imenti S	1	3	10	21	35
Buuri W	0	1	1	5	7
Buuri E	0	2	2	7	11
TOTAL	2	16	40	137	195

3.6 Instruments

Instruments in this context refer to the tools used in the collection of data. Data for this research was collected through questionnaires, interviews, observation schedules, and document analysis. The selections of these tools were guided by the nature of the data, the time available, research design, and the study's objectives. The overall aim of the study was to establish the effect of education democratization on the discipline of secondary school students. The researcher was mainly concerned with the views, opinions, perceptions, feelings, and attitudes of principals, deputy principals, and students, hence questionnaires and interviews. Document analysis and observation schedule were the best instruments for data collection. The combination of these tools allowed data triangulation to a very great extent. In addition, the literature reviewed in chapter two was very insightful and informed the development of specific questions in the research instruments.

3.6.1. Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a list of structured or unstructured questions guided by in this case, research objectives. It is used as a tool for collecting data about a phenomenon (Oliveira, et al., 2018). It refers to a research instrument consisting of a series of questions used to gather information from respondents. These questions are either closed or open-ended. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) observes that questionnaires are cheap and less costly, and are widely used in qualitative and quantitative research due to ease of standardization. In addition, the target population was predominantly literate, and hence they were not expected to experience trouble in filling the questionnaire.

The study had two sets of questionnaires, one for deputy principals and the other for students' leaders (see appendix 2). Each questionnaire had six parts. The first part was

on background profiles of respondents where primary data on the participants and the status of their school were captured. The other parts were labelled according to the primary constructs of the study. Most questions in the questionnaire were closed-ended, and modelled in Likert scale format ranging from one to five. However, few open-ended questions were developed to enable the respondent to provide additional information. Guided mostly by the conceptual framework, these closed-ended and Likert scale questions helped to fact-find quantitative descriptive survey data (Bhat, 2019).

3.6.2 Document Analysis

Documentary analysis is a method of data collection that compliments data collected through other tools. It also adds vital information on elements of variables that are not professionally collectable from respondents (Oliveira et al., 2018). In this study, document analysis required a thorough review of indiscipline cases reported and recorded in the school's discipline book and assessed how students attended the BOM meetings. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) argue that document analysis is an essential tool in research and a valuable part of most triangulation schemes that aim to provide a confluence of evidence that increases credibility. The required documents for this study were obtained from school discipline files and BPM meetings file. Information was collected on all forms of disciplinary cases recorded in the school. The attendance at BOM meetings was scrutinized accordingly. The disciplinary cases were hence classified as either major or minor and their causes and how they were handled. See appendix 4 for the document analysis criteria guide used.

Document analysis technique was preferred in this study because it helped to obtain unobtrusive information at the pleasure of the researcher and without interrupting the

subjects or those involved in providing information. This implies the strength of being unobtrusive. Moreover, the documents were accessed at a convenient time. The method was also less time consuming as data was compiled with ease (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). The data obtained through document analysis can be read and checked many times, and the impact of the researcher or testing method remains.

3.6.3 Observation Schedule

Observation is a way of gathering data by watching behaviour, event or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting (William & Thompson, 2004). It requires all the senses to interpret and appreciate the researcher's observations elements of interest. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016), observations allow the researcher to see for himself what people do rather than what people claim they do. It is also used to bridge the gap between what people say they do and what they do. Observation has the advantage of gaining first-hand information without the informants, hence less distortion. During the visit to the sampled public secondary schools, the investigator made several observations on the situation in the sampled schools. The researcher paid particular attention to the observable behaviour of students while in the school compound. Other parameters observed included general conduct, personal grooming, cleanliness of students, cleanliness of school compound, response to bells, and cleanliness of the class and windowpanes. This observation aimed to obtain additional information for enhancing the data, which was collected through a questionnaire. The observation guide used in this study is provided (see appendix 5).

3.6.4 Interviews

An interview schedule is a set of written down questions that the interviewer asks during an interview. It permits greater depth of respondents' thoughts, understandings, perceptions, perspectives and experiences of the phenomenon (Sutton & Austin, 2015;

Pulla & Carter, 2018; Oliveira, et al., 2018). Creswell (2014) describe interview as data collection tool commonly used in qualitative research, asking open-ended questions According to Cooper and Schindler (2011), interviews are designed to collect in-depth information on people opinion, attitudes, attributes, preferences, feelings, experiences, and knowledge. Creswell (2014) points out that interview guides are used to acquire a piece of in-depth information that helps to uncover the story behind the participant's experiences. Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. This study adapted the semi-structured interviews; and the development of the interview comprised of a series of questions that all participants answered.

According to Creswell (2014), a semi-structured interview has more advantages than structured and unstructured interviews because accurate details on the study subject can be collected, the interviewer also has direct control over the flow of details and may have the opportunity to explain specific issues during the interview process. In addition, the queries are prepared early before the interview time, which gives the researcher enough time to interrogate the questions. The interviewing process has been described by (Kothari, 2014) as very flexible. However, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) argue that semi-structured interviews may take longer, but proper planning helped mitigate this challenge.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2011), data from interviews can be collected through the phone, face-to-face interactions, or online. This study adapted face-to-face interactions. The face-to-face conversations between the researcher and the participants has the advantage of a higher response rate, more complete answers, and one has the opportunity to explain unclear questions. In addition, the researcher has the advantage of observing interviewees' body language at the time of asking questions, which further

help to get the weight of the statements. However, Saunders et al. (2009) caution that face-to-face interactions may take more time and may generate distrust on the part of the interviewees. This study overcame this shortcoming by prior planning and building trust and rapport with participants. The purpose of the study was explained, and interviewees were assured of confidentiality. To ensure completeness of the interview, specific questions were organized, and labelled according to the study's variables.

3.7 Piloting of Instruments

Pre-testing of the instruments of collecting data helps in familiarization with the administration of tools, such that sections and questions that appear vague, missing or ambiguous are improved for clarity in the actual study. Oliveira et al. (2018) recommend a pre-test sample of between 1 and 10 percent. A pre- test can be used in preparation for the main test as a "small scale version or trial run". Piloting was conducted at two public secondary schools from Tharaka Nithi County. The results obtained helped to establish the suitability, clarity and relevance of the research items. The data was also used to determine the reliability of the study.

3.8 Validity of Instruments

Validity of the instrument refers to the instrument's accuracy, meaningfulness and technical soundness (Creswell, 2014). Validity is the degree to which a research instrument generates information on the study objectives (Schindler, 2019). There are three types of commonly used validity: content (the extent to which a research instrument accurately includes all indicators of a variable); construct (the extent to which a research instrument measures the intended variable); and criterion (the extent to which a research instrument is related to other instruments that measure the same

variables). The content, construct and criterion included must be relevant to the need or gap established.

Validity determines whether the study adequately tests what it was supposed to test or whether the research findings are accurate. In other words, the research instrument helps one to identify research goals (Schindler, 2019). Consequently, validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure. It also refers to the degree to which the instrument can extract the researcher's desired knowledge. Cooper and Schindler (2011) illustrates the four significant forms of validity; namely, predictive validity, material validity and concurrent validity and construct validity.

The validity of content for this study was determined by using expert judgment. Kothari (2014) defines content validity as the degree to which the sample of an instrument measures the content that the tool is designed to measure. This is determined by using a panel of experts who judge how well the measuring instruments meet the standards. The researcher used independent education experts in the establishment of instrument validity. Their ratings and comments were very helpful in informing corrections needed before final tools were printed. The criterion validity was ensured for by creating a concrete relationship between the study instruments, and consulting tools used in past studies as discussed in chapter two.

To ensure construct validity, the reviewed literature in chapter two was consulted widely. This enabled coverage and inclusion of all the indicators of each variable of the study. Constructive criticisms from supervisors also helped to ensure all the items of the measure were included. To further ensure that face validity was evident in the research instruments, there was careful formatting of the questions to promote clarity in the tool. By administering a pre-test, all the ambiguous questions were re-visited by

either rephrasing or deleting. Statements that were likely to be misunderstood were detected and revised accordingly.

3.9 Reliability of Instruments

Reliability refers to a measurement that supplies consistent, precision, and trustworthiness results for a research (Schindler, 2011). It indicates the extent to which research is error-free and hence ensures consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument (Mohajan, 2017). Generally, there are four types of reliabilities according to (Trochim, 2006). These are: inter-rater/observer (assesses the degree to which different raters/observers give consistent estimates of the same phenomenon). Test-retest (assesses the consistency of a measure from one time to another); parallel-forms (assesses the consistency of the results of two tests constructed in the same way from the same content domain) and internal consistency (used to assess the consistency of results across items within a test).

In this study, reliability is taken as the degree to which outcomes are consistent over time and reliable representation of the studied population. If under a similar approach, the findings of the population under study can be replicated, then the testing instruments are considered accurate (Schindler, 2011). The instruments must be accurate if they are to be valid. In testing the reliability of the instrument, the test-retest technique was used. The researcher administered the instruments to representative pre-test groups. Then, the instruments were administered once more after a week. The answers obtained from the first and second trials were statistically correlated using SPSS to determine the instrument's reliability.

Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient (α) was used. Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient (α) is a measure of internal consistency that is used to test whether questions

are reliable. The main objective of this coefficient is to rate the internal homogeneity of items in a test. In order to conclude that the instruments are reliable, a threshold Cronbach correlation coefficient of 0.7 and above was adopted as recommended by (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process started by obtaining the NACOSTI research permit after being cleared by KeMU. Then, the list of all secondary schools and their contacts was obtained from CDE, Meru County. The researcher recruited six research assistants and trained them on how to administer the research instruments. The research assistants first made appointments with the participants of the sampled schools on the appropriate day for data collection. The research assistants then visited the schools during the agreed dates and gave out instruments to each of the respective selected participants personally. The questionnaires were left with the participants for one week or any other time agreed. All returned questionnaires were numbered chronologically under each category. This helped to ensure accountability on the administered questionnaires.

During the field visits, the research assistants made the observations on the indicators of students' discipline in all the sampled schools as guided by the observation scheduled (see appendix 5). In addition, observations were discussed with the school administration for mutual understanding before the process was carried out. The observations made were marked accordingly using the observation schedule (see appendix 5).

For document analysis, the researcher requested permission in advance to be allowed to peruse through the disciplinary book and BOM meetings file from each sampled school. Upon getting access to the disciplinary book and BOM meetings file, the

researcher read the recorded cases and classified each case as either major or minor. Other elements as guided by the document analysis criteria in append 4 were applied and documented in a noted book. In several instances, direct quotes of statements were recorded as written in the documents that were analysed.

The researcher personally interviewed the twelve principals. In administering the interview, the researcher sought a prior appointment with each principal. On the date of appointment, the researcher travelled to the school and carried out the interview. Each principal was requested to allow recording of the conversion using a mobile gadget. The remarks were also noted in a notebook. All respondents were verbally appreciated for sparing time for the interview.

3.11 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis is a process that is done by organizing what one has read, heard or seen, so that he/she can make sense of what has been learnt. This involves data categorization, synthesizing, search for patterns, and interpretation (Whitham & Powers, 2016). Prior to the end of the field research, attempts are made to relate the objectives of the study with the data so far collected. This move enables the researcher to identify and fill gaps that may have been overlooked (Whitham & Powers, 2016). Data accruing from most studies in social science are both quantitative and qualitative in nature (Okiya, 2008). In this study, collected data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The procedure followed in conducting each of these methods is provided below.

3.11.1 Analysis of Quantitative Data

Quantitative data is numerical in nature and mainly uses percentages and measures of central tendency to show responses to questions (Okiya, 2008). The quantitative data

in this study were analysed using SPSS version 24. For completeness and accuracy, quantitative data collected using questionnaires were first cleaned to remove the faulty and incomplete ones. This was followed by coding, data entry, and transformation to allow the large grouping set of data into categories. Finally, appropriate statistical analysis was carried out. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the analysis. The descriptive statistics such as percentages, factor analysis, and means were computed accordingly. Further, inferential statistics, ordinal logistic analysis, was used to test the study hypothesis. Finally, a combined regression analysis was conducted to test the overall effect of education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The overall logistic regression model is used is shown below.

$$\frac{P}{1-P} = b^{\beta 0+ \beta 1X1+ \beta 2X2+ \beta 3X3+ \beta 4X4}$$

Where:

$\frac{P}{1-P}$ = refers to the response variable Y, that is, the students' discipline

b = is the base of the logarithm

$\beta 0$ = is the Y-intercept, the exponentiation of log-odds

β = are the parameter estimates of the model

X1= Banning of corporal punishment

X2 = Involving students in electing their leaders

X3 = Students representatives in BOM meetings

X4 = Involvement of students in making decisions on affairs matters

Diagnostic tests such as normality, linearity, multicollinearity, heteroscedasticity and autocorrelation test were carried out to determine suitability of statistical analysis.

3.11.2 Analysis of Qualitative Data

Qualitative data is non-numerical in nature. It is usually obtained from FGDs transcripts and interviews, and comprise of words, observations, pictures and symbols (Centre for Innovation in Research and Teaching (CIRT), 2018). The thematic and content analysis technique was used on qualitative data. In reporting qualitative findings, some general statements and narratives were transcribed as recorded in the notebook and reported directly in the results, and discussion provided in chapter four. For information gathered through interviews and open-ended questions, transcripts and notes taken were analysed for common themes. The identified themes were cross-examined to identify further patterns in the information, which informed the deduction of conclusive statements. In some instances, direct quotations and narratives were reported as recorded in the notebook to promote clarity.

The discipline books and minutes of BOM meetings were analysed using the qualitative method. The content analysis technique was used in conducting document analysis. The researcher went through the documents and derived the needed information. The recorded discipline cases underwent an organization process in which coding technique was used in finding underlying ideas. This was followed by clustering and grouping of data with similar information into categories. After that, patterns were established, culminating in meaningful themes and statements. Finally, the derived themes and narratives were integrated into the quantitative data to explain a given phenomenon and support the conclusion.

The data collected through observation was entered into Microsoft Excel for quick analysis. Microsoft Excel was used because the observation process was guided by established criteria, as provided (see appendix 5). The mean score of each criterion was

computed for ease of comparison. The results of the same were integrated into the discussion. Finally, the overall results were presented using tables, charts, and narratives for better visualization of the findings; and to support the given proposition.

3.12 Ethics Consideration

Ethics are the norms or standards for conduct that distinguish between right and wrong. According to Resnik (2011), ethics is defined as the principles of conduct, which are considered correct especially those of a given professional group. Ethics help to determine the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behaviours (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). They serve as a guide to one's behaviour. Ritchie and Lewis (2012); Fouka and Mantzorou (2011) give three areas of ethics in social research as confidentiality, benefits and risks. Confidentiality is the non-disclosure of research data to other parties that may use it for their own purposes. It is enhanced in proportion with the level of risks that such exposure may cause, while benefits are clearly explained.

The researcher will be required to obtain the informed consent of all participants. Participation in this study was voluntary, and participants had the rights to withdraw from the study at any stage if they wished to do so. The participants were not be required to write their names on the questionnaire in order to seal their identity. The participants were assured that they would have the right to remain anonymous, and their individual identities and that of their schools would not be salient features in this study. All participants were assured of confidentiality, and the information given would be used for research only. Only people carrying out research knew participants' identities and data was put under lock and key and was not revealed to a third party. The researcher collected information from specific institution files, and schools were assured of a high level of privacy and confidentiality.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and discussions of the study. The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The chapter starts by presenting results on reliability, response rate, and background information of respondents. Thereafter, the results based on main variables of the study as gathered using different tools are presented and discussed accordingly.

4.1.2 Reliability Test

A pretesting of instruments was conducted as described in chapter three before the main study was carried out with an aim of establishing the dependability of research instruments in collecting reliable data. This study applied Cronbach's Alpha level of significance in determining the reliability of constructs of the study. Before carrying out the main analysis, reliability of the collected data was also determined and results summarized according to the main constructs of the study as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1

Result on reliability test

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha based on data from deputy principals	Cronbach's Alpha based on data from students
Banning of corporal punishment (X1)	0.885	0.875
Involvement of students in electing their own leaders (X2)	0.909	0.905
Students' representatives in BOM meetings (X3)	0.901	0.887
Involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs matters (X4)	0.802	0.817
Students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County (Y)	0.819	0.720
Peer pressure	.799	.841

According to results in Table 4.1, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha value is more than 0.7 for each construct, which is acceptable in social sciences (Bryan, 2014). This shows all the items of measure attached to the study variables were reliable for data analysis.

4.1.2 Response Rate

In order to satisfy the objectives of this study, data was collected mainly from deputy principals who were in-charge of students' discipline and from students' leaders. Selected principals and one County Education Officer were also interviewed to shed light on some policy issues and practices about students' discipline and democratization of education. The study had distributed 195 questionnaires to deputy principals out of which 182 (93.3%) were returned. 384 questionnaires were distributed to students from which 284 were returned, representing 74.0 per cent. All the targeted principals and the County Education Officer responded to the study. Generally, this response rate was considered adequate for a survey study (Kothari, 2009). The good response rate was

attributed to adequate preparation, and training of research assistants when collecting data from all the targeted public secondary schools.

The study was further interested in obtaining general demographic information regarding public secondary schools, deputy principals and students. The same was summarized in Tables 4.2.

Table 4. 2

Background information of public secondary schools in Meru County

Category of public secondary schools			
Category of public secondary schools	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Sub-County	131	72.0	72.0
County	35	19.2	91.2
Extra-County	12	7.7	98.3
National	2	1.1	100
Total	182	100.0	
Types of public secondary schools in Meru County			
School status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Day school	97	53.3	53.5
Girls boarding school	34	18.7	72.2
Boys boarding school	31	17.0	84.8
Mixed boarding school	20	11.0	100.0
Total	182	100.0	

Most of public secondary schools in Meru County were sub-county schools, which accounted for 72 %. There were only three national schools and a sizeable number of county schools. The majority of these schools were day public secondary schools. County Education Officer who noted that Meru County has a high number of Sub-County and day schools confirmed this information; something that was attributed to social-economic factors in the county. The study further observed that there were more girls boarding public secondary schools as compared to boys boarding and mixed boarding schools in Meru County. This pattern of enrolment is similar to one noted in Maara Sub-County, Tharaka Nithi County by Mugambi in 2014. Mugambi

observed that most of the boarding public secondary schools were girls' and mixed schools with only one boarding boys school in the sub-county. Furthermore, there were numerous day schools as compared to the boarding ones. Similarly, a comparative study by Kagendo (2018) on student participation in decision making found that 55.3% of schools in Tharaka Nithi County were mixed day schools with only one boys boarding secondary school.

The study also sought to establish years of service of deputy principals with a view to assess their familiarity and preparedness to handle students discipline matters in secondary schools. The responses were summarized and presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3

Experience of deputy principals in secondary schools

Number of years one has served as a deputy principal			Length of stay in the current station		
Years	Frequency	Percent	Years	Frequency	Percent
5 to 10 years	101	55.5	2 to 5 years	99	54.4
Below 5 years	64	35.2	Above 5 years	65	35.7
Above 10 years	17	9.3	Below 2 years	18	9.9
Total	182	100		182	100.0

Gender of deputy principals			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequencies
Male	103	56.6	56.6
Female	79	43.4	43.4
	182	100	

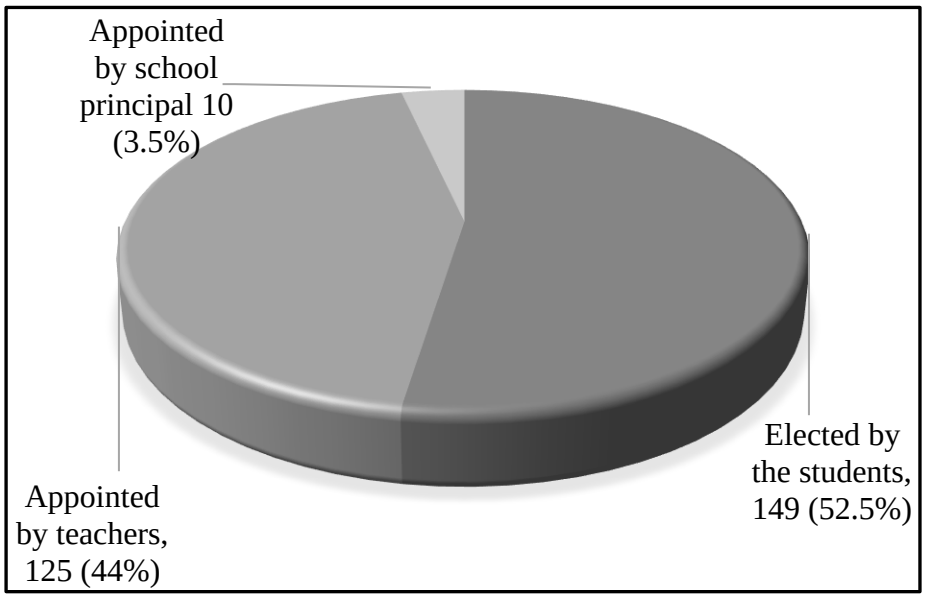
Most deputy principals in public secondary schools, 101 (55.5%) had served between five and ten years since appointment to the position of deputy principal. Majority of these deputy principals were male in gender 103 (56.6%). Only 64 (35.2%) had served below 5 years. It was also clear that the majority of respondents had stayed in their current stations between two and five years. This was attributed to the recent transfer and delocalization process by TSC. Approximately 1/3 of deputy principals had been

in their current duty station for more than five years. This information provided confidence that the deputy principals who participated in this study had requisite experience and were familiar with students' discipline issues of their current schools, and hence their opinions on all constructs are reliable. Similar observations were made by Mugambi (2014) that the deputy principals had stayed in their current workstations with a modal distribution of age 5-9 years apart from few who had stayed for over ten years in their current workstation in Igembe, Meru County.

The study was further interested in obtaining profile information of students. Notably, only students' leaders were allowed to participate in the study. Their opinions were regarded representative of all students' views. Establishment of their gender was critical in determining gender involvement in the democratization of education in public secondary schools. Information gathered indicated that among 284 students' leaders, 144 (50.7%) were men while 140 (49.3%) were female. This indicated a commendable equality in students' leadership positions in public secondary schools in Meru County. The study therefore sought to understand how students' leaders got leadership positions in their schools. The information obtained helped to determine whether the guidelines on students' government was being applied uniformly across all public secondary schools in Meru County. Practically, one can ascend to leadership position by being appointed by principals, or by teachers, and by being elected by students themselves. Results were summarized and presented in a pie chart as shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4. 1

How students' leaders gain leadership positions in public secondary schools



Despite campaigns and advocacy on democratization of education, it was surprising to note that only about half of the public secondary schools in Meru County, 149 (52.5%) were allowing students to elect their own leaders. The rest of the schools, had either their leaders appointed by teachers, 125 (44%) or appointed by the principals 10 (3.5%). Failing to involve students in electing their own leaders can make the students to perceive leaders as imposed and this is likely to elicit resistance and disobedience in students.

The findings refute the study by Mulwa et al. (2015) who observed that the most commonly used form of student involvement in decision making was the prefect system where teachers and principals' appointed who is to be representing the students in management meetings. This could have been so due to the study's' timing which was carried out after the operationalization of the Basic Education Act of 2013 that demanded students' involvement in BOM meetings. Unlike Mulwa et al. (2015) Kagendo's study of 2018 concurred with the current study. According to Kagendo,

most of secondary school students (89.5%) were electing their own student council members, while in few school teachers and the principals (10.5%) were appointing prefects to participate in the board of management meetings. Although Kagendo's study found that students selecting their own leaders was a common practice in most secondary schools, there was trouble allowing them to participate in BOM meetings. Most BOMs were noted to have continued with their previous practices.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics Results on Students' Discipline

The dependent variable of this study was students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County, which was assessed by soliciting and analysing views from both deputy principals and students on various aspects and indicators. As such, various statements related to students' discipline in public secondary schools were presented to respondents in a five-point Likert scale. Some of the key aspects on students' discipline in public secondary schools covered in the statements included classroom distractions by students, finishing of assignments, respect of students, truancy, cases of drug abuse, vigilance in attending to the allocated duties, damaging of school properties, riots, and obedience to school prefects.

All statements on the aspects mentioned above were positively stated and were measured in ordinal scale. Firstly, a factors analysis was computed to determine how each indicator of measure loaded to the composite variable. Secondly, a summated mean and the standard deviation were computed accordingly. Similarly, KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were computed to inform whether sampling was adequate to be considered in the analysis. The KMO should be greater than 0.6 while Bartlett's test of sphericity has to be less than 0.05 for satisfactory analysis to proceed.

The summated mean scores ultimately allowed for data transformation resulting to a composite latent valuable. The transformed (composite /latent values) were later used

in carrying out non-parametric tests. Due to observed variability in the descriptive results, information from deputy principals and students was not combined for the independent variables, but findings from each category of respondents were presented separately but following each other for ease of comparison and interpretation. Information gathered from principals, and observations made on same aspects of students' discipline have been provided in a coherent manner. Qualitative interview information gathered from County Education Officer was also integrated in the discussion with a view to clarifying or expounding interpretation of quantitative results.

4.2.1 Deputy Principals' responses on students' discipline

In a secondary school setting, deputy principals are the officers who are in charge of students' discipline. They enforce school rules and ensure students maintain discipline while in school. Their views were very crucial in assessing status of discipline among students. Therefore, deputies were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with various aspects of determining students' discipline in public secondary schools. Their responses were summarized in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4

Deputies' responses on aspects of determining students' discipline

Sentiments on deputies' discipline in public secondary schools (N = 182)	Factor loading	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
There is less classroom distractions in the school	.983	3.25	1.274	-.232	.180	-1.063	.358
Students in the school respect their teachers	.592	2.51	1.131	.563	.180	-.907	.358
Students are more vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties in the school	.636	2.45	1.059	.991	.180	-.050	.358
There are less cases of drug abuse among learners in the school	.447	2.38	.931	1.127	.180	.975	.358
Students in our school obey prefects	.677	2.31	1.105	.817	.180	-.328	.358
There are less cases of students staying away from the school (truancy)	.625	2.27	1.152	.782	.180	-.351	.358
Learners in the school usually finish assignment on time	.568	2.25	1.087	1.007	.180	.242	.358
There are less cases of students damaging school property	.631	2.12	.912	1.227	.180	1.736	.358
Summated mean		2.44					
KMO = .861							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

A factor analysis indicated that most aspects on students' discipline in public secondary schools loaded very well where each indicator had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with a KMO value of .861 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P=

.000). Only one mechanism, ‘there are less cases of drug abuse among learners in the school whose Eigen value (.447) was below 0.5 (Tabachinick & Fidell, 2007). This provided confidence that the loading of most aspects on students’ discipline in public secondary schools were acceptable in the analysis.

Although the majority of aspects were acceptable for analysis, most deputy principals (mean = 2.44; 88.8%) disagreed with positive sentiments on the overall discipline level of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. Only in two aspects where more than half of deputies agreed with the sentiments; that is, there is less classroom distractions in the school (mean = 3.25; standard deviation = 1.274); and students in the school respect their teachers (mean = 2.51; standard deviation = 1.131). Most deputy principals indicated that there were more cases of students staying away from school (truancy), learners failing to finish assignment on time, and that there were more cases of students damaging school property. This shows that students’ indiscipline in public secondary schools in Meru County is real and clear.

The findings from students were also organized in the order of descending mean values as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5

Students' responses on aspects of determining students' discipline

Sentiments on students' discipline in public secondary schools (N = 284)	Factor loading	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
There are less cases of students staying away from the school (truancy)	.704	3.46	.823	-.222	.145	-.183	.288
Students in our school obey prefects	.713	3.42	.779	-.177	.145	-.811	.288
There is less classroom distractions in the school	.543	3.21	1.199	.027	.145	-1.015	.288
There are less cases of drug abuse among learners in the school	.583	2.42	1.082	.648	.145	-.471	.288
There are less cases of students damaging school property	.800	2.26	.837	.956	.145	.230	.288
Learners in the school usually finish assignment on time	.867	2.20	.830	.842	.145	-.046	.288
Students in the school respect their teachers	.807	2.09	.737	1.053	.145	1.206	.288
Students are more vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties in the school	.613	2.02	.960	.916	.145	.425	.288
Summated mean		2.64					
KMO = .762							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

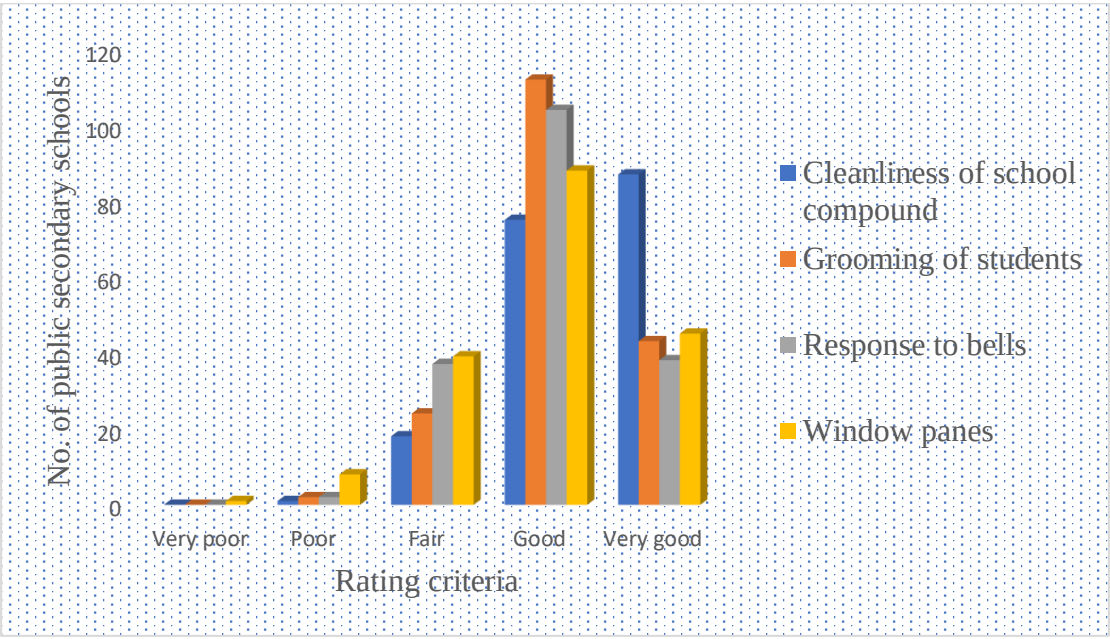
Unlike the findings from deputies, the results from students showed that all aspects of measuring students' discipline in public secondary schools loaded very well. Each indicator had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with a KMO value of .762, and a Bartlett's

test of sphericity being significant (P= .000), hence all indicators were acceptable in the analysis. Nevertheless, similar to results obtained from deputy principals, the students leadership body also indicated an issue with the level of discipline among students, (summated mean = 2.64), which is below the expected median of 3.44. This shows a slight improvement in students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

The student respondents agreed that there were less cases of students staying away from school (truancy) mean = 3.46, that they were obeying prefects, mean = 3.42, and that classroom distractions in the school were minimal, mean = 3.21. Data gathered through observation on selected metrics of discipline indicated conspicuous cleanliness of the school compound, good grooming among students, fair response to bells, and cleanliness of the windowpanes in most public secondary schools in Meru County (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4. 2

Results on observation on students' discipline based on selected metrics



Nevertheless, the observation may not have reflected the true state of affairs in the school when all students are in the compound. This is because; only form four students

were in the school during the time when data was collected due to COVID-19 pandemic.

From Table 4.7, more than half of students disagreed that there were less cases of drug abuse among learners in the schools, less cases of students damaging school property, that learners usually finished assignments on time, students respected their teachers, and students were more vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties in the school. This level of disagreement indicated a mean below 2.5, which raises a concern on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The majority of the principals interviewed also reported cases of noise making in the classrooms, refusal to take notes, disrespect for prefects, disorderliness, and lateness for classes. Many principals attributed the indiscipline to the banning of corporal punishment in schools. One principal lamented, *"The days when a teacher would walk with a cane and restore order very fast are no longer there".* Another principal said, *"Students know that even if they disobey school rules, the teachers cannot do anything"*

The data gathered from the schools' disciplinary books for the last one year further confirmed the prevalent cases of indiscipline among students of public secondary school, where most incidences mentioned in the above discussion were categorized as minor cases. There were other cases noted in the disciplinary books that were classified as major (see summary in Table 4.6).

Table 4. 6

Categorization of Indiscipline cases in Public Secondary Schools in Meru County

Minor indiscipline cases		Major indiscipline cases	
Responses	No. of cases	Responses	No. of cases
Lateness	66	Drug abuse	58
Improper dressing and untidiness	38	Violence and fighting	55
Noise making	32	Sneaking	21
Unattended duties	29	Disrespect for teachers	21
Vernacular language	29	Theft	20
Unfinished Assignments	26	Absenteeism	13
Absenteeism	17	Strikes	12
Vulgar language	15	Truancy	11
Lack of respect for prefects	10	Bullying	10
Sleeping in class	6	Carrying phones to school	8
Failure to adhere to Bells	4	Immoral behaviour	8
		Vulgar language	6
		Exams cheating	6

The minor cases included lateness (66), improper dressing and untidiness (38), noise making (32), unattended duties (29), vernacular language (29), unfinished assignments (26), absenteeism (17), vulgar language (15), and lack of respect to prefects 10 cases. Information gathered from documents further indicated various methods used by schools to address the aforementioned minor cases. The methods were administering manual punishment, guidance and counselling sessions, dialogues, involving parents, verbal warning, suspension, writing apology letters, caning, and withdrawal of some privileges in the school.

The prevalent major indiscipline cases noted were drug abuse 58, violence and fighting 55, sneaking 21, disrespect for teachers 21, theft 20, strikes 12, truancy 11, and bullying 10. The problem of drug abuse was also prominently mentioned by deputy principals in an open-ended question as being one of the major challenges affecting democratization of education in secondary schools. Kute (2014) had also reported

violence and fighting among students in USA, which was termed as one of the serious school crimes. The indiscipline cases as noted by Kiboiy (2013) include drug abuse, rudeness to other students and teachers, refusal to do punishments and absenteeism. It seemed that the major cases attracted weighty actions in most public secondary schools. The common methods of handling major cases of indiscipline across most public secondary schools were suspension, parental involvement, guidance and counselling, manual punishments, expulsion, BOM meetings, police involvement, and dialogue. The above list is mostly dominated by non-corporal punishment ways of addressing indiscipline, although the study by (Gitari, 2015) downplayed the alternatives to corporal punishment citing rampant growth of students' disrespect to teachers and prefects, and many strike cases. From the information gathered through document analysis, the cases of indiscipline among students were evident and were largely characterized by lateness, improper dressing, noise making, unattended duties, drug abuse, violence and fighting, sneaking, disrespect to teachers, theft and absenteeism. To address these cases, most schools seemed to have adopted manual punishments, guidance and counselling services, dialogues, parental involvement, expulsion, and BOM summonses in worst scenarios.

Among many factors that affect students discipline in public secondary schools, (Gitari, 2015) echoed drug and substance abuse as key cause in Igembe Central. Abur (2014) also reported that marijuana, tobacco, miraa, khuber, glue, cocaine and heroin were the most commonly used drugs, linked to deteriorating students' discipline in public secondary schools.

4.2.3 Diagnostic tests based on students' discipline in public secondary schools

The students' discipline in public secondary schools was the dependent variable in this study, hence checking of normality and linearity of the data on its indicators was very critical in informing whether to conduct parametric or non-parametric tests during the deeper assessment of the predictors. For parametric tests to be carried out, data on dependent variable should be normally distributed, and it should exhibit linearity. Skewness of data was determined, and Kurtosis values computed to determine whether data on indicators of students' discipline in public secondary schools was normally distributed.

According to information presented in Tables 4.6 and 4.7, most indicators of students' discipline in public secondary schools were not normally distributed since most of their skewness statistic values, as well as the Kurtosis values were outside the acceptable range (-2 > Skewness, kurtsis value < 2) (Doane & Sward, 2011). Attempt to standardize the data using log10 (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014) failed to normalize the data. A further diagnostic test of normality using p-values and other graphical methods were hence, conducted to check the normality conditions on the dependent variable (Y, students' discipline in public secondary schools). Results of P-values based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4. 7

Tests of normality on quality of education based on students' and Teachers' data

	Normality test based on data from deputies					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
X1	.163	182	.000	.913	182	.000
X2	.194	182	.000	.896	182	.000
X3	.235	182	.000	.867	182	.000
X4	.121	182	.000	.960	182	.000
Y	.171	182	.000	.926	182	.000
Peer	.167	182	.000	.944	182	.000
	Normality test based on students' data					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
X1	.200	284	.000	.906	284	.000
X2	.188	284	.000	.914	284	.000
X3	.181	284	.000	.923	284	.000
X4	.051	284	.076	.984	284	.003
Y	.081	284	.000	.961	284	.000
Peer	.132	284	.000	.938	284	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Data from deputy principals indicate significant P-value (Shapiro-Wilk) for all the study variables (Y, X1, X2, X3, X4, and peer pressure), which shows that data was not normally distributed in the population. Similarly, data collected from students indicated significant P values in all study variables. The study endeavoured to investigate the normality situation, further using histograms, Q-Q plots and box plots in order to be sure of normality status especially on the dependent variable. The findings are presented in Figure 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 based on data from deputies.

Figure 4. 3

Histograms showing normality of data on students' discipline

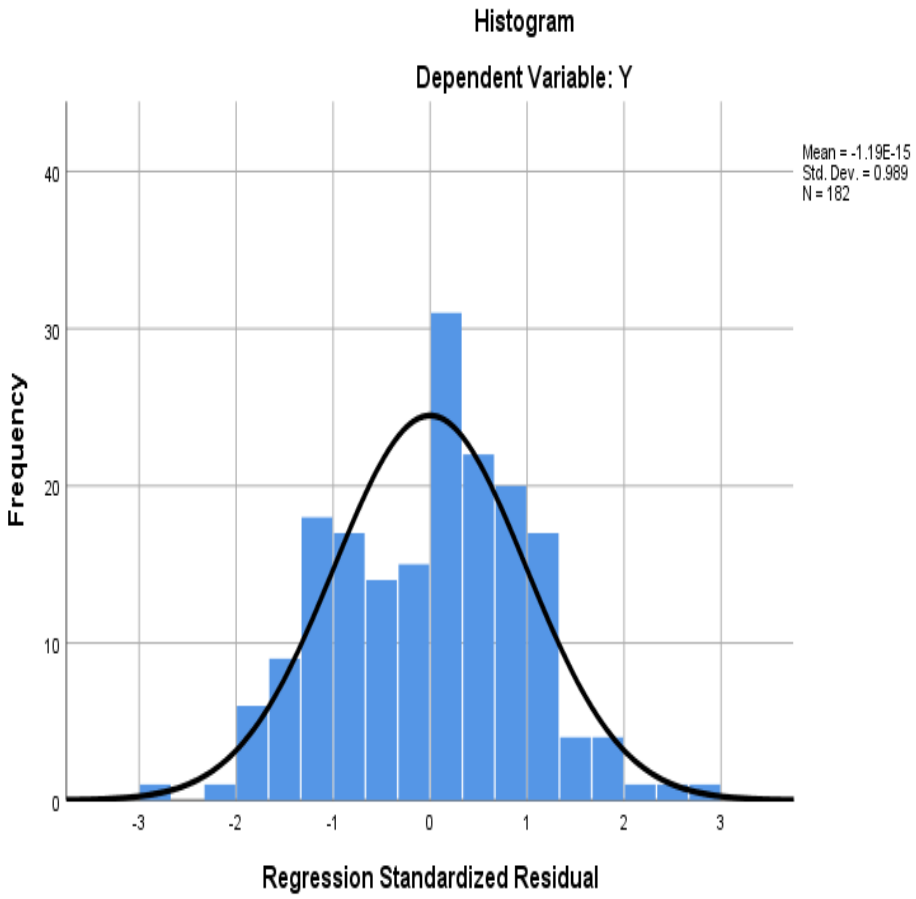
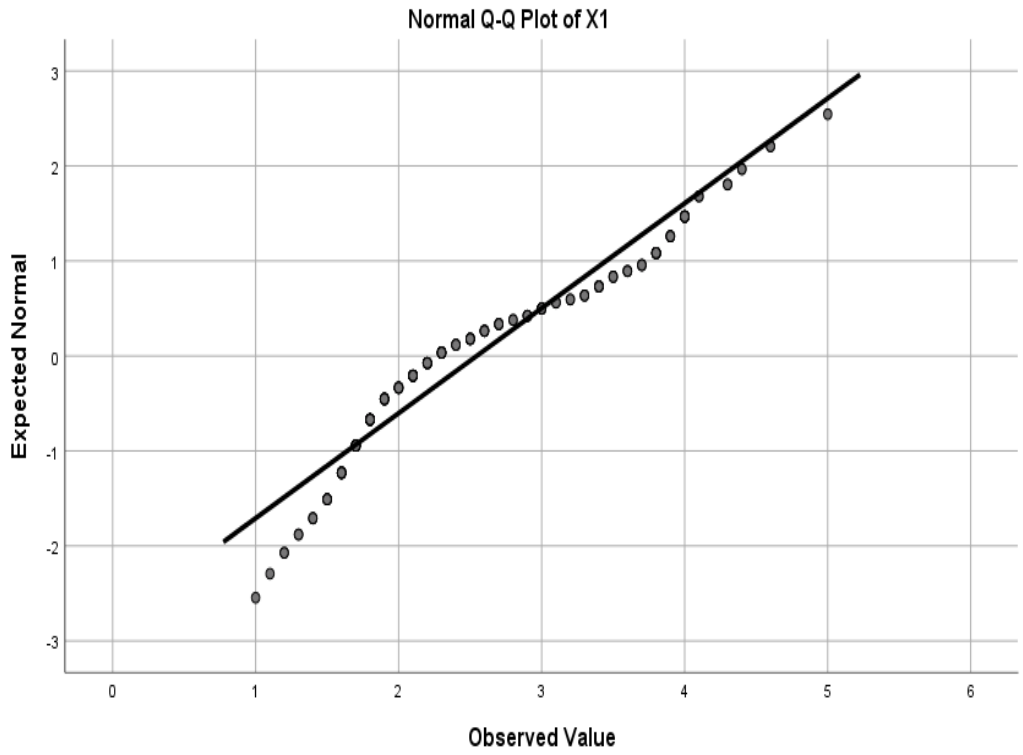


Figure 4.3 shows that data on dependent variable is skewed in both cases hence lacks normal distribution. The same was demonstrated with standard Q-Q plots found in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4. 4

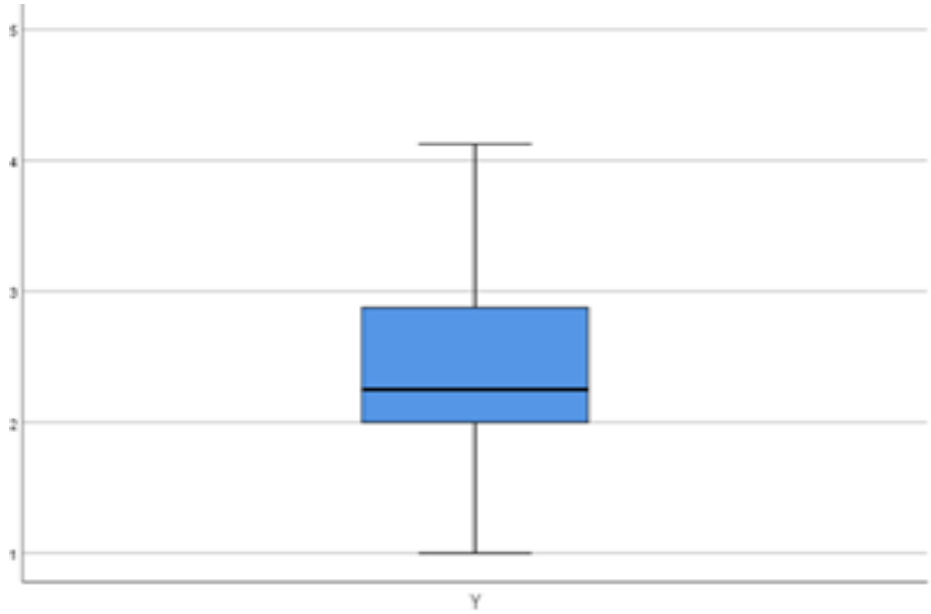
Q-Q showing normality of data on students' discipline



The normal Q-Q plot shown in Figure 4.4 indicate skewness hence data in both cases is not completely normal since some points tend to lie onside the diagonal line indicating non-normality of the distribution of data on the indicators of students' discipline in public secondary schools. Whiskers box plots were generated after removing outliers. The resulting outputs are presented in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4. 5

Box plot from deputy principals' responses on students' discipline



The Whiskers box plots in Figure 4.5 further indicate observable skewedness in the data despite the removal of outliers. In view of the foregoing results on tests of normality, the study found sufficient evidence to conclude that data was not normally distributed, hence adopted non-parametric tests such as ordinal logistic regression in exploring relationship between predictor variables and outcome variables. The study did not find the need to perform other diagnostic tests since data was not normally distributed.

4.3 Results on Banning of Corporal Punishment

The first objective sought to examine the effect of banning corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Various sentiments on banning of corporal punishment (in Likert scale ranging from 1 – 5) were presented to respondents. The sentiments primarily focused on assessing whipping of students, shaming of students, sustenance of injuries due to corporal punishment, punching of students, mob beating of undisciplined student by several teachers, and slapping.

Information gathered from deputy principals was presented first, followed by the findings from students. In both cases, the results were summarized and presented in descending order of mean values, as shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4. 8

Responses from deputy principals on banning of corporal punishment

Sentiments on corporal punishment (N = 182)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Cases of students reported to suffer from injuries of corporal punishment have reduced	.689	2.87	1.331	.202	.180	-1.372	.358
Pouring of cold water on a student as a way on punishing them has reduced in our school	.750	2.74	1.215	.594	.180	-1.017	.358
Punching of students has reduced in our school	.572	2.73	1.003	.243	.180	-1.064	.358
Mob-beating of undisciplined student by several teachers has reduced in our school	.775	2.62	1.259	.676	.180	-.855	.358
Slapping of students has reduced in our school	.660	2.47	1.106	.555	.180	-.805	.358
Students are not whipped in our school	.381	2.37	1.108	.806	.180	-.183	.358
Summation		2.63	1.170				
KMO = .829							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Data collected on this construct was somehow skewed as indicated by the skewness statistics and Kurtosis values; hence, did not exhibit normality. A factor analysis in

Table 4.8 indicates that most sentiments as perceived by deputy principals on banning of corporal punishment in public secondary schools loaded very well, where, most occurrences had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .829 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). One aspects however, did not load adequately; that is, 'students are not whipped in our school', factor loading = 3.81 which was below 0.5. The failure to load by this aspect shows some reservation by deputy principals on whipping of students in the school. Most probably, some sort of whipping was taking place in some public secondary schools.

Furthermore, all aspects of banning of corporal punishment in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.63 and standard deviation of 1.170. This meant that approximately half of deputy principals, 96 (52.6%) agreed with the aspects of banning of corporal punishment in public secondary schools. According to the majority deputy principals, three aspects of corporal punishment had reduced, these were, cases of students reported suffering from injuries of corporal punishment (mean = 2.87), pouring of cold water on a student as a way on punishing them (mean = 2.74), and punching of students in the school (mean = 2.73). Deputy Principals however disagreed that slapping and whipping of students had reduced in the school (mean = 2.47 and 2.37) respectively. This indicated that some form of corporal punishment was still taking place in some public secondary schools in Meru County. Responses from students on the same aspects of corporal punishment were sought and the findings presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4. 9

Responses from students on banning of corporal punishment in secondary schools

Sentiments on corporal punishment (N = 284)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Pouring of cold water on a student as a way on punishing them has reduced in our school	.506	2.57	1.026	.412	.145	-.624	.288
Punching of students has reduced in our school	.631	2.48	1.230	.713	.145	-.678	.289
Cases of students reported to suffer from injuries of corporal punishment have reduced	.719	2.31	1.151	.816	.145	-.408	.288
Slapping of students has reduced in our school	.720	2.18	1.077	.808	.145	-.257	.288
Mob-beating of undisciplined student by several teachers has reduced in our school	.672	2.13	1.080	.873	.145	-.083	.288
Students are not whipped in our school	.592	2.05	1.1050	.963	.145	.318	.288
Summation		2.29	1.102				
KMO = .870 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Unlike the outcomes from deputies, the findings in Table 4.9, which were gotten from students showed good factor loading on all aspects of corporal punishment. All indicators on corporal punishment had a factor Eigen value above 0.5 with an overall

KMO value of .870 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). Data collected was however, observably skewed as indicated by skewness statistics and Kurtosis values, hence, not normally distributed.

The results are showing that all aspects of banning of corporal punishment in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.29 and standard deviation of 1.102. The mean is below the expected average. This meant that an overwhelming majority of students disagreed with most aspects on banning of corporal punishment in public secondary schools. The only thing to which more than half of students agreed was that the pouring of cold water on a student as a form of punishment had reduced in the school, (mean 2.57). Most students, however, disagreed that there was reduction of slapping of students, mob-beating of undisciplined student by teachers, and that there was no whipping of students in the school. This confirmed the observations made from data gathered from deputy principals that corporal punishment was still evident in some public secondary schools in Meru County. This is because, mob-beating of undisciplined student by teachers, slapping and whipping of students were prevalent in some schools. Similar information was confirmed from the schools' disciplinary book where caning was noted as method used to address some minor indiscipline cases in some public secondary schools.

Interestingly, the forms of corporal punishment mentioned above were taking place despite its abolishment in schools in 2001 (Government of Kenya [GOK], 2005; Mweru, 2010). According to Batul (2011), corporal punishment had been banned in thirty countries, but it was still widely being used by at least twenty states in United States of America. Reasons for its continuity were not documented. Moreover, the United Nations Children's Fund [UNICEF] (2015) reported a prevalence of corporal

punishment in schools in four countries (Ethiopia, India, Vietnam and Peru) despite the practice being outlawed. Mwenda (2016) also concurred that caning and slapping of students was still prevalent in some public secondary schools in Igembe North.

The government of Kenya had abolished corporal punishment in schools and instead endeavoured the use of alternatives to corporal punishment (Koech, 2008). According to principals of public secondary schools who were interviewed, the banning of corporal punishment has dark and white sides. On the one hand, it improved the relationship between teachers and students. One principal noted, *"The abolishment of corporal punishment in secondary schools has changed how teachers are perceived by students. Teachers are now being perceived as social beings who can interact freely with students and not as disciplinarians"*. On the other hand, most principals said that students' respect for teachers has gone down. Studies such as Onditi (2018) and Onsoti (2018) had also argued that the abolishment of corporal punishment had led to serious deterioration of discipline among students in public secondary schools.

Onditi (2018) and Onsoti (2018) further argued that the alternative methods of punishment including manual work, suspension, expulsion, making a student stand, and denying of some privileges were ineffective and did not improve students' discipline level; instead, it deteriorated further since the ban of corporal punishment. The two studies recommended government intervention in allowing moderate corporal punishment in secondary schools owing to the high instances of indiscipline among students. Most secondary school principals welcomed the alternative methods of punishing students but attributed their failure to lack of good piloting of the programmes before implementation and the absence of training and orientation of the stakeholders. For example, one principal blamed the parental involvement in

addressing students' discipline saying, *"some parents support their children even when they are wrong"*. Another principal blamed dialogue as an alternative method of punishment noting difficulties in reaching consensus due to the lengthy process involved.

4.3.1 Testing of hypothesis one on banning of corporal punishment

With reference to the foregoing results and the discussion in section 4.2.3 on adoption of non-parametric test, ordinal logistic regression analysis was used to establish the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables in this study. Ordinal logistic regression analysis utilizes Chi-square in the computation. The Likert scale data set for each variable that was in ordinal form were first transformed (computed) using the summated mean. This resulted to a composite variable that was in interval (scale form). The Chi-square goodness of fit test was carried to check whether the model was fit against the fitted model where the significant value was expected to be less than 0.05 ($p = \leq 0.05$), while the Pearson value in the goodness of fit was expected to be greater than 0.05 ($p = >0.05$). In assessing the magnitude of the impact of independent variable on the dependent variable, the Pseudo R-Square, specifically, the Nagelkerke value was used to show the proportion of the variance that was explained by the independent variable on the dependent variable in the regression model.

Wald test statistic was used to test the hypotheses at a significant level of 5%. In this study, a decision was made where, if the p-value was less than or equal to 0.05 ($p = \leq 0.05$), the null hypothesis was rejected, However, if the p-value was greater than 0.05 ($p = \geq 0.05$), then, there was enough evidence to fail to reject the null hypothesis.

The first null hypothesis stated that banning of corporal punishment had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Information for testing this null hypothesis was sought from both deputy principals and students. Analysed information from both categories of respondents on fitness of the model and goodness-of-fit is presented in Tables 4.10.

Table 4. 10

Model fitting information for corporal punishment and discipline of students

D/Principals' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	812.795				.530
	Final	675.901	136.894	1	.000	
Students' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	2531.999				.532
	Final	2316.598	215.401	1	.000	
	Link function: Logit.					

Results in Table 4.10 shows P = 0.000 from both deputy principals and students, which is less than 0.05, hence, rejection of the underlying null hypothesis that, there is no significant difference between the baseline model and the final model. The baseline model (Intercept only) is the model without any independent variables (predictors) while the final model is the one with all possible independent variables. The results in Table 4.10 shows that the model has statistically significant predictive capacity, which means that, banning of corporal punishment statistically and significantly explain the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Further, the model summary shows that banning of corporal punishment predicts 53.0% and 5.32% for deputy principals and students' responses respectively, as regards the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County as indicated by the Nagelkerke R square values. However, the results are based on one independent variable; that is, the corporal punishment; hence, the inclusion of other predictors in the model may result to a high Nagelkerke R square value.

Having obtained a valid goodness of fit information, the study further sought to establish goodness of fit with the fitted model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used to determine whether a model exhibit good fit of the data, that is, it tests whether the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis state that the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. Table 4.11 shows the result on goodness-of-fit based on responses from both students and teachers.

Table 4. 11

Goodness-of-Fit for corporal punishment and discipline of students

		Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Deputies' responses	Pearson	1394.579	1585	1.000
	Deviance	524.556	1585	1.000
Students' responses	Pearson	35778.839	19737	.000
	Deviance	1958.024	19737	1.000

Link function: Logit.

The results in Table 4.13 show $\chi 2$ (df 1585) = 1394.579; p= 1.000 and $\chi 2$ (df 19737) = 35778.839, p= .000 for deputy principals and students respectively. In this case, therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that, the observed data for deputy principals is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. This means that the model

for deputy principals and not for students fit the data very well. This further implies that the data from deputies on corporal punishment is fit for predicting discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. The model based on students' data is not fit for predicting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The findings reported from students were not surprising considering that students themselves are likely to have exaggerated their views on corporal punishment; hence, the model based on data from deputy principals was considered most reliable in determining the parameter estimates of corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools. The estimates are critical in showing how this independent variable is influencing the dependent variable. The parameter estimates results based on data from deputy principals (reliable model) are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4. 12

Corporal punishment parameter estimates on discipline of students

	Responses from deputies						
						95% Confidence Interval	
	Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Location X1	2.060	.199	107.547	1	.000	1.670	2.449
Link function: Logit.							

From Table 4:12, it can be observed that a marginal increase in corporal punishment positively increases the logit of the students' discipline. This indicates that as the scores of the independent variable increases, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level on the dependent variable while holding all other factors constant. The result shows that corporal punishment is a statistically significant predictor of students' discipline, where, for every one-unit increase on the corporal punishment, there is a

predicted statistically significant increase of 2.060 (P= .000) in the log odds likelihood (logit) of falling at a higher level on the students' discipline.

Since the p-values in Table 4.10 and Table 4.12 were less than the alpha level ($p<0.05$), the first null hypothesis of this study, which stated that 'banning of corporal punishment had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County, was rejected. Subsequently, corporal punishment had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Corporal punishment on its own as independent variable accounts for 53% of variation in the discipline of students in public secondary schools. It was observed that in this study, information gathered from deputy principals (in-charge of discipline in the school) was more reliable in the prediction as compared to information from students. The overall results seem to suggest a need to moderate corporal punishment as opposed to abolishing it completely in public secondary schools, owing to its impacts on students' discipline.

The study by Mwenda (2016) also corresponded with these findings by reporting that 80% of the alternatives to corporal punishment were rarely effective in instilling discipline in students. The failure of alternative to corporal punishment was attributed to the lack of proper preparation of teachers on the same. Mwenda reported that a good number of teachers (55%) had no training on alternatives to corporal punishment. The study urged the ministry of education to intervene and develop procedures that allow moderate punishment for students in secondary schools with a view to improve students' discipline. This recommendation was not the case in Tanzania where (Laurent, 2014) reported contradicting results. Laurent noted that the more corporal punishment was used as a form of disciplining students, the more they became truants and unruly. Specifically, caning, beating and mistreatment of students bred fear in them,

hence opting not to attend schools. The study concluded that corporal punishment had adverse effects on students' discipline and on learning outcomes. Alternatives to corporal punishment including manual work, and guidance and counselling were therefore strongly recommended as ways for addressing indiscipline among students in community schools.

4.4 Results on Involving Students in Electing their own Leaders

The objective number two sought to determine the effect of involving students in electing their own leaders on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Various sentiments on involvement of student in electing their own leaders (given in Likert scale ranging from 1 – 5) were presented to respondents. These sentiments largely aimed to determine whether students were allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as per school policy; or if they were given equal/ same conditions of being elected, or supplied with electoral cards. Additionally, they sought to establish whether those students vying for various positions were given time to promote their manifestos; if those vying for various positions were given time for campaigns, got designated time for election, or were represented in the school electoral commission. Information gathered from deputy principals was presented first, followed by the findings from students. In both cases, the results were summarized and presented in descending order of mean values as shown in Tables 4.13 and 4.14.

Table 4. 13

Responses from deputy principals on involvement of student in electing leaders

Sentiments on involvement of student in electing their own leaders (N = 182)	Factor loading	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Time is designated for electoral process and election for student leaders	.656	2.51	1.131	.563	.180	-.907	.358
Student are allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as guided in the policy	.511	2.50	.973	.963	.180	.095	.358
All students vying for various positions are given equal/ same conditions of being elected	.706	2.48	1.081	.906	.180	-.307	.358
All students are presented with electoral cards to vote for student leaders of their choice	.735	2.31	.948	.959	.180	.436	.358
The school gives time for vying students to promote their manifesto	.683	2.31	.989	1.033	.180	.365	.358
Students are usually represented in the school electoral commission	.566	2.27	1.152	.782	.180	-.351	.358
The school usually sets aside time for campaigns for student vying for leadership positions	.704	2.25	1.087	1.007	.180	.242	.358
Summation		2.38	1.052				
KMO = .913							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Data collected on this construct was somewhat skewed as indicated by skewness statistics and Kurtosis values, hence, did not exhibit normality. A factor analysis in Table 4.13 indicates that most sentiments as perceived by deputy principals on

involvement of student in electing their own leaders in public secondary schools loaded very well, where, all occurrences had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .913 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). This shows that all indicators on involvement of student in electing their own leaders were weighty, and all of them were worth considering.

All aspects of involvement of student in electing their own leaders in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.38, and a standard deviation of 1.052. This meant that only 87 (47.6%) deputy principals agreed with the aspects of involvement of student in electing their own leaders in public secondary schools. According to majority of the deputy principals, only two aspects of involving students in electing their own leaders were widely practiced in most public secondary schools. These were: time is designated for electoral process and election for student leaders (mean = 2.51); and that student are allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as guided in the policy (mean = 2.50). Notably, most deputy principals disagreed that school gives time for vying students to promote their manifesto (mean = 2.31); students are usually represented in the school electoral commission (mean = 2.27); and school usually sets aside time for campaigns for student vying for leadership positions (mean = 2.25) respectively. These findings painted a picture of a weak system of involving students in electing their own leaders in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Probably, most schools focus on academic achievement and finishing of syllabus hence less time for election-related activities. Responses from students on the same aspects were analysed and the findings presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4. 14

Responses from students on involvement of student in electing their own leaders

Sentiments on involvement of student in electing their own leaders (N = 284)	Factor loading	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Time is designated for electoral process and election for student leaders	.607	2.43	1.182	.680	.145	-.642	.288
Student are allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as guided in the school policy	.558	2.42	1.082	.648	.145	-.471	.288
The school gives time for vying students to promote their manifesto	.644	2.26	1.117	.827	.145	-.331	.288
All students vying for various positions are given equal/ same conditions of being elected	.730	2.18	1.061	.970	.145	.221	.288
All students are presented with electoral cards to vote for student leaders of their choice	.605	2.12	1.095	.952	.145	.148	.289
The school usually sets aside time for campaigns for student vying for leadership positions	.711	2.09	1.097	.907	.145	-.154	.288
Students are usually represented in the school electoral commission	.622	2.01	1.052	.842	.145	-.125	.288
Summation		2.22	1.098				
KMO = .890							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Similar to the outcomes from deputies, the findings from students in Table 4.14 also showed good factor loading on all aspects of involving student in electing their own leaders. It is clear that all indicators regarding involving students in electing their own leaders had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .890 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). Data collected was however, observably skewed as indicated by skewness statistics and Kurtosis values; hence, did not exhibit normality.

The results indicated that all aspects of involving student in electing their own leaders in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.22, and standard deviation of 1.098. The mean values were conspicuously below the expected average of 2.5. This meant that there was a general disagreement (mean is below 2.5 in each case) by the majority of students on all aspects of involving students in electing their own leaders in public secondary schools. This implies that democratization of education that is expected to arise through involvement of students in electing their own leaders was less evident in most secondary schools in Meru County.

It was surprising to note that in most public secondary schools, students are rarely presented with electoral cards to vote leaders of their choice. Additionally, many schools do not set aside time for campaigns for the student vying for leadership positions; and that students are hardly represented in the school electoral commission. This indicated serious weaknesses in the democratization of electoral process in public secondary schools; hence, it can be the genesis of alienation and dissatisfaction among students. Moreover, lack of proper involvement of students in the electoral process may fathom and nurture a feeling of objection, disobedience, hostility and is likely to lead to indiscipline behavior. An earlier study done in Mombasa by Nekesa (2018)

underpinned the role of students' councils in fostering obedience, instilling motivation and creating a spirit of belongingness which go a long way in improving students' discipline in schools. Nekesa documented the criteria for electing student leaders and demonstrated how priorities ought to be given to campaigning, selling of manifestos and election itself.

Although involvement of students in electing their leaders is crucial in the democratization of education process and in addressing students' discipline, some principals also blamed it for the many cases of indiscipline witnessed in most public secondary schools. Principal number 10 explained, *"Students chose popular leaders who may be undisciplined".* Principal number 6 added, *"Sometimes students view the elected leaders as their appointees who should therefore serve them according to their own wish and not to 'betray' them".* Principal number 2 noted, *"Prefects are answerable to students who elected them and are under the mercy of students therefore they can never be strict to students".* Many principals further said that some elected student leaders mishandle their power and mandate. Some students' leaders had masqueraded dialogue that turned out to be a lecture to one of the teachers. Principal number 9 said, *"One of the form two classes decided to revoke the election of their prefect who they referred to as a dictator".* Most principals noted that the prefects who become serious in executing their duties are many times hated and disrespected and termed as dictators.

When contacted for explanation on time that students are given for campaigns and selling of manifestos, principal number 5 said;

> *"The campaigns done before election usually divide students' body into several camps depending on the number of candidates, so those who do not vote the*

winner have disrespect for the winning prefect and therefore do not follow their instructions; at times they insult them".

The above situation reported by principals indicate a need for moderation and guidance into the electoral process in public secondary schools. Principals' leadership is also critical in ensuring that the electoral process does not cause divisions among students. The same should be entrenched in the students' council policy for smooth administration and oversight.

4.4.1 Testing of hypothesis two on involvement of students

The second null hypothesis stated that involvement of student in electing their own leaders had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Information for testing this null hypothesis was sought from both deputy principals and student leaders. Analysed information from both categories of respondents on fitness of the model and goodness-of-fit is presented in Tables 4.15.

Table 4. 15

Model fitting information for involving student in electing their own leaders

Deputies' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	238.390				.765
	Final	220.550	17.840	3	.000	
Students' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	2613.630				.643
	Final	2321.480	292.150	4	.000	
	Link function: Logit.					

Results in Table 4.15 shows P = 0.000 from both deputy principals and students, which is less than 0.05 in each case. Hence, the underlying null hypothesis that, there is no significant difference between the baseline model and the final model was rejected. The results in Table 4.15 shows that the model has statistically significant predictive capacity, which means that, the involvement of student in electing their own leaders statistically and significantly explain the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Further, the model summary in this result showed that involvement of student in electing their own leaders predicted 76.5% and 64.3% (deputy principals and students responses respectively) of the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County, as indicated by the Nagelkerke R square values. However, the results were based on one independent variable; that is, involvement of student in electing their own leaders; hence, the inclusion of other predictors in the model may result to a high Nagelkerke R square value.

Having obtained a valid goodness of fit information, the study further sought to establish goodness of fit with the fitted model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used to determine whether a model exhibit good fit of the data; that is, it tests whether the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis stated that the observed data had goodness of fit with the fitted model. Table 4.16 shows the result on goodness-of-fit based on responses from both deputies and students.

Table 4. 16

Goodness-of-Fit for involving students in electing their own leaders

		Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Deputies' responses	Pearson	60.754	75	.883
	Deviance	69.407	75	.660
Students' responses	Pearson	31339.670	21402	.000
	Deviance	1980.011	21402	1.000

Link function: Logit.

The results in Table 4.16 show $\chi 2$ (df 75) = 60.754; p= .883 and $\chi 2$ (df 21402) = 31339.670, p= .000 for deputy principals and students respectively. In this case, therefore, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis that, the observed data for deputies had goodness of fit with the fitted model. This meant that the model for deputies and not for students fitted the data very well. The results therefore implied that the data from deputies on involvement of student in electing their own leaders was fit for predicting discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. The model based on students' data was not fit for predicting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The findings reported on reliability of students' data on this model were also not surprising, considering that students themselves are

likely to have exaggerated their views on election matters. Hence, the model based on data from deputy principals was considered the most reliable one in determining the parameter estimates on involvement of student in electing their own leaders. The estimates are critical in showing how independent variable is influencing the dependent variable in this model. The parameter estimates results based on data from deputy principals (reliable model) are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4. 17

Parameter estimates for involving student in electing their own leaders

	Responses from deputies						
						95% Confidence Interval	
	Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Location X1	4.212	.336	156.731	1	.000	3.553	4.872
Link function: Logit.							

From Table 4:17, it can be observed that a marginal increase in involvement of student in electing their own leaders positively increases the logit of the students' discipline. This means that as the scores of the independent variable increases, there is an increased probability of logit falling at a higher level on the dependent variable while holding all other factors constant. The result showed that involvement of students in electing their own leaders was statistically a significant predictor of students' discipline. Notably, for every one-unit increase on the involvement of student in electing their own leaders, there was a predicted statistically significant increase of 4.212 (P= .000) in the log odds likelihood (logit) of falling at a higher level on the students' discipline.

Since the p-values in Table 4.15 and Table 4.17 were less than alpha level ($p<0.05$), then, the second null hypothesis of this study which stated that, 'the involvement of student in electing their own leaders had no effect on students' discipline in public

secondary schools in Meru County' was rejected. Subsequently, it was concluded that involvement of student in electing their own leaders had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Involvement of student in electing their own leaders on its own as independent variable accounted for 76.5% of variation in the discipline of students in public secondary schools. Similar observations were noted by Nekesa (2018) who underscored in addition underscored the importance of electoral process. Ogweno et al. (2016) as well investigated the impact of involving students in decision-making and reported that secondary schools that had suggestion boxes, students' meetings, forums, and elected their own student leaders had scored high in students' discipline construct. Both studies supported the idea of allowing students to elect their own leaders and involving the elected leaders in decision-making. The involvement and participation was regarded very critical in minimizing students' unrest in public secondary schools.

The results showed that although students were rarely involved in electing their own leaders, the act of involvement has repercussion on students' discipline in public secondary schools. Failure to involve students in electing their own leaders diminishes the spirit of democracy, and is likely to fathom discord and discontentment, which may ultimately affect discipline in the school. The study by Kandie (2017) had reported that secondary school students were rarely involved in decision-making. Kandie further noted that in instances where students were involved in decision-making and in electing their own leaders, there were notable improvements in both discipline and academic achievements. Ombangi (2012) also supported the idea of involving students in electing their own leaders and linked it to improved students' discipline. Ombangi (2012) opined that prefects should be treated like a link between the administration and their fellow students, which creates a sense of ownership, respect, participation and democracy.

4.5 Results on Students' Representatives Participating in BOM Meetings

The third objective sought to determine the effect of students' representatives participating in BOM meetings, on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Various sentiments on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings (in Likert scale ranging from 1 – 5) were presented to respondents. The study wanted to know whether: student leaders were allowed to attend BOM meetings, contribute to motions, ask questions, whether their views were considered when BOMs are making decisions, whether they are involved by BOM in making decisions regarding disciplinary cases of fellow students, and to establish whether students' leaders were facilitated to attend BOM meetings. Information gathered from deputy principals was presented first followed by the findings from students. In both cases, the results were summarized and presented in descending order of mean values as shown in Tables 4.18 and 4.19.

Table 4. 18

Responses from deputy principals, on participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings in public secondary schools in Meru County

Sentiments on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings (N = 182)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
The chair of BOM meetings allows student leaders to speak / contribute to motions in BOM meetings	.656	2.45	1.059	.991	.180	-.050	.358
Student leaders are allowed to attend BOM meetings	.592	2.38	.931	1.127	.180	.975	.358
Student leaders are involved in making decisions regarding disciplinary cases of fellow students by the BOM.	.635	2.31	1.105	.817	.180	-.328	.358
BOM takes into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions	.727	2.16	1.020	1.127	.180	.765	.358
School leadership facilitates student leaders to attend BOM meetings	.748	2.13	.892	1.353	.180	1.908	.358
Student leaders attending BOM meetings are allowed to ask questions	.698	2.12	.912	1.227	.180	1.736	.358
Summation		2.26	0.987				
KMO = .902							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Data collected on this construct was somehow skewed as indicated by the skewness statistics and Kurtosis values which were beyond -2 and +2 for normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014). Hence, the data did

not exhibit normality. A factor analysis in Table 4.18 indicates that most sentiments as perceived by deputy principals on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools loaded very well, where, all occurrences had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .902 and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). This shows that all indicators on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings were weighty, and all of them were worth being considered in the analysis.

All aspects on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.26 and standard deviation of 0.987. This meant that, only 82 (45.2%) deputy principals agreed with the aspects of students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools. Surprisingly, none of the indicators showed a mean above the average, 2.5. This generally indicated a high level of disagreement to the sentiments on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools. It meant that, according to the views collected from majority of the principals, students' representatives rarely participate in BOM meetings in public secondary schools in Meru County. For the few who participate in BOM meetings, principals indicated that BOM do not take into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions. It was also clear that most schools do not facilitate student leaders to attend BOM meetings, and that, in most cases, the student leaders attending BOM meetings are not allowed to ask questions. Responses from students on the same aspects were sought and the findings presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4. 19

Responses from students, on participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings in public secondary schools in Meru County

Sentiments on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings (N = 284)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
The chair of BOM meetings allows student leaders to speak / contribute to motions in BOM meetings	.656	2.45	1.059	.991	.180	-.050	.358
Student leaders are allowed to attend BOM meetings	.614	2.36	1.079	.682	.145	-.211	.288
The chair of BOM meetings allows student leaders to speak / contribute to motions in BOM meetings	.737	2.10	.972	1.034	.145	.632	.288
School leadership facilitates student leaders to attend BOM meetings	.646	2.10	.966	1.002	.145	.612	.288
Student leaders attending BOM meetings are allowed to ask questions	.682	2.02	.960	.916	.145	.425	.288
BOM takes into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions	.655	1.99	.995	1.005	.145	.403	.288
Summation		2.17	1.005				
KMO = .881							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

The results in 4.19 shows a general concurrence of the students views with those of deputy principals. All indicators of the constructs loaded very well; Eigen values were above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .881, and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). Data collected was notably skewed as indicated by the skewness

statistics and Kurtosis values which were beyond -2 and +2 for normal univariate distribution; hence, data for this construct did not also exhibit normality.

The results showed that all aspects of students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.17 and standard deviation of 1.005. The mean values were conspicuously below the expected average of 2.5. This indicated a general disagreement (mean is below 2.5 in each case) by majority of students on all aspects of students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools. Further, it showed that students' representatives were rarely participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools in Meru County. This finding concurs with the results gotten from deputy principals. The finding generally implied that, democratization of education expected to be realized through students' representatives participating in BOM meetings was less evident in most secondary schools in Meru County. Interview data gathered from principals attributed this to the fact that most BOM meetings are held on weekdays when classes are in progress. Principal number 6 argued,

> "*Allowing student leaders to attend BOM meetings would mean missing classes which would eventually work against them since important concepts may be taught when they are away in meetings, and the lesson may never be repeated".*

These findings exposed weaknesses similar to those found by Kagendo (2018). Kagendo observed poor students' representations in decision-making organs. The study attributed this to the leadership style of the principal. Kagendo stressed the need to involve students when making decisions regarding management of school finances, physical resources, school curriculum, and welfare issues.

Attending meetings is one thing and participating in them is a completely different thing. Information gathered from both deputy principals and students indicated less participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings. This is because, there was a general disagreement that student leaders attending BOM meetings were allowed to ask questions, and that BOM took into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions. This indicates serious weaknesses in the participation process in most public secondary school in Meru County. Hence, democratization of education, which is partly expected to be achieved by allowing participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, is weakened. Weak participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings may negate considerations of students' views when making key decisions on matters affecting them. As noted above, such scenario can be the genesis of alienation and dissatisfaction among students. This may lead to discontent, discord, lack of cooperation, disobedience and may ultimately give rise to indiscipline behavior among students in public secondary schools. Kagendo (2018) argued that in cases where students felt less involved, their morale was down, and the same was blamed for students' strikes and other indiscipline cases in the schools. Kandie (2017) also supported involvement of students in decision-making organs, especially in matters about rules and regulations and other areas that directly affected their welfare. Moreover, despite the advocacy to embrace democratic leadership, prefects were not participating in the BOM meetings as required. The study concluded that meaningful student participation in school governance had not taken root as it was expected in public secondary schools in Meru County.

4.5.1 Testing of hypothesis three on students' representatives participation in BOM meetings

The third null hypothesis stated that students' representatives' participation in BOM meetings had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Information for testing this null hypothesis was sought from both deputy principals and students. Analysed information from both categories of respondents on fitness of the model and goodness-of-fit is presented in Tables 4.20.

Table 4. 20

Model fitting information for participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings *and discipline of students*

Deputies' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	772.422				.789
	Final	490.881	281.540	4	.000	
Students' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	2513.409				.600
	Final	2252.951	260.458	4	.000	
	Link function: Logit.					

Results in Table 4.20 shows P = 0.000 from both deputy principals and students leaders, which is less than 0.05. Hence, the underlying null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the baseline model and the final model is rejected. The results in Table 4.20 shows that the model has statistically significant predictive capacity, which means that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings statistically and significantly explains the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Further, the model summary in this result shows that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings predicts 78.9% and 60.0% (deputy principals and students responses respectively) of the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County as indicated by the Nagelkerke R square values. However, the results are based on one independent variable; that is, participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings. As a result, the inclusion of other predictors in the model may result to a high Nagelkerke R square value.

Having obtained a valid goodness of fit information, the study further sought to establish goodness of fit with the fitted model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used to determine whether a model exhibit good fit of the data; that is, it tests whether the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis state that the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. Table 4.21 shows the results on goodness-of-fit based on responses from both deputy principals and students.

Table 4. 21

Goodness-of-Fit for participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings

		Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Deputies' responses	Pearson	607.637	1374	1.000
	Deviance	353.758	1374	1.000
Students' responses	Pearson	22010.522	18066	.000
	Deviance	1886.088	18066	1.000

Link function: Logit.

The results in Table 4.21 show $\chi 2$ (df 1374) = 607.637; p= 1.000 and $\chi 2$ (df 1374) = 353.758, p= .000 for deputy principals and students respectively. In this case, therefore,

the study failed to reject the null hypothesis for data gathered from deputy principals; that the observed data for deputy principals was having goodness of fit with the fitted model. This means that the model for deputy principals and not for students fit the data very well. This implied that the data from deputy principals on participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings was fit for predicting discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. The model based on students' data was not fit for predicting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The findings drawn from students on the model were also not surprising, considering that students themselves are likely to have exaggerated their views on matters pertaining to participation in BOM meetings. Hence, the model based on data from deputy principals was considered the most reliable one in determining the parameter estimates on participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings on discipline of students in public secondary schools. The parameter estimates are critical in showing how independent variable is influencing the dependent variable. The parameter estimates results based on data from deputy principals (reliable model) are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4. 22

Parameter estimates for participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings

	Responses from deputies						
						95% Confidence Interval	
	Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Location X1	4.818	.384	157.362	1	.000	4.065	5.570
Link function: Logit.							

From Table 4:22, it can be observed that a marginal increase in participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings positively increases the logit of the students' discipline. This means that as the scores of the independent variable increase,

there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level on the dependent variable, while holding all other factors constant. The results show that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings is a statistically significant predictor of students' discipline. Consequently, for every one-unit increase on the participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, there is a predicted statistically significant increase of 4.818 (P= .000) in the log odds likelihood (logit) of falling at a higher level on the students' discipline.

Since the p-values in Table 4.20 and Table 4.22 were less than alpha level ($p<0.05$), then, the third null hypothesis of this study which stated that 'participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County' was rejected. Because of this, it was concluded that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings on its own as an independent variable accounted for 78.9% of variation in the discipline of students in public secondary schools. These findings correspond with those of Kariuki (2014) who found that students' participation in school management meetings, making rules and regulations; and in disciplinary matters greatly influenced their self-esteem and improved their level of obedience.

The study also noted that information gathered from deputy principals' in-charge of discipline in the school was more reliable in the prediction as compared to the information from students. The results showed that although there were weak systems of representation of students in BOM meetings, the act of participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings has repercussion on their discipline in public

secondary schools in Meru County. Failure to allow students' representatives in BOM meetings diminishes the spirit of democracy, which is envisaged in secondary school education, and is likely to fathom un-cooperation and discontentment which may ultimately affect students' discipline in the school. On a similar note, Masele's study of 2019 reported rare attempts of including views of students in school policy, and participation in decision-making. Masele observed that in instances where students were allowed to attend meetings and participate in decision-making, positive outcomes were noted in students' discipline. Inclusivity in decision-making, training, and empowerment programs for students' leaders were recommended. Nekesa (2018) also concurred that students' involvement in planning activities; such as games, rules and regulations, as well as attending management meetings helped teachers to tackle discipline cases with ease. Nekesa recommended students' leaders' training on how to communicate their grievances to the school management, and emphasized on the need to involve students' representatives in PA and BOM meetings, which were commended for providing good platform for handling pertinent issues affecting students.

Despite the statistical significance of participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings on students' discipline, the principals who were interviewed expressed some reservation to the practice. The main problems cited by most principals is leaking of information and disclosure of deliberations of BOM, to which they said were leading to more rebellion, unrest and further deterioration of students' discipline. Principal number 10 said, *"Many student leaders who attend BOM meetings assumes a lot of authority and power, which makes them to despise teachers. They usually equate themselves to principals, and regard themselves above teachers who do not attend BOM meetings".* These kind of complaints pointed to the need to have clear roles of students' leaders in BOM meeting, and training them on meeting ethics among others things.

4.6 Results Involving Students in Making Decisions on Students Affairs Matters

The last (fourth) objective in this study sought to determine the effect of involving students in making decisions about students' welfare matters on their discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Various sentiments on involvement of students in making decisions about students' welfare matters (in Likert scale ranging from 1 – 5) were presented to respondents. The study wanted to know whether students were involved in: making decision on choice of subjects taught in the schools, drafting of the school routine programs, deciding type of meals taken, deciding the type of extra-curricular activities to have, choosing the type of punishment to receive upon committing an offense, and in the writing of school rules and regulations.

Information gathered from deputy principals was presented first, followed by the findings from students. In both cases, the results were summarized and presented in descending order of mean values as shown in Tables 4.23 and 4.24.

Table 4. 23

Responses from deputy principals on involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs matters in public secondary schools in Meru County

Sentiments on involvement of students in making decisions on students affairs matters (N = 182)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Students are allowed to participate in drafting of school rules and regulations	.867	2.79	1.376	.135	.180	-1.256	.358
Students are involved in deciding the type of extra-curricular activities to have in the school	.740	2.51	1.131	.563	.180	-.907	.358
Students are involved in deciding the type of meals taken in school	.706	2.45	1.059	.991	.180	-.050	.358
Students are involved in drafting of the school routine programs	.725	2.38	.931	1.127	.180	.975	.358
Students are allowed to choose the type of punishment to receive upon committing an offense	.841	2.31	.989	1.033	.180	.365	.358
Students are involved in the choice of subjects taught in the school	.656	2.16	1.105	.817	.180	-.328	.358
Summation		2.26	0.987				
KMO = .837							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

Data collected on this construct was somewhat skewed as indicated by the skewness statistics and Kurtosis values which were beyond -2 and +2 for normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2014). Hence, the data did not exhibit normality. A factor analysis in Table 4.23 indicates that most sentiments as perceived by deputy principals on involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters in public secondary schools loaded very well, where, all occurrences had a factor Eigen value above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .902, and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). This shows that all indicators on involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters were weighty and all of them were worth considering in the analysis.

All aspects on involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.26, and standard deviation of 0.987. This meant that only 82 (45.2%) deputy principals agreed with the aspects of involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters in public secondary schools. Interestingly, none of the indicators showed a mean above average of 2.5. This generally indicated a high level of disagreement to the sentiments on involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters in public secondary schools in Meru County. This means that according to majority of views collected from the principals, involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters was not a common practice in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Responses from students on the same aspects were sought, and the findings presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4. 24

Responses from students on involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters in public secondary schools in Meru County

Sentiments on involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters (N = 284)	Factor loading	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Students are involved in deciding the type of extra-curricular activities to have in the school	.645	4.25	1.032	-1.469	.145	1.549	.288
Students are allowed to participate in drafting of school rules and regulations	.543	3.92	1.216	-.896	.145	-.295	.288
Students are involved in drafting of the school routine programs	.648	3.77	1.276	-.842	.145	-.480	.288
Students are allowed to choose the type of punishment to receive upon committing an offense	.756	3.69	1.264	-.495	.145	-.951	.288
Students are involved in deciding the type of meals taken in school	.563	3.52	1.320	-.424	.145	-1.134	.288
Students are involved in the choice of subjects taught in the school	.517	3.49	1.338	-.564	.145	-.881	.288
Summation		2.17	1.005				
KMO = .799							
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = .000							

The results in 4.24 shows a general concurrence of the students views with those of deputy principals. All indicators of the constructs loaded very well; Eigen values were above 0.5; with an overall KMO value of .881, and a Bartlett's test of sphericity being significant (P= .000). Data collected was however, observably skewed as indicated by the skewness statistics and Kurtosis values which were beyond -2 and +2 for normal univariate distribution; hence, data for this construct did not exhibit normality.

The results showed that all aspects of involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters in public secondary schools showed a summated mean value of 2.17, and standard deviation of 1.005. The mean values were conspicuously below the expected average of 2.5. This meant that there was a general disagreement (mean is below 2.5 in each case) by majority of students on all aspects of involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters in public secondary schools. It also indicated a low level of involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters in public secondary schools in Meru County. This finding corresponded with the results gotten from deputy principals. This generally implies that democratization of education, which is expected to be realized through involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters, is less evident in most secondary schools in Meru County. The foregoing findings were not consistent with those of Wambua et al. (2017) who reported a high level of involvement of students in making decisions on various matters affecting learners in secondary schools. Additionally, the study by Hakiza (2017) did not agree with the findings of this study. Hakiza found out that student council leaders in secondary schools in Uganda were involved in decision making on students' welfare matters. The practice of involvement was noted to have thwarting planned strikes. The study by Kamau (2017) however, made observation similar to the one noted by the current study. According to Kamau

(2017), many students did not participate in the formulation of school rules and regulations, welfare matters, diet, daily schedules, and in co-curricular activities at their schools.

Interview data gathered from principals attributed this to unrealistic demands from students, which cannot be sustained by the school budget. The few principals who supported the idea of involving leaders in students' welfare matters revealed different approaches of involving students. Some principals were soliciting new ideas from students by holding "let us talk special meetings" where important students' affairs were discussed. In some cases, suggestions were forwarded through guidance teacher, prefects, and class teachers. The students' welfare matters handled were diverse. They included games and sports, diet, clubs, school rules & regulations, motivation programs for both students and teachers, routine programs, punishment, academic performances, students-teachers relationship, health, spiritual needs, and psychosocial needs among others.

4.6.1 Testing of hypothesis four on involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters

The fourth null hypothesis stated that involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Information for testing this null hypothesis was sought from both deputy principals and students. Analysed information from both categories of respondents on fitness of the model and goodness-of-fit is presented in Tables 4.25.

Table 4. 25

Model fitting information for involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters

Deputies' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	865.995				.746
	Final	618.398	247.597	4	.000	
Students' responses	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	2710.893				.109
	Final	2678.174	32.719	4	.000	
	Link function: Logit.					

Results in Table 4.25 shows P = 0.000 from both deputy principals and students, which is less than 0.05 for each case; hence, rejection of the underlying null hypothesis that, there is no significant difference between the baseline model and the final model. The baseline model (Intercept only) is the model without any independent variables (predictors), while the final model is the one with all possible independent variables. The results in Table 4.25 shows that the model has statistically significant predictive capacity. This means that involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters statistically and significantly explain the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Further, the model summary in this result shows that involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters predicts 75.6% and 10.9% (for deputy principals and students' responses respectively) of the variations in the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County, as indicated by the Nagelkerke R square values. However, the results were based on one independent variable; that is, the

involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters. Hence, the inclusion of other predictors in the model may result to a high Nagelkerke R square value.

Having obtained a valid goodness of fit information, the study further sought to establish goodness of fit with the fitted model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used to determine whether a model exhibits good fit of the data; that is, it tests whether the observed data has goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis stated that the observed data had goodness of fit with the fitted model. Table 4.26 shows the result on goodness-of-fit based on responses from both deputies and students.

Table 4. 26

Goodness-of-Fit for involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters and discipline of students

		Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Deputies' responses	Pearson	1012.142	1868	1.000
	Deviance	490.848	1868	1.000
Students' responses	Pearson	30241.196	27240	.000
	Deviance	2376.417	27240	1.000

Link function: Logit.

The results in Table 4.26 show $\chi 2$ (df 1868) = 1012.142; p= 1.000 and $\chi 2$ (df 27240) = 30241.196, p= .000 for deputy principals and students respectively. In this case, therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis for data gathered from deputy principals, that, the observed data from deputy principals had goodness of fit with the fitted model. This means that the model for deputy principals and not for students fit the data very well. This implies that the data from deputies on involvement of students in making

decisions on student's welfare matters is fit for predicting discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

The model based on students' data was not fit for predicting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The findings drawn from students on the model indicated that students might have exaggerated their views on involvement matters, and in making decisions on student's welfare matters. Hence, the model based on data from deputy principals was considered the most reliable one in determining the parameter estimates on involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters on discipline of students in public secondary schools. The parameter estimates are critical in showing how independent variable is influencing the dependent variable. The parameter estimates results based on data from deputy principals (reliable model) are shown in Table 4.27.

Table 4. 27

Parameter estimates for involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters and discipline of students

Responses from deputies							
						95% Confidence Interval	
	Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Location X1	4.633	.365	160.650	1	.000	3.916	5.349
Link function: Logit.							

From Table 4:27, it can be observed that a marginal increase in involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters positively increases the logit of the students' discipline. This means that as the scores of the independent variable increases, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level on the dependent variable, while holding all other factors constant. The results showed that involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters is a statistically significant

predictor of students' discipline. Notably, for every one-unit increase on the involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters, there is a predicted statistically significant increase of 4.633 (P=.000) in the log odds likelihood (logit) of falling at a higher level on the students' discipline.

Since the p-values in Table 4.25 and Table 4.27 were less than alpha level ($p<0.05$), then the fourth null hypothesis of this study, which stated that 'involvement of students in making decisions on student's affairs matters had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County', was rejected. Because of the previously mentioned, involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters on its own as an independent variable accounted for 74.6% of variation in the discipline of students in public secondary schools.

The results showed that although there were weak systems of involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters, the failure to involve them has repercussion on their discipline. Failure to involve students in making decisions on student's welfare matters also diminishes the spirit of democracy, which is envisaged in secondary school education, and is likely to harbour indiscipline behaviour among learners. The findings match with those of Jeruto and Kiprop (2011) who also reported lack of active involvement of students in making decisions concerning students' matters, hence the unwarranted riots and unrest in most public secondary schools in the County. Barongo (2016) argued that involving students in decision-making created a sense of ownership, and significantly impacted their discipline level in public secondary schools in Kisii Central Sub-County.

4.7 Overall Model on Education Democratization and Students' Discipline

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The foregoing findings and discussions are based on assessment of the impact of each independent variable on education democratization; that is, banning of corporal punishment, involvement of student in electing their own leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters, on the dependent variable (students' discipline in public secondary schools). In this section, the study presented results on the impact prediction assessment based on all the four constructs on education democratization.

The dependent variable (students' discipline in public secondary schools) was therefore regressed on the four-predictor variables on education democratization in a combined model to determine the nature of their joint relationship, and further assess their composite prediction value on discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. Testing of the overall model utilized data from deputy principals, after considering that the previous sections noted that data from deputy principals was more relevant than data from students with respect to independent variables. The results of a multivariate ordinal logistic regression analysis are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4. 28

Model fitting information and goodness-of-fit on education democratization and discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County

Model fitting information	Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Pseudo R-Square (Nagelkerke)
	Intercept Only	1053.983				.894
	Final	649.631	404.352	4	.000	
Goodness-of-fit		Chi-Square		Df		Sig.
	Pearson	1615.154		4416		1.000
	Deviance	644.086		4416		1.000

Link function: Logit.

Results in Table 4.28 shows a P value of 0.000, which is less than alpha value, $P < 0.05$; hence, rejection of the underlying null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the baseline model and the final model. The results show that the combined model has statistically significant predictive capacity, which means that the combined constructs on education democratization statistically and significantly explains the variations in discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. Further, the model summary in this result shows that the combined selected metrics predicts 89.4% of the variations in the quality of education as indicated by the Nagelkerke R square value.

The study further sought to establish the goodness of fit with the fitted model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used in determining whether a model exhibited good fit of the data; that is, it tests whether the observed data has goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis state that the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model as shown in Table 4.28.

The findings in Table 4.28 show $\chi 2$ (df 4416) = 1615.154; p= 1.000. In this case, therefore, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis, and concluded that the observed data had goodness of fit with the fitted model; meaning the model fit the data very well. This implies that the data on the combined constructs on education democratization was fit for predicting discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Having met the foregoing two conditions of ordinal logistic regression as shown in Tables 4.30, it was okay to go beyond log odds (logit) regression coefficients values and calculate odds ratios, because the predictors were now four. Their combined effect on the outcome variable was being investigated. The odds ratios of the predictors, at 95% confidence intervals, were calculated through exponentiation of the estimate as guided by (Nichols, 2020). The estimates values and odd values together with their 95% confidence intervals in this case are critical in showing how the four independent variables (four combined constructs on education democratization) are influencing the dependent variable (discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County). Results are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4. 29

Summary of parameter estimates and odd ratios on education democratization and discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County

			95% Wald Confidence Interval						95% Wald Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
Parameter	B	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
X1	.205	.2647	-.314	.724	.602	1	.438	1.228	.731	2.063
X2	3.021	.4244	2.189	3.852	50.666	1	.000	20.506	8.926	47.109
X3	4.601	.5069	3.607	5.594	82.381	1	.000	99.553	36.863	268.853
X4	.229	.5008	-.752	1.211	.209	1	.647	1.257	.471	3.356

Dependent Variable: Y

Model: (Threshold), X1, X2, X3, X4

a. Fixed at the displayed value.

The results in Tables 4.29 indicate that all the four independent variables: banning of corporal punishment (X1), involvement of student in electing their own leaders (X2), students' representatives in BOM meetings (X3); and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters (X4), are jointly significant in determining the students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. It is also clear that two independent variables; that is, involvement of student in electing their own leaders (X2), and students' representatives in BOM meetings (X3) were the most statistically significant predictors of discipline of students when all constructs were combined in one model. The following logistical model was generated.

$$\frac{P}{1-P} = b^{\beta 0+ \beta 1X1+ \beta 2X2+ \beta 3X3+ \beta 4X4}$$

Consequently, the following conclusive logistical model and statements were made:

- An increase in the involvement of student in electing their own leaders was associated with an increase in the odds of discipline of students, with odds ratio of 20.506 (95% CI, 8.926 to 47.109), Wald $\chi 2$ (1) = 50.666, $p < .005$.

- An increase in the participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings was associated with an increase in the odds of discipline of students, with odds ratio of 99.553 (95% CI, 36.863 to 268.853), Wald $\chi 2$ (1) = 82.381, $p < .005$.

The rest of predictors; that is, banning of corporal punishment and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters were individually statistically significant in impacting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. However, the magnitude of each of these two constructs cease to be significant when all predictors based on education democratization were combined in one model.

The results of the overall model were considered correct in this study, and they corresponded with the literature reviewed in chapter two. Undoubtedly, students' discipline is critical in predicting education outcomes (Simba, Agak & Kabuka, 2016; Wairangu, 2017). Therefore, all determinants for students' discipline were very essential. This study empirically established education democratization to be an important predictor for students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The study mainly focused on four key components of education democratization: banning of corporal punishment, involvement of student in electing their own leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters. The combination of these four constructs was proved in this study as significant in affecting students' discipline in public secondary schools. This implies that public secondary schools in Meru County should continue to embrace all the four constructs, which characterize democratization of education, and further seek to strengthen all of them. The study by Tikoko et al. (2011) also corroborated the findings noting that student participation in PTA, BOM, special management committee meetings, decision making regarding policy issues were significant in affecting the discipline of students. Other means of involving

students in decision-making included dialogues, students' barazas, student councils, and student parliament. Although these democratic avenues of student involvement were found to be wanting, they positively affected student discipline. Murage (2014) supported the establishment of student councils in public secondary schools and emphasized on their participation in BOM, and PTA meetings,

Special attention and emphasis should, however, be given to mechanisms of involving student in electing their own leaders, and in enabling the participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings. These two constructs proved weighty in affecting students' discipline more than the other two. The findings showed that students want to be involved in making key decisions on matters affecting them directly. That is why they want to be deeply involved in electing their own leaders. This is believed to give them confidence that the elected leaders would voice their views and opinions. Kagendo's findings of 2017 supported this argument, and underscored the practices and systems where students elect their own to take part in making decisions on matters that affect them in the school. Kagendo argued that by involving students' leaders in decisions making organs usually makes students to feel part of the process, hence lesser cases of unrest.

Principals and deputy principals admitted that embracing and implementing democratization elements and processes in public secondary schools had not been easy. Some of the key challenges cited included bad cultural traditions in the school; hence, resistance to change, ideological differences in the schools, misunderstanding between students and teachers, inadequate resources, lack of cooperation, and support from the community. For example, some parents supported their children even when they are in the wrong. It was also clear that some teachers had not embraced the idea of involving

students in the BOM meetings. In addition, many students were not aware of their rights and duties, hence ineffective leadership, poor participation in decision making, mishandling of power by student leaders, and poor communication between students and administration. The study also noted that the new dispensation of democracy was implemented in schools without prior training of stakeholders.

Respondents were asked to suggest other mechanisms for promoting democratization process in public secondary schools. The suggestion given included establishing systems for monitoring students' activities to detect deviation from the democratic guidelines. Students should also be involved in problem identification and in coming up with solutions. Respondents further recommended introducing students and teachers' training programmes on their roles in the democratic environment. Moreover, the school should put up suggestion boxes in the school compound, establish reward systems for the most disciplined students, and establish collaboration and structures for involving parents and teachers in key decision-making, as well as disciplining students.

4.8 Results Based on Peer Pressure (Moderator)

Generally, peer pressure is known to be high among students in secondary schools. It was therefore necessary to examine whether it moderated the effects of democratization of education on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The study therefore sought opinions from deputy principals and students by asking them to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement concerning peer pressure. The responses were summarized and organized in descending order of the mean values, as shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4. 30

Descriptive results on peer pressure

Statements on peer pressure (N = 182)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Peer pressure among students affects timely finishing of assignments	3.40	1.243	-.440	.180	-.943	.358
Peer pressure causes students to be less vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties	3.40	1.243	-.440	.180	-.943	.358
Peer pressure influence how students obey their prefects	2.50	.973	.963	.180	.095	.358
Peer pressure cause students to be damaging on school property	2.50	.973	.963	.180	.095	.358
Cases of drug abuse among learners have increased due to peer pressure	2.48	1.081	.906	.180	-.307	.358
Peer pressure affects classroom distractions	2.31	.948	.959	.180	.436	.358
Peer pressure contribute students staying away from school (truancy)	2.16	1.020	1.127	.180	.765	.358
Peer pressure affects how student leaders are engaged and involved in making decision on academic, social and catering issues	2.13	.892	1.353	.180	1.908	.358
Peer pressure affects how student leaders engage and participate in BOM meetings	2.12	.912	1.227	.180	1.736	.358
Summation	2.56	1.032				

The results show that approximately half of the subjects (mean = 2.56 and standard deviation of 11.032) responded in affirmative. Two aspects on peer pressure had a mean score that was same as the medium (3.40); that is, peer pressure affects timely finishing of assignments and causes students to be less vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties. The overall picture from the results in Table 4.30 is that, the impact of

peer pressure on students' discipline is not as heavy, as one would expect. These findings were informed by the nature of indicators used to measure peer pressure with reference to the dependent variable. Unlike the findings of the current study, where peer-pressure has not been found to be weighty in influencing students' discipline, Kimani (2013) found out that peer pressure was deeply entrenched among secondary school students, and contributed to indiscipline such as truancy, lateness, theft, and many cases of immoral behavior among students. Enforcement of rules and regulations, deploying of experienced deputy principals and regular peer counseling sessions were significant in addressing indiscipline in schools.

According to findings presented in Table 4.30, it was clear that peer pressure was less evident in contributing to students staying away from school (truancy) (mean =2.16; standard deviation = 1.020). Further, it was less evident in affecting how student leaders are engaged and involved in making decision on academic, social and catering issues (mean =2.13; standard deviation = .892), or even affecting how student leaders engage and participate in BOM meetings (mean =2.12; standard deviation = .912). This is largely true because participation in BOM meetings or getting involved in making decisions on academic, social and catering issues is more of a policy issue rather a peer pressure issue. A student can also be away from school due other reasons such fees, sickness among others and not necessarily because of peer pressure. Nandeke at al. (2017) noted that although many schools had a policy regarding involving students in discussing welfare, academic and health matters; and participation in BOM meetings, students' councils were haphazardly involved in such meetings. This stresses the need to strengthen policy on students' involvement in key decision-making meetings.

4.8.1 Moderation effect of peer pressure on the overall model: Hypothesis five

This study had hypothesized that the impacts of education democratization on students' discipline was not moderated by peer pressure. In order to test the moderation effect of peer pressure on the overall model (combined model), a moderated ordinal logistic regression model was conducted. To understand the moderator's effect, the Omnibus test on likelihood ratio Chi-square was carried out to check whether the model was fit against the fitted model; where the significant value was expected to be less than 0.05 ($p = \leq 0.05$), while the Pearson Chi-square value in the goodness of fit was expected to be greater than 0.05 ($p = >0.05$). The inclusion of interaction terms (peer pressure) in the overall model was useful in determining the statistical significance of the interaction term, and subsequently, a conclusion was made on whether peer pressure moderated the effect of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools. The findings are presented in Tables 4.31.

Table 4. 31

Moderation effect of peer pressure on education democratization and students' discipline: Omnibus test

Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
409.388	6	.000

Dependent Variable: Y
Model: (Threshold), X1, X2, X3, X4, Peer, Ind_peer
a. Compares the fitted model against the thresholds-only model.

The findings in Table 4.31 shows that the full model is significant, $\chi 2\ (6) = 404.352$, $p<0.05$ as shown by Omnibus test results. Omnibus test of the model coefficient shows the significance of the predictive capacity of the overall model. This is because the p – value is p=0.000, which is less than 0.05. This shows that the overall model, which include the interaction term, has significant predictive capacity. This indicates that peer

pressure exhibits moderation effects on democratization of education; hence, affect outcomes on students' discipline.

The study further sought to establish the goodness of fit with the hypothesized model. In ordinal logistic regression, the Pearson Chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used to determine whether a model exhibit good fit of the data; that is, it tests whether the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. The decision rule is to reject the underlying null hypothesis if P value is less than 0.05. The null hypothesis state that the observed data is having goodness of fit with the fitted model. Table 4.32 shows the result on goodness-of-fit.

Table 4. 32

Moderation effect of peer pressure on education democratization and students' discipline: Goodness of Fit

Goodness of Fit with interaction terms			
	Value	df	Value/df
Deviance	650.140	4570	.142
Scaled Deviance	650.140	4570	
Pearson Chi-Square	1728.928	4570	.378
Scaled Pearson Chi-Square	1728.928	4570	
Log Likelihood[b]	-325.070		
Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC)	714.140		
Finite Sample Corrected AIC (AICC)	728.315		
Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)	816.669		
Consistent AIC (CAIC)	848.669		

Dependent Variable: Y
Model: (Threshold), X1, X2, X3, X4, Peer, IND_Peer
a. Information criteria are in smaller-is-better form.
b. The full log likelihood function is displayed and used in computing information criteria

The results in Table 4.32 show $\chi 2$ (df 4570) = 1728.928; p= .378. In this case, therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that the observed data had goodness of fit with the fitted model. This means that the overall model fit the data very well; hence, reliable in predicting the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County. Examining parameter estimates was therefore done to understand the magnitude of the impact of the model with a presence of a moderator. The estimates were critical in showing how independent variable is influencing the dependent variable with a presence of a moderator. Here, the odds ratios were considered because there are several predictors, which included the interaction term. The odds ratios of the predictors and their 95% confidence intervals were calculated by exponentiation of the estimate (Nichols, 2020).

The Exp(B) column contains odds ratios reflecting the multiplicative change in the odds of being higher category on the dependent variable for every one unit increase on the independent variable, while holding the remaining independent variable constant. An odds ratios > 1 suggests an increasing probability of being in a higher level on the dependent variable as values on an independent variable increases; whereas, a ratio < 1 suggests no predicted change in the likelihood of being in a higher category as values on an independent variable increase. The estimates values and odd values together with their 95% confidence intervals in this case are critical in showing whether the combined model plus interaction term affect the dependent variable (students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County). Results are presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4. 33

Moderation effect of peer pressure on education democratization and students' discipline: Parameter estimates

Parameter	B	Std. Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Wald Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
			Lower	Upper					Lower	Upper
X1	.789	.3695	.065	1.513	4.560	1	.033	2.201	1.067	4.542
X2	4.021	.6623	2.723	5.320	36.866	1	.000	55.780	15.231	204.287
X3	5.457	.6637	4.156	6.758	67.607	1	.000	234.400	63.831	860.767
X4	.709	.5956	-.459	1.876	1.415	1	.234	2.031	.632	6.527
Peer	2.166	1.1400	-.069	4.400	3.609	1	.057	8.719	.934	81.440
Ind_peer	-.978	.4297	-1.820	-.136	5.179	1	.023	.376	.162	.873
(Scale)	1[a]									

Dependent Variable: Y

Model: (Threshold), X1, X2, X3, X4, Peer, IND_Peer

a. Fixed at the displayed value.

From Table 4.33, the odds ratio is > 1; which indicates an increasing probability of being in a higher level on each independent variable without the interaction term. However, the odds ratio is < 1 for the interaction terms (Ind*peer). This suggests that no predicted change in the likelihood of being in a higher category values on independent variables with a presence of a moderator. It also implies that although the introduction of a moderator (peer pressure) make the model to remain significant (see Table 4.33), the increasing probability of being in a higher level with presence of an interaction term is low. This implies that peer pressure is a weak moderator. Consequently, the study failed to reject the fourth hypothesis, which stated that peer pressure does not moderate the relationship between education democratization and

student discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. This led to the conclusion that peer pressure is not a significant moderator between the education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. On a similar note, Omollo and Yambo (2017) investigated the issues of peer pressure and its influence in triggering indiscipline cases among secondary school students. Omollo and Yambo (2017) reported that students' indiscipline cases, such as dropout were rarely caused by peer pressure amongst them. Their observation led to the conclusion that peer pressure does not significantly impact students' behaviour, particularly the dropout rates.

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the research findings using descriptive statistics; namely, mean, standard deviation, percentages; and inferential statistics, which were; Chi-square test, ANOVA, ordinal logistic and regression analysis. Results show that corporal punishment, involvement of student in electing their own leaders, participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Therefore, all the null hypotheses were rejected. A model comprising of the four constructs for democratization of education was also proved significant in affecting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Peer pressure was not a significant moderator between education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations. The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The following objectives guided the investigation: to examine the effect of banning corporal punishment; to determine the effect of involvement of the student in electing their leaders, to assess the effect of participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings and to determine the effect of involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters, on their discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The literature reviewed was organized according to study's main objectives. Reviewed literature indicated the knowledge gaps regarding the impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools. The study was guided by child developmental psychology, and the social factor theories.

It employed a descriptive survey research design and sampled ten (10) principals, 195 deputy principals, and 384 student's leaders. Data was collected through a questionnaire, interview, observation schedule, and document analysis. Five hundred and eighty questionnaires were distributed to both deputy principals and students, where 92.9% and 74.0% were returned, respectively. All the targeted principals responded to the study.

Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS version 24, where descriptive statistics such as percentage, mean, standard deviations and factor analysis were computed, while

inferential statistics (Chi-square and ordinal logistic regression analysis) were used to test the hypothesized relationship between the variables. In addition, data from interviews and documents were analysed using the thematic technique. Finally, the findings were presented using tables, figures and narratives.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

This section presents the summary of the key findings based on the main constructs of the study.

5.2.1 Background Information of Respondents

The respondents' background information indicated that most of the public secondary schools in Meru County were sub-county day schools (72 %); a few were county schools, and only two were national schools. The results indicated that there were more girls' boarding public as compared to boys' boarding and mixed boarding schools in Meru County. It was evident that most deputy principals, majority of whom were male (56.6%), had served between five and ten years since their appointment to the position of deputy principal. Only 35.2% of principals had served 5 years and below. This was attributed to the recent transfer and delocalization policy by the TSC. It was also evident that among the students' leaders, (50.7%) were men while (49.3%) were female. It was also clear that approximately half of the public secondary schools in Meru County (52.5%) allowed students to elect their own leaders. The rest had either their leaders appointed by teachers (44%), or appointed by the principals and teachers (3.5%).

5.2.2 Students' Discipline in Public Secondary Schools

Responses from both deputy principals (88.8%) and student leaders (90.98%) on student discipline revealed prevalent cases of indiscipline among students. The indiscipline cases included s staying away from school (truancy), inability of students

to finish assignment on time, students damaging school property, drug abuse, noise making in the classrooms, refusal to take notes, disrespect for prefects and teachers; improper dressing, violence and fighting; sneaking and lateness. However, information gathered through observations on selected metrics of discipline indicated conspicuous cleanliness of the school compound, good grooming among students, fair response to bells, and cleanliness of the windowpanes. The indiscipline cases amongst students were attributed to the banning of corporal punishment.

5.2.3 Banning of Corporal Punishment in Public Secondary Schools in Meru County

The first objective sought to examine the effect of banning corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Results indicated a minimal reduction of cases involving corporal punishment in public secondary schools in Meru County. For example, there was a reduction of injuries cases due to beatings, and fewer cases of pouring of cold water. However, both deputy principals and students admitted continued incidences of slapping, mob beating and whipping of students in schools. This indicated that some forms of corporal punishment were still taking place in some public secondary schools in Meru County. In addition, the study noted that the alternatives to corporal punishment were introduced in schools without proper induction, hence were less effective in achieving the intended mission.

This study found the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools critical in influencing the discipline of students in public secondary schools. This observation was supported by the Chi-square result, which indicated a P =.000, which was less than the alpha value of 0.05; hence, the first null hypothesis which stated that the banning of corporal punishment did not affect students' discipline in public secondary schools was rejected. Because of rejection of null hypothesis, it was concluded that there was a

statistically significant effect of corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

5.2.4 Involvement of Students in Electing their Leaders in Secondary Schools

Objective number two sought to determine the effect of involving students in electing their leaders on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Cases involving students in electing their leaders differed across most secondary schools. Lack of involvement was noted in the electoral process, where only two aspects of involvement were widely practised in most secondary schools. The two aspects of involvement were designating time for the electoral process, and allowing students' aspirants to vie for any leadership position as guided by the school policy. However, the students' leaders and the deputy principals agreed that most schools did not set aside time for campaigning and promoting manifestos. In addition, very few schools had students' representation in the electoral commission. These findings painted a picture of a weak system of involving students in electing their leaders in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Although the involvement of students in electing their leaders is crucial in the democratization of the education process and in addressing students' discipline, some principals blamed it for the many cases of indiscipline witnessed in most public secondary schools. They attributed the cases to students electing leaders who would favour them and others who were notorious and rebellious.

The democratic practices of allowing students to elect their leaders were found to be crucial in addressing students' discipline in public secondary schools. The inferential results indicated a Chi-square P =.000; which was less than the alpha value of 0.05. Hence, the study rejected the null hypothesis that ' involvement of students in electing their leaders had no effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru

County, and concluded that involvement of students in electing their leaders had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

5.2.5 Students' Representatives Participation in BOM Meetings in Public Secondary Schools

In responding to research objective three, the study sought to determine the effect of students' representatives' participation in BOM meetings on students' discipline, in public secondary schools in Meru County. A factor analysis confirmed that all the sentiments as perceived by deputy principals on students' representatives participating in BOM meetings in public secondary schools were valid and weighty. Views collected from both respondents reported that students' representatives rarely attended BOM meetings in public secondary schools in Meru County, and only a few attended. The views of the few who attended were considered when BOM was making decisions.

It was also clear that most schools were not facilitating student leaders to attend BOM meetings. In other cases, student leaders attending BOM meetings were not allowed to ask questions, hence little participation. This generally implied that democratization of education, which was expected to be realized through students' representatives participating in BOM meetings, was less evident in most secondary schools in Meru County. Interviewed principals attributed this to the fact that most BOM meetings were held on weekdays when most classes were in progress. In addition, students attending meetings were leaking information and deliberations of BOM, to which principals said was leading to more rebellion, unrest and further deterioration of students' discipline. These complaints point to the need to have clear roles of students' leaders in BOM

meeting and training programmes for students' leaders on meeting ethics, among others things.

The ordinal logistical regression results indicated that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings was statistically significant in affecting students' discipline. The Chi-square P-value was 0.000, was less than the alpha value of 0.05. Hence, the study rejected the null hypothesis that 'participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings did not affect students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County, and concluded that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

5.2.6 Involvement of Students in Making Decisions on Students' Welfare Matters in Public Secondary Schools

The last objective sought to determine the effect of involving students in making decisions on students' welfare matters, on their discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. According to the majority of views collected from principals and leaders, involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters was not a common practice in most public secondary schools in Meru County. This was evidenced by their responses regarding all indicators to which had mean values conspicuously below the average of 2.5.

Most principals of public secondary schools attributed the weak systems of involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters to the unrealistic demands by students, which the school budget could not support. Failure to yield to such demands were resulting to strikes in some schools. The few schools involving students in making decisions on student welfare matters were using diverse mechanisms. Some schools were soliciting ideas from students by holding "let us talk special meetings"

where important students' affairs issues were discussed. Others had the suggestions forwarded through guidance teacher, prefects, and class teachers. Such suggestions were being moderated to ensure that they were within the available vote head. The areas of involvement included games and sports, diet, clubs, school rules and regulations, motivational programs for students and teachers, routine programs, punishment, academic performances, student-teacher relationship, health, spiritual and psychosocial needs among others.

Despite the dismal involvement of students in making decisions on student's welfare matters, this construct individually accounted for 74.6% variation in the students' discipline in public secondary schools. Inferential statistical results showed that involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters had statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The Chi-square showed P =.000, was less than the significance level of 0.05. Therefore, the study rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there were positive and statistically significant impacts of involving students in making decisions on student's welfare matters, on their discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

5.2.7 Overall Model on Education Democratization and Students' Discipline in Public Secondary Schools

An impact prediction assessment based on the four constructs (combined) on education democratization was carried out to examine their impact on the dependent variable. As a result, a combination of four constructs was proved to be statistically significant in affecting students' discipline in public secondary schools. This was because the model fitting information, and goodness-of-fit output containing all the independent variables in a single model was found to be valid (Chi-square statistics P < .005). This meant that all the four constructs (banning of corporal punishment, involvement of the student in

electing their leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings, and involvement of students in making decisions on students' affairs matters) were jointly significant in determining students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

The results implied a need for public secondary schools in Meru County to continue embracing all the four constructs characterizing democratization of education (mentioned in the above discussion) and further seek to strengthen them. However, in a combined model, the students' involvement in electing their leaders followed by students' representatives in BOM meetings were the most statistically significant predictors of students' discipline when all constructs were combined in one model.

5.2.8 Moderation Effects of Peer Pressure

The descriptive results did not show weighty implications of peer pressure on students' discipline. According to the results, peer pressure affected issues such as timely finishing assignments, lack of vigilance in attending to cleaning duties, failure to obey prefects, damaging of school properties, and rise of drug abuse among learners in most public secondary schools in Meru County. However, peer pressure was less evident in contributing to students staying away from school (truancy), and in making decisions on academic, social and catering matters. Moreover, peer pressure was not affecting the involvement and participation of student leaders in BOM meetings. This was largely true because such matters were more of a policy issue than because of peer pressure.

The study had an implied hypothesis that peer pressure would moderate the impacts of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County, Kenya. The results indicated that peer pressure is not a significant moderator between education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. It was specifically noted in the moderation analysis that, by

adding the interaction term in the overall model, the Pearson Chi-square had P = .246, which was insignificant. This led to the conclusion that peer pressure was not a significant moderator between education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

5.3 Conclusions

The study aimed to establish the impact of education democratization on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The results show many cases of indiscipline among students, such as staying away from school (truancy), the inability of students to finish the assignment on time, students damaging school property, cases of drug abuse, the inability of students to respect their teachers and prefects, and students lacking vigilance in attending to their cleaning duties in the school. The study noted that students' indiscipline cases in public secondary school were rampant and needed to be addressed.

On objective one, the study noted that some form of corporal punishment was still taking place in some public secondary schools in Meru County. This was evidenced by cases of slapping, mob beating and whipping of students in some public secondary schools. However, cases of students suffering from injuries resulting from corporal punishment, pouring of cold water, and punching of students had reduced drastically in the school. Therefore, the study upheld the abolishment of corporal punishment in secondary schools, and concluded that it was statistically significant in affecting students' discipline in public secondary schools. However, the study noted the need for a moderated mild corporal punishment to deter minor indiscipline cases among learners in secondary schools in Meru County. The alternatives to corporal punishment were regarded as important in addressing students' discipline; however, the lack of

orientation, induction and training on the same was causing them to be less effective in achieving the intended mission.

From the findings of objective two, the study noted weak systems of involving students in electing their own leaders in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Most schools had weak electoral processes and mechanisms for involving students in electing their leaders. The majority were not setting aside time for campaigning and promoting manifestos, while only a few were ensuring students' representation in the electoral commission. The majority of schools criticized the system of allowing students to elect their leaders, saying that it was causing the rise in indiscipline cases witnessed in most public secondary schools. They argued that this was because students have a high propensity to elect leaders who would favour them. Some were electing leaders who were notorious and rebellious, resulting in conflicts between students and the school management. In other cases, the conflicts and misunderstanding would lead to riots and unrest in the school. Nevertheless, the democratic practices of allowing students to elect their leaders were found crucial in addressing students' discipline in public secondary schools.

On objective three, it was clear that students' representatives rarely attended meetings in most public secondary schools due to lack of facilitation and clear policy. In schools where there was students' representation in BOM meetings, lack of elaborate systems to allow students' participation in motions and in presenting their views to inform decisions making was evident. This study concluded that democratization of education, expected to result from students' representatives participating in BOM meetings, was less evident in most secondary schools in Meru County. This was attributed to the fact that most BOM meetings were held on weekdays when classes were in progress.

Principals also complained that most students leaked information regarding decisions made by BOM meetings, hence causing chaos and unrest in schools. Despite these challenges, the participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings was statistically significant in affecting students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

From the findings of objective four, it was clear that many schools partly involved students in making decisions on student's welfare matters. This was due to weak systems, and partly due to unrealistic demands by students, which the school budget could not support. The study noted that if a school does not yield to such demands, it resulted in strikes and other forms of unrest. In some schools where students were involved in discussing their welfare matters, the common methods of soliciting ideas from students included holding "let us talk special meetings" where important students' affairs issues are discussed. In other cases, suggestions are forwarded to the school management through career guidance teacher, school counsellors, prefects, and class teachers. The areas of involvement included games and sports, diet, clubs, school rules and regulations, motivational programs for students and teachers, routine programs, punishment, academic performances, student-teacher relationship, and health, spiritual and psychosocial needs. Despite the dismal involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters in public secondary schools in Meru County, the construct was found to have a statistically significant effect on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County.

Regarding the overall model, the study concluded that a combination of four constructs on the democratization of education (banning of corporal punishment, involvement of student in electing their leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings and

involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters) had a statistically significant impact on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. However, in a combined model, the most significant one was the student's involvement in electing their leaders, followed by students' representatives in BOM meetings.

It was clear that peer pressure was less evident in contributing to students staying away from school (truancy), had less effect on students 'participation in BOM meetings, and their involvement in making decisions regarding academic, social and catering issues, and had less effect on how student leaders engaged and participated in BOM meetings. The study noted that education democratization is more of a policy issue, hence affected minimally by peer pressure. This explains why peer pressure was not a significant moderator between the four constructs of education democratization and students' discipline in public secondary school in Meru County.

5.4 Recommendations

The study came up with the following recommendations based on the findings and conclusions.

5.4.1 Recommendations Based on the Main Constructs of the Study

On objective one, the study noted the statistical significance of the ban of corporal punishment on students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. Therefore, this study upheld the abolishment of corporal punishment in schools. It, however, recommended that the Ministry of Education intervenes and develops a policy and guided mechanisms to moderate corporal punishment for minor cases in public secondary schools, as opposed to abolishing it altogether. The study also recommended strengthening alternatives to corporal punishment in public secondary schools in Meru

County. Therefore, the Ministry of Education should liaise with principals in ensuring timely orientation, induction, and training of all stakeholders on alternatives to corporal punishment with a view to institutionalize the practice in public secondary schools.

On objective two, the study found a weak system of involving students in electing their leaders in most public secondary schools in Meru County. The Ministry of Education should develop policy and guidelines on systems for the election of student leaders in secondary schools. The guidelines should include an elaborate electoral process, an electoral body, designated time for an election, and campaigning guidelines. The principals should organize sensitization meetings of all stakeholders to create awareness and educate students on the electoral process and regulations governing the students' election. The principals should further ensure that the electoral body is properly constituted to include students' representatives.

From the findings of the third objective, the study noted that participation of students' representatives in BOM meetings had a statistically significant effect on students' discipline, despite it being less common in most public secondary schools in Meru County. Student representatives play a pivotal role in achieving students' discipline in schools by representing them in BOM meetings and in key decision-making meetings. The study, therefore, recommends that public secondary schools break off from traditional BOM-only meetings and come up with mechanisms for students representatives' participation in BOM meetings. Since lack of involvement was attributed to the fact that most BOM meetings were held during weekdays when most classes are usually in progress, principals should discuss with BOM with a view to scheduling meetings at a time when student leaders are free to attend. In addition, principals should facilitate students' leaders to attend such meetings.

Concerning the complaints about students leaking BOM information, the study recommends that principals train, orient, and educate students' leaders so that they can clearly understand their roles in BOM meeting. Principals should also sensitize students' leaders to ethics related to meetings.

Regarding objective four, the study observed that students' representatives were not adequately involved in decision making on student welfare matters. Involvement is crucial in creating a sense of ownership. Therefore, principals should devise creative methods of soliciting ideas from the students. Some of the methods for consideration include holding "let us talk special meetings" with the students. Such meeting should be held after soliciting suggestions from students, which should be forwarded to the school management through career guidance teacher, school counsellors, prefects, and class teachers. The areas of involvement should include games and sports, diet, clubs, school rules and regulations, motivational programs for students and teachers, routine programs, punishment, academic performances, student-teacher relationship, and health, spiritual and psychosocial needs. The collected ideas should be moderated with reference to the approved school budget and the administration should seek to convince students and through let us talk special meetings. To achieve this effectively, principals should conduct training and inductions to students' leaders and other stakeholders to educate them on how to interrogate ideas and make appropriate decisions.

Regarding the overall model of the study, the four constructs on education democratization were jointly statistically significant in determining students' discipline in public secondary schools in Meru County. The study recommended full adoption of all the constructs on education democratization in secondary schools. The Ministry of education should devise oversight mechanisms for monitoring their

adoption in secondary schools. Principals should develop compliance systems and procedures, and further seek to strengthen the democratization mechanisms. The study upheld mechanisms for education democratization since it had significant impact on students' discipline in public secondary schools.

5.4.2 Implications of the Findings on Practices and Policy

The study established that approximately half of public secondary school students' representatives in Meru County were appointed either by teachers or by the principals. This indicated weak democracy in the election of students' leaders. The guidelines from the Ministry is that schools should allow students to elect their leaders. The findings of this study should inject changes in the students' leadership election and practices by emphasizing the adoption of democratic practices in the entire process. Furthermore, the Ministry of education should devise monitoring systems to enforce students' election and governance compliance.

The study noted the key role of students' representatives in public secondary schools in fostering students' discipline through their participating in decision-making. This has implications on BOM policy, and training and capacity-building programs for principals in ensuring that they equip students' leaders with skills and knowledge that will enable them to play their roles effectively. Capacity building programs should, among other things, focus on leading, vetting ideas gotten from students, making decisions, contributing motions in BOM meetings, and communication skills. To succeed in this, principals should allocate sufficient finances for training and facilitation to attend meetings. Similarly, appropriate policy is needed to support these initiatives.

The results have implications on how alternatives to corporal punishment are implemented in public secondary schools. The strength of these alternatives in addressing students' discipline cannot be overemphasized. This implies a need for monitoring systems by the Ministry of Education to ensure principals are conducting timely orientation, induction and training of all stakeholders on alternatives to corporal punishment, to address adequately the students' discipline in public secondary schools.

The findings of this study also have enormous implications on legislation and policy framework regarding education democratization in public secondary schools. This is because all the four constructs regarding education democratization (banning of corporal punishment, involvement of student in electing their leaders, students' representatives in BOM meetings and involvement of students in making decisions on students' welfare matters) were jointly, statistically significant in impacting students discipline in public secondary schools. However, lack of profound implementation mechanisms of the policy regarding education democratization is a severe drawback. Therefore, the Ministry of Education should develop a comprehensive policy that effectively addresses all the education democratization aspects to improve students' discipline in public secondary schools.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Studies

Having considered the circumstances and the context of the current study, the following issues were recommended for further studies.

i. This study observed that banning of corporal punishment had a positive impact on the students' discipline. However, the alternatives to corporal punishment were neither ascertained nor deeply interrogated in this study. Therefore, a further study

should be conducted to explore the alternatives to corporal punishment and their impact on students' discipline in public secondary schools.

ii. While investigating the main phenomena of the study, policy stood out as the primary remedy for fostering student electing their leaders, moderating corporal punishment, student involvement in BOM meetings, and involvement in decision-making. A further study should be carried out to develop a comprehensive policy document that clearly addresses how the four aspects of education democratization could be maximally implemented to improve students' discipline in public secondary schools.

iii. The study focused on public secondary schools in Meru County. A further study should be carried out to establish the situation in private secondary schools regarding education democratization, and probably compare the two.

iv. Students' representatives play a pivotal role in all aspects of education democratization. They are expected to represent all students in key school meetings and in BOM meetings, where significant decisions are made regarding their affairs. Performing this role calls for adequate preparation and capacity to deliver. A further study to explore and develop a capacity-training module for training students' council in secondary schools is recommended.

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APPENDICIES

Appendix 1: Letter to participants

Dear participant

I am a post graduate student at the department of Education of Kenya Methodist University. I am conducting a research study to investigate the impact of Education Democratization to Discipline of students in public secondary schools of Meru County. This is in fulfilment of degree of Doctor of philosophy in leadership and Education management of Kenya Methodist University. You have been selected to take part in this study. I would be grateful to you if you would assist me by responding to all items in the attached questionnaire. Your name is not required to appear in the questionnaire. The information is confidential and will be used for academic research purpose only. Your co-operation will be highly appreciated. The completed questionnaire will be marked immediately after you have completed it.

Yours sincerely

MISHECK MUTUMA M'MUYURI

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Deputy Principals

This questionnaire is designed for the study of the impact of education democratization to discipline of secondary school students of Meru County in Kenya. Please respond to question by providing appropriate responses. There is no right or wrong answers and the researcher wants to know your honest opinion on various issues and factors concerning the impact of Education democratization to school discipline in your school. The information you provide will be treated as confidential. Kindly answer all questions.

SECTION A
Background information

1. Indicate your gender?
    a. Male ( )
    b. Female ( )

2. What is your length of stay in the current station?

Below 2 years	
2 to 5 years	
Above 5 years	

3. How many years have you served as a deputy principal?

Below 5 years	
5 to 10 years	
Above 10 years	

4. Please tick the type of your school

Boys boarding school	
Girls boarding school	
Mixed boarding school	
Day school	

5. Please tick the category of school

National	
Extra-County	
County	
Sub-County	

SECTION B

Effects of banning of corporal punishment on discipline of secondary school students (Objective no. 1)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how the following apply in your school in respect to banning of corporal punishment.

NO.	Sentiments on corporal punishment	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Students are not whipped in our school					
2.	Shaming of students has reduced					
3.	Cases of students reported to suffer from injuries of corporal punishment have reduced					
4.	Punching has reduced in our school					

5.	Mob-beating of undisciplined student by several teachers has reduced in our school					
6.	Slapping of students has reduced in our school					

SECTION C

Effects of involvement of students in electing their own leaders to their discipline (Objective no. 2)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how these statements apply to your school with regards to involvement of students in electing their own leaders.

	Sentiments on involvement of students in electing their own leaders	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No opinion (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
1.	Student are allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as guided in the policy					
2.	All students vying for various positions are given equal/ same conditions of being elected					
3.	All students are presented with electoral cards to vote for student leaders of their choice					
4.	The school gives time for vying students to promote their manifesto					

5.	The school usually sets aside time for campaigns for student vying for leadership positions					
6.	Time is designated for electoral process and election for student leaders					
7.	Students are usually represented in the school electoral commission					

SECTION D

Effects of participation of student leaders to BOM meetings to discipline of students (Objective no, 3)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how these statements apply to your school since the involvement of students in BOM meetings.

	Sentiments on participation of students' leaders to BOM meetings	Strongly Agree (5)		Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Student leaders are allowed to attend BOM meetings						
2.	The chair of BOM meetings allows student leaders to speak / contribute to motions in BOM meetings						

3.	Student leaders attending BOM meetings are allowed to ask questions						
4.	School leadership facilitates student leaders to attend BOM meetings						
5.	BOM takes into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions						
6.	Student leaders are involved in making decisions regarding disciplinary cases of fellow students by the BOM.						

SECTION E

Effect of participation of students in making decisions on academic, social and catering issues to their discipline (Objective no. 4)

1. According to your opinion to what extent does the following have in the improvement of school discipline?

	Activities	To a very great extent (5)	To great extent (4)	No opinion (3)	To a small extent (2)	To a very small extent (1)
1.	Students are involved in the choice of subjects taught in the schools					
2.	Students are involved in drafting of the school routine programs					

3.	Students are involved in deciding the type of meals taken in school					
4.	Students are involved in deciding the type of extra-curricular activities to have in the school					
5.	Students are allowed to choose the type of punishment to receive upon committing an offense					
6.	Students are allowed to participate in drafting of school rules and regulations					

SECTION F

Students' discipline in public secondary schools

Indicate your level of agreement with a tick on the following statements regarding students' discipline in your school.

	In your school	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	There is less classroom distractions in the school					
2.	Learners in the school usually finish assignment on time					
3.	Students in the school respect their teachers					
4.	There are less cases of students staying away from the school (truancy)					
5.	There are less cases of drug abuse among learners in the school					
6.	Students are more vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties in the school					

7.	There are less cases of students damaging school property					
8.	Students in our school obey prefects					

SECTION G

Effects of peer pressure on education democratization to control students' discipline

Student discipline issues in public secondary school.

The following refer to some of the indiscipline cases in schools. Please indicate with a tick how these statements apply to your school

	Statement	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No opinion (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Peer pressure affects classroom distractions					
2.	Peer pressure among students affects timely finishing of assignments					
3.	Peer pressure affects how student leaders engage and participate in BOM meetings					
4.	Peer pressure affects how student leaders are engaged and involved in making decision on academic, social and catering issues					
5.	Peer pressure contribute students staying away					

	from school (truancy)					
6.	Cases of drug abuse among learners have increased due to peer pressure					
7.	Peer pressure causes students to be less vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties					
8.	Peer pressure cause students to be damaging on school property					
9.	Peer pressure influence how students obey their prefects					

6. What other democratic activities should be carried out in your school to improve the school discipline?

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. According to your opinion, what challenges are encountered in the process of education democratization in secondary schools?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 3: Questionnaire for Students Leaders

This questionnaire is designed for the study of the impact of education democratization to discipline of secondary school students of Meru County in Kenya. Please respond to question by providing appropriate responses. There is no right or wrong answers and the researcher wants to know your honest opinion on various issues and factors concerning the impact of Education democratization to school discipline in your school. The information you provide will be treated as confidential. Kindly answer all questions.

SECTION A
Background information

1. How did you become a student leader?

Was appointed by teachers	
Was elected democratically by fellow students	
Was appointed by principal	
Any other method, please specify	

SECTION B
Effects of banning of corporal punishment to discipline of secondary school students (Objective no. 1)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how the following apply in your school in respect to banning of corporal punishment.

NO.	Sentiments on corporal punishment	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Students are not whipped in our school					
2.	Shaming of students has reduced					
3.	Cases of students reported to suffer from injuries of corporal punishment have reduced					

4.	Punching has reduced in our school					
5.	Mob-beating of undisciplined student by several teachers has reduced in our school					
6.	Slapping of students has reduced in our school					

SECTION C

Effects of involvement of students in electing their own leaders to their discipline (Objective no. 2)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how these statements apply to your school with regards to involvement of students in electing their own leaders.

	Sentiments on involvement of students in electing their own leaders	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No opinion (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
1.	Student are allowed to vie for any leadership position in the school as guided in the policy					
2.	All students vying for various positions are given equal/ same conditions of being elected					
3.	All students are presented with electoral cards to vote for student leaders of their choice					

4.	The school gives time for vying students to promote their manifesto					
5.	The school usually sets aside time for campaigns for student vying for leadership positions					
6.	Time is designated for electoral process and election for student leaders					
7.	Students are usually represented in the school electoral commission					

SECTION D

Effects of participation of student leaders to BOM meetings to discipline of students (Objective no, 3)

Please indicate with a tick (√) how these statements apply to your school since the involvement of students in BOM meetings.

	Sentiments on participation of students' leaders to BOM meetings	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Student leaders are allowed to attend BOM meetings					
2.	The chair of BOM meetings allows student leaders to speak / contribute to motions in BOM meetings					
3.	Student leaders attending BOM meetings are					

	allowed to ask questions					
4.	School leadership facilitates student leaders to attend BOM meetings					
5.	BOM takes into consideration views of student leaders when making decisions					
6.	Student leaders are involved in making decisions regarding disciplinary cases of fellow students by the BOM.					

SECTION E

Effect of participation of students in making decisions on academic, social and catering issues to their discipline (Objective no. 4)

2. According to your opinion to what extent does the following have in the improvement of school discipline?

	Activities	To a very great extent (5)	To great extent (4)	No opinion (3)	To a small extent (2)	To a very small extent (1)
1.	Students are involved in the choice of subjects taught in the schools					
2.	Students are involved in drafting of the school routine programs					
3.	Students are involved in deciding the type of meals taken in school					
4.	Students are involved in deciding the type of extra-curricular activities to have in the school					
5.	Students are allowed to choose the type of punishment to receive upon committing an offense					
6.	Students are allowed to participate in drafting of school rules and regulations					

SECTION F

Students' discipline in public secondary schools

Indicate your level of agreement with a tick on the following statements regarding students' discipline in your school.

	In your school	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No option (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	There is less classroom distractions in the school					
2.	Learners in the school usually finish assignment on time					
3.	Students in the school respect their teachers					
4.	There are less cases of students staying away from the school (truancy)					
5.	There are less cases of drug abuse among learners in the school					
6.	Students are more vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties in the school					
7.	There are less cases of students damaging school property					
8.	Students in our school obey prefects					

SECTION G

Effects of peer pressure on education democratization to control students' discipline

Student discipline issues in public secondary school.

The following refer to some of the indiscipline cases in schools. Please indicate with a tick how these statements apply to your school

	Statement	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	No opinion (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)
1.	Peer pressure affects classroom distractions					
2.	Peer pressure among students affects timely finishing of assignments					
3.	Peer pressure affects how student leaders engage and participate in BOM meetings					
4.	Peer pressure affects how student leaders are engaged and involved in making decision on academic, social and catering issues					
5.	Peer pressure contribute students staying away from school (truancy)					
6.	Cases of drug abuse among learners have					

	increased due to peer pressure					
7.	Peer pressure causes students to be less vigilant in attending to their cleaning duties					
8.	Peer pressure cause students to be damaging on school property					
9.	Peer pressure influence how students obey their prefects					

2. What other democratic activities should be carried out in your school to improve the school discipline?

_____

_____

_____

3. According to your opinion, what challenges are encountered in the process of education democratization in secondary schools?

_____

_____

Appendix 4: Interview Guide for Principals

The goal of this interview is to get views on students' discipline aspects. It's more like a conversation with focus on your experience, your opinion and what you think or feel about the impact of education democratization to the discipline of students in public secondary schools in Meru County.

General question

1. What are your experiences concerning education democratization and its effects on students' discipline in secondary school?

Effects of banning of corporal punishment to discipline of secondary school students (Objective no. 1)

1. What are the effects of banning of corporal punishment on discipline of students in secondary school?
2. Kindly describe how the teacher-student relationship has been affected by the banning of corporal punishment in your school.
3. Comment on the changes in classroom distractions in your school in respect to the banning of corporal punishment

Effects of involvement of students in electing their own leaders to their discipline (Objective no. 2)

4. Shed some light on how your school engage students in electing their own leaders?
5. What are the effects of involvement of students in electing their leaders on their discipline?

Effects of participation of student leaders to BOM meetings to discipline of students (Objective no, 3)

6. How does your school facilitate student leaders to participate in BOM meetings?
7. How does the participation of student's representatives in BOM meetings affect the discipline of students?

Effect of participation of students in making decisions in matters affecting them in the school (Objective no. 4)

1. How does your school engage students in drafting of school rules?
2. How are suggestions of students incorporated when deciding their diet in the school?
3. What are the effects of participation of students in making decisions on academic, social and catering issues on their discipline?

Students' discipline level in your school

8. Provide general comment on students' discipline in your school.
9. With respect to discipline, provide your comments on nature and level of truancy of students in your school (students being away from school).
10. Comment on the level of property destructions by students in your school since the involvement of students in BOM.
11. Comment on students' obedience to their prefects in your school.
12. Explain measures taken in your school in addressing indiscipline cases

Effects of peer pressure on the use of education democratization to control students' discipline

13. In what ways has the discipline of students in your school been affected by peer pressure among students.

Appendix 5: Document Analysis

The researcher will analyse the following records:

i. Discipline files of minor and major indiscipline cases.
ii. BOM minutes on discipline of students.

The above documents will be used to fill in the blank spaces below.

1. What are some of the minor and major indiscipline cases found in the school?

Minor indiscipline cases

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

How were the minor cases of indiscipline handled in the school?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Major indiscipline cases

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

How were the major cases of indiscipline handled in the school?

_____

_____

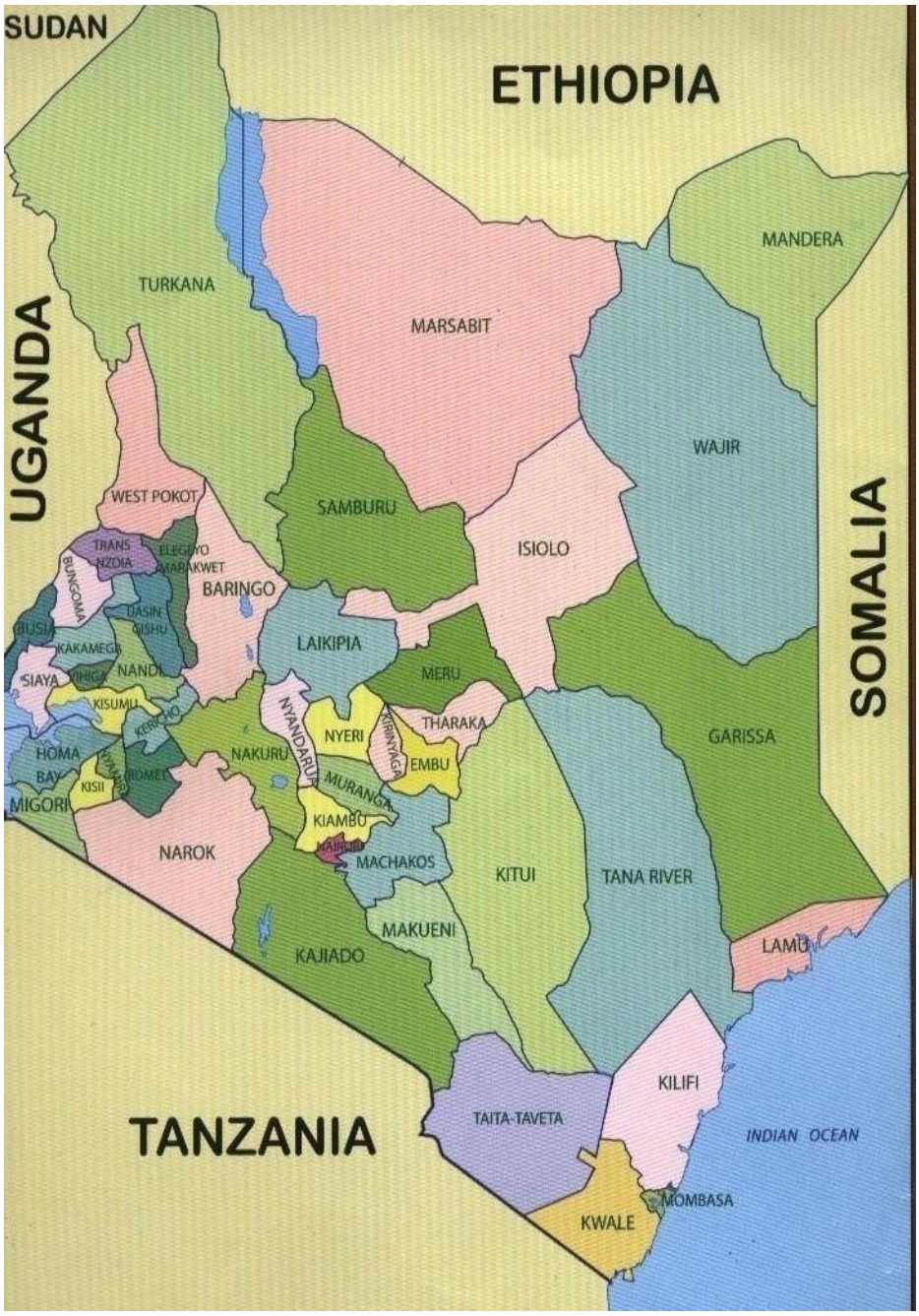
_____

Appendix 6: Observation Schedule

Observe some of the parameters of a good disciplined school and tick the level of discipline according to your assessment

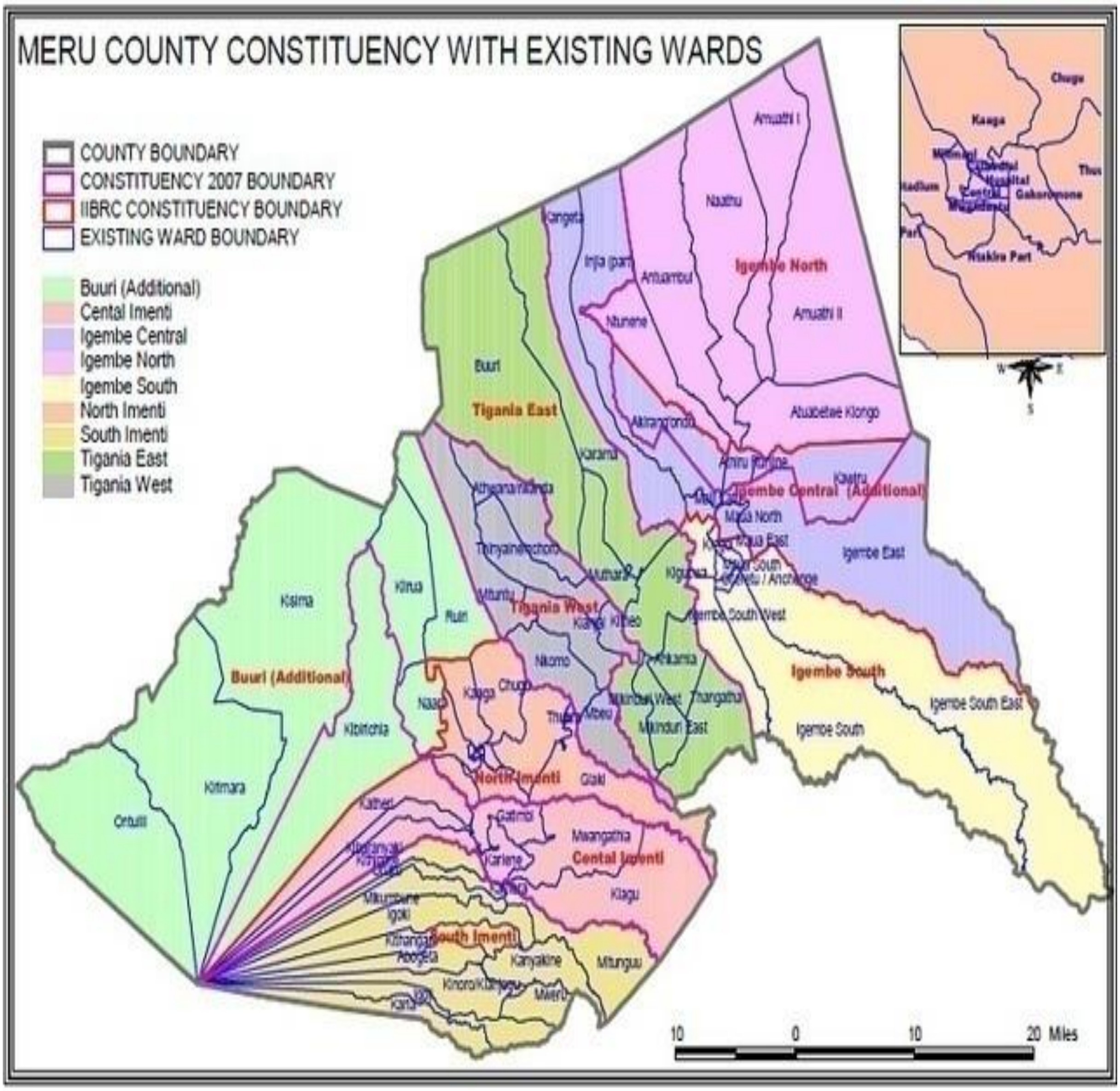
	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
Cleanliness of school compound					
Grooming of students					
Response to bells					
Window panes					

Appendix 7: Location of Meru County in Kenya



Map of Kenya showing counties)

Appendix 8: Location of Constituencies of Meru County



Map of Meru county showing constituencies

Appendix 8: List of Public Secondary Schools in Meru County

S/NO	COUNTY	SUB COUNTY		SCHOOL CATEGORY
1	MERU	BUURI EAST	KIIRUA BOYS	COUNTY
2	MERU	BUURI EAST	NAARI GIRLS	COUNTY
3	MERU	BUURI EAST	GAKANDO GIRLS	COUNTY
4	MERU	BUURI WEST	FGCK KISIMA SEC. SCHOOL	COUNTY
5	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	AKIRANGONDU BOYS	COUNTY
6	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NTHARE MIXED	COUNTY
7	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NTUENE MIXED	COUNTY
8	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	THITHA SEC.	COUNTY
9	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	ANTUBETWE KIONGO	COUNTY
10	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MUTUATI SEC	COUNTY
11	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NAATHU SEC	COUNTY
12	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	ANTUAMBUI SEC	COUNTY
13	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	CHUGU BOYS	COUNTY
14	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KIRIGE BOYS	COUNTY
15	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	GIAKI GIRLS SEC	COUNTY
16	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MULATHANKARI GIRLS	COUNTY
17	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MUNITHU GIRLS	COUNTY
18	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	THUURA SEC	COUNTY
19	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NKABUNE GIRLS	COUNTY
20	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NKUENE BOYS	COUNTY
21	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	UKUU HIGH	COUNTY
22	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KATHERA SEC	COUNTY
23	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MIKUMBUNE SEC	COUNTY
24	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KATHERA GIRLS	COUNTY
25	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NYAGENE SECONDARY	COUNTY
26	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	URUKU GIRLS	COUNTY

27	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NDAGENE SECONDARY	COUNTY
28	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KITHANGARI GIRLS	COUNTY
29	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KITHATU GIRLS	COUNTY
30	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	IGOKI SEC	COUNTY
31	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	IGANDENE SEC	COUNTY
32	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MACHIKINE GIRLS	COUNTY
33	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KITHANGARI BOYS	COUNTY
34	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MARAA SECONDARY	COUNTY
35	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MIRURIRI BOYS	COUNTY
36	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MIRURIIRI GIRLS	COUNTY
37	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MUUTIOKIAMA SEC	COUNTY
38	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST.AGNES	COUNTY
39	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	NKANDO SEC	COUNTY
40	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	RUIGA GIRLS	COUNTY
41	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	GAITU SEC	COUNTY
42	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KAONGO GIRLS	COUNTY
43	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIAMURI SEC	COUNTY
44	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KEERU SEC SCH	COUNTY
45	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KITHIRUNE GIRLS	COUNTY
46	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KATHERI HIGH	COUNTY
47	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	GITHONGO SEC	COUNTY
48	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KARUGWA GIRLS	COUNTY
49	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KATHERI GIRLS	COUNTY
50	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	AKAIGA SEC	COUNTY
51	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	IRINDIRO	COUNTY
52	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KALIENE	COUNTY
53	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	NGAGE	COUNTY

54	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	RWARE GIRLS	COUNTY
55	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	ST. CYPRIAN BOYS	COUNTY
56	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	KARAMA BOYS	COUNTY
57	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	ST. ANGELAS GIRLS	COUNTY
58	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	NYAMBENE GIRLS	COUNTY
59	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	ST. MARY'S MBARANGA	COUNTY
60	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	RUMANTHI GIRLS	COUNTY
61	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	MUKUIRU MIXED SEC	COUNTY
62	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	ST. LUKES SEC.	COUNTY
63	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KANJALU GIRLS	COUNTY
64	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	AKITHII GIRLS	COUNTY
65	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIMACHIA SEC.	COUNTY
66	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIBULINE SEC.	COUNTY
67	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	ATHWANA SEC.	COUNTY
68	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIANJAI SEC.	COUNTY
69	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KITHEO SEC	COUNTY
70	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	URINGU GIRLS	COUNTY
71	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MITUNTU GIRLS	COUNTY
72	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	ST. FRANCIS OF ASSISI	COUNTY
73	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIANJAI GIRLS	COUNTY
74	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	ST. RITA	COUNTY
75	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NTHIMBIRI SEC	COUNTY
76	MERU	BUURI EAST	MUCHEENE MIXED	COUNTY
77	MERU	BUURI EAST	RUIRI GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
78	MERU	BUURI EAST	KIBIRICHIA BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
79	MERU	BUURI EAST	KIBIRICHIA GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
80	MERU	BUURI WEST	ONTULILI BOYS SECONDARY SCHOOL	EXTRA COUNTY
81	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	BURIERURI BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY

82	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KANGETA GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
83	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NJIA BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
84	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	IGEMBE BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
85	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	GIKUMENE GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
86	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KAAGA BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
87	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KAAGA GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
88	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NKUBU HIGH	EXTRA COUNTY
89	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NKUENE GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
90	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KANYAKINE	EXTRA COUNTY
91	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	YURURU GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
92	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GIKURUNE BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
93	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GAKUUNI	EXTRA COUNTY
94	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GIKURUNE GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
95	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	ABOTHUGUCHI SEC	EXTRA COUNTY
96	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIRIGARA GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
97	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KINJO GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
98	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MIKINDURI GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
99	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MIATHENE BOYS	EXTRA COUNTY
100	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	MAUA GIRLS	EXTRA COUNTY
101	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NTUNENE GIRLS	EXTRACOUNTY
102	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MERU SCHOOL	NATIONAL
103	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST MARY'S	NATIONAL
104	MERU	BUURI EAST	KIIRUA ADVENTIST	SUBCOUNTY
105	MERU	BUURI EAST	ST JOSEPHS MICHAKA	SUBCOUNTY
106	MERU	BUURI EAST	LUMAR GIRLS	SUBCOUNTY
107	MERU	BUURI EAST	MCK KIRINGO	SUBCOUNTY
108	MERU	BUURI WEST	OUR LADY OF VISITATION GIRLS	SUBCOUNTY
109	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MFARIJI GIRLS SEC	SUBCOUNTY

110	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	IMENTI N.M.GIRLS	SUBCOUNTY
111	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KIUTINE SDA	SUBCOUNTY
112	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KINORO GIRLS	SUBCOUNTY
113	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	Mujwa Girls	SUBCOUNTY
114	MERU	BUURI EAST	MICHOGOMONE MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
115	MERU	BUURI EAST	ST. JAMES TUTUA	SUB COUNTY
116	MERU	BUURI EAST	NCOROIBORO MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
117	MERU	BUURI EAST	RUGETENE MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
118	MERU	BUURI EAST	MUTUUMA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
119	MERU	BUURI EAST	KIIRUA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
120	MERU	BUURI EAST	BUURI HIGH SCHOOL	SUB COUNTY
121	MERU	BUURI EAST	MITOONE MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
122	MERU	BUURI EAST	RWARERA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
123	MERU	BUURI EAST	RUIBI MIXED DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
124	MERU	BUURI EAST	NTUGI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
125	MERU	BUURI EAST	NTUMBURI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
126	MERU	BUURI EAST	MURINYA MIXED SEC	SUB COUNTY
127	MERU	BUURI EAST	MBURUGITI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
128	MERU	BUURI EAST	ST. THOMAS AQUINAS KITHUENE	SUB COUNTY
129	MERU	BUURI WEST	KANGAITA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
130	MERU	BUURI WEST	ONTULILI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
131	MERU	BUURI WEST	KITHITHINA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
132	MERU	BUURI WEST	GUNDUA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
133	MERU	BUURI WEST	NGUSISHI SECONDARY SCHOOL	SUB COUNTY
134	MERU	BUURI WEST	ANGAINE MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
135	MERU	BUURI WEST	MARITATI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
136	MERU	BUURI WEST	TIMAU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
137	MERU	BUURI WEST	SIRIMON MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
138	MERU	BUURI WEST	SUBUIGA	SUB COUNTY
139	MERU	BUURI WEST	NTIRIMITI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
140	MERU	BUURI WEST	NGARENDARE MIXED DAY AND BOARDING	SUB COUNTY
141	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KILIMAMUNGU	SUB COUNTY
142	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NTURUBA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
143	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	THAMARE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
144	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KANGETA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY

145	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NKINYANGA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
146	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KIEYA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
147	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KONGO KAMAU MIXED	SUB COUNTY
148	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KANDUBAI MIXED	SUB COUNTY
149	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KITHARE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
150	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NTUTI	SUB COUNTY
151	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MUKULULU MIXED	SUB COUNTY
152	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MACHUNGULU SEC.	SUB COUNTY
153	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	NTHAMBIRO	SUB COUNTY
154	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KAURINE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
155	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MATIANDUI MIXED	SUB COUNTY
156	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KATHATHENE	SUB COUNTY
157	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KAWIRU SEC.	SUB COUNTY
158	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	THIMBILI DAY	SUB COUNTY
159	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	K.K. AARU SEC.	SUB COUNTY
160	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KATHELWA SEC.	SUB COUNTY
161	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KARAMA ANTUAMUO SEC.	SUB COUNTY
162	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	ST. JAMES L. SEC.	SUB COUNTY
163	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KAMIRURU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
164	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	TUURU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
165	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MURINGENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
166	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MIORI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
167	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	AKUUNE DAY	SUB COUNTY
168	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KABUKURO	SUB COUNTY
169	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KANATHU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
170	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MURERA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
171	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	KANJOO MIXED	SUB COUNTY

172	MERU	IGEMBE CENTRAL	MATERINE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
173	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	ST MARYS NTANKI SEC	SUB COUNTY
174	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MIRIKI SEC	SUB COUNTY
175	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NAIRURU SEC	SUB COUNTY
176	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	ANJALU SEC	SUB COUNTY
177	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KARICHU SEC	SUB COUNTY
178	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KATHATENE SEC	SUB COUNTY
179	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KATHANGA	SUB COUNTY
180	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KITHETU SEC	SUB COUNTY
181	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	AMBARU SEC	SUB COUNTY
182	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	K.K BAITHAI SEC	SUB COUNTY
183	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NKAMATHI SEC	SUB COUNTY
184	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	LEETA SEC	SUB COUNTY
185	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MBURANJIRU SEC	SUB COUNTY
186	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MBAYO SEC	SUB COUNTY
187	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	INONO SEC	SUB COUNTY
188	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NGUKWINE SEC	SUB COUNTY
189	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KAMBOO SEC	SUB COUNTY
190	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NAIKURIU SEC	SUB COUNTY
191	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MARIRI SEC	SUB COUNTY
192	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NKANDA SEC	SUB COUNTY
193	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MWERONGUNDU SEC	SUB COUNTY
194	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KIRINDARA SEC	SUB COUNTY
195	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	LINJOKA SEC	SUB COUNTY
196	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	MIUINE SEC	SUB COUNTY
197	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	LUKUNUNU SEC	SUB COUNTY
198	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	NDOLELI	SUB COUNTY

199	MERU	IGEMBE NORTH	KIANI	SUB COUNTY
200	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	AKUI DAY SECONDARY	SUB COUNTY
201	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KIEGOI DAY	SUB COUNTY
202	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	AUKI DAY	SUB COUNTY
203	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	LULUMA DAY	SUB COUNTY
204	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KINDANI	SUB COUNTY
205	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	TIIRA	SUB COUNTY
206	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	GITURA DAY	SUB COUNTY
207	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	UGOTI DAY	SUB COUNTY
209	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	RIAKI DAY SECONDARY	SUB COUNTY
210	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KILALAI	SUB COUNTY
211	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	MBOONE	SUB COUNTY
212	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KITHETU	SUB COUNTY
213	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	ITUMI DAY	SUB COUNTY
214	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KIRINDINE	SUB COUNTY
215	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	KARUMARU	SUB COUNTY
216	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	THAICU	SUB COUNTY
217	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	ANTOBOCHIU	SUB COUNTY
218	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	BISHOP LAWI IMATHIU	SUB COUNTY
219	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	CCM MERU TOWNSHIP	SUB COUNTY
220	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	CHUNGARI DAY	SUB COUNTY
221	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	GACHANKA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
222	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	IRINDA DAY	SUB COUNTY
223	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KAINGINYO MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
224	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KAMBITI MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
225	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KATHIRUNE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
226	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KIAMIRIRU DAY	SUB COUNTY

227	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KIBURINE SEC	SUB COUNTY
228	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KINORU DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
229	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	KIRIGE DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
2230	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MWITERIA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
230	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MPURI DAY	SUB COUNTY
231	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MERU MUSLIM DAY	SUB COUNTY
232	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MULATHANKARI DAY	SUB COUNTY
233	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MUNITHU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
234	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MWIRINE DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
235	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MWITHUMWIRU DAY	SUB COUNTY
236	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NGONYI BOYS SEC	SUB COUNTY
237	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NKABUNE DAY	SUB COUNTY
238	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NTAKIRA DAY	SUB COUNTY
239	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	RUNOGONE DAY	SUB COUNTY
240	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	RWANYANGE DAY	SUB COUNTY
241	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	THUURA DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
242	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NGIINE DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
243	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	RURIINE DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
244	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	MBIRIKENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
245	MERU	IMENTI NORTH	NTHAMIRI SEC	SUB COUNTY
246	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KITHUNGURI DAY	SUB COUNTY
247	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NKUMARI DAY	SUB COUNTY
248	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KATHANTHATU DAY	SUB COUNTY
249	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KAUBAU	SUB COUNTY
250	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KIGARINE	SUB COUNTY
251	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NKUBU DAY	SUB COUNTY
252	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KAGWAMPUNGU	SUB COUNTY

253	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	UPPER MIKUMBUNE	SUB COUNTY
254	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	RWOMPO DAY	SUB COUNTY
255	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GANKONDI	SUB COUNTY
256	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST EUGENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
257	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NTHARENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
258	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	YURURU DAY	SUB COUNTY
259	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	LOWER CHURE	SUB COUNTY
260	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KIONYO	SUB COUNTY
261	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	BLESSED JOSEPH G	SUB COUNTY
262	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MENWE DAY	SUB COUNTY
263	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GAATIA DAY	SUB COUNTY
264	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KAIRAA DAY	SUB COUNTY
265	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST MARTINS NGONGO	SUB COUNTY
266	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KOTHINE SEC	SUB COUNTY
267	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	NYOMBAYATHI	SUB COUNTY
268	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KITHAKANARO DAY	SUB COUNTY
269	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KIUNE	SUB COUNTY
270	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MUREMBU DAY	SUB COUNTY
271	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MWERU	SUB COUNTY
272	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KAROE DAY	SUB COUNTY
273	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST JOSEPHS INTERGRATED	SUB COUNTY
274	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KATHIGU DAY	SUB COUNTY
275	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MUGAE HILL	SUB COUNTY
276	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	RURAMA DAY	SUB COUNTY
277	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MBAINE	SUB COUNTY
278	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KINORO DAY	SUB COUNTY
279	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MWOROGA	SUB COUNTY

280	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	GEETO DAY	SUB COUNTY
281	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MUTUNGURU DAY	SUB COUNTY
282	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ST PAULS GITINE	SUB COUNTY
283	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	IGANDENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
284	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	MUKARAGATINE DAY	SUB COUNTY
285	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	ST BONAVENTURE	SUB COUNTY
286	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MUGAMBONE SEC	SUB COUNTY
287	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIRIRWA SEC	SUB COUNTY
288	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KARIENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
289	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MARIENE SEC	SUB COUNTY
290	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	NTONYERO SEC	SUB COUNTY
291	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	NYWERI DAY	SUB COUNTY
292	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIRIA DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
293	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	TABATA DAY	SUB COUNTY
294	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	HOLY F NKUENE	SUB COUNTY
295	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIRIGARA DAY	SUB COUNTY
296	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	RUIGA DAY	SUB COUNTY
297	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MURATHI DAY	SUB COUNTY
298	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MUKUUNE SEC	SUB COUNTY
299	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MAKANDUNE DAY	SUB COUNTY
300	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KARAENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
301	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	GAOKENE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
302	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	GATUATINE DAY	SUB COUNTY
303	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIIJA DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
304	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	NGUCHIA M DAY	SUB COUNTY
305	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	GACURU DAY	SUB COUNTY
306	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KAGUMA	SUB COUNTY

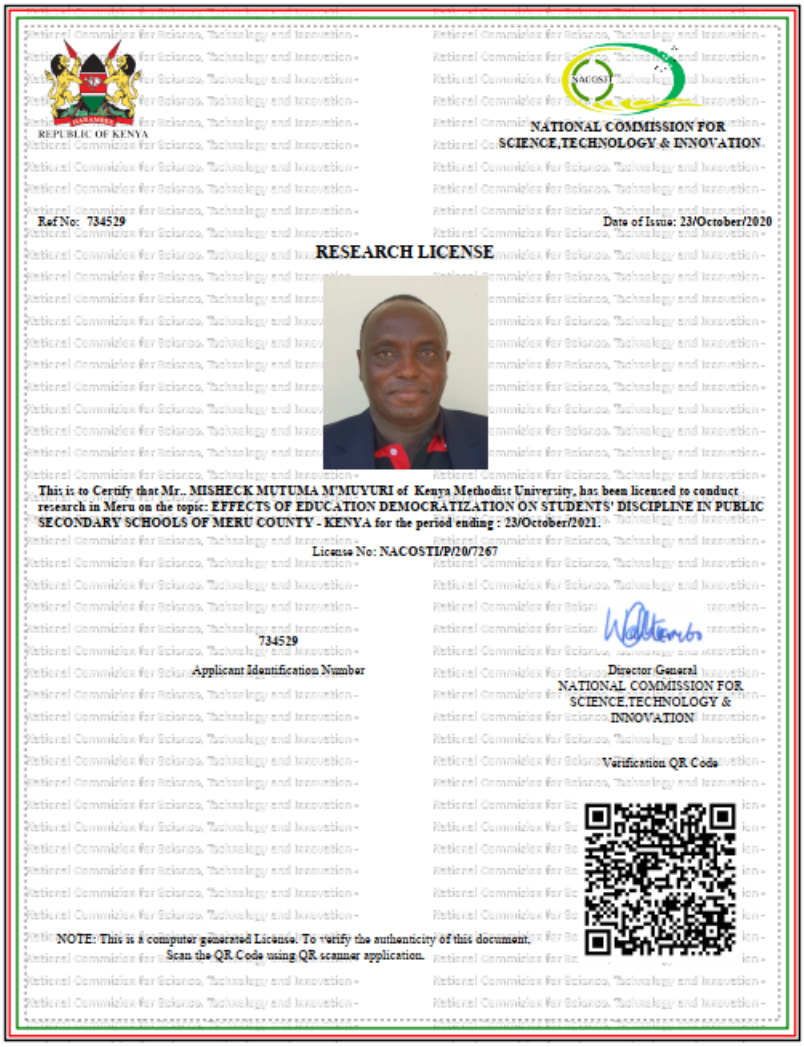
307	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KIANTHUMBI DAY	SUB COUNTY
308	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KITHIRUNE MIXED	SUB COUNTY
309	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MURI SEC	SUB COUNTY
310	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MUTHANGENE DAY	SUB COUNTY
311	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MBWINJERU DAY.	SUB COUNTY
312	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KATHIRANGA DAY	SUB COUNTY
313	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	KINJO MIXED	SUB COUNTY
314	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MURUUGI DAY	SUB COUNTY
315	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KIGUCHWA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
316	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	ST.MASSIMO DAY	SUB COUNTY
317	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	AMETHO DAY	SUB COUNTY
318	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MUCIIMUKURU DAY	SUB COUNTY
319	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	THUURI DAY	SUB COUNTY
320	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	ANKAMIA DAY	SUB COUNTY
321	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MUTEWA DAY	SUB COUNTY
322	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	AMUGAA DAY	SUB COUNTY
323	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MAREGA DAY	SUB COUNTY
324	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	IKANA DAY	SUB COUNTY
325	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MIURINE DAY	SUB COUNTY
326	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	GIITHU DAY	SUB COUNTY
327	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MUKONO DAY	SUB COUNTY
328	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KIGUMA MIXED	SUB COUNTY
329	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	MCK KAATHI DAY	SUB COUNTY
330	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	ST.BENEDICT DAY	SUB COUNTY
331	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KINGO DAY	SUB COUNTY
332	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KALULI DAY	SUB COUNTY
333	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	RURII DAY	SUB COUNTY

334	MERU	TIGANIA CENTRAL	KK MWETHE	SUB COUNTY
335	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	ANTUANDURU DAY	SUB COUNTY
336	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	D.E.B MBARANGA DAY	SUB COUNTY
337	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	KAILUTHA DAY	SUB COUNTY
338	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	KINANG'ARU DAY	SUB COUNTY
339	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	KIRIMA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
340	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	LAIBOCHA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
341	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	LAILUBA DAY	SUB COUNTY
342	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	LUBUATHIRUA DAY	SUB COUNTY
343	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	LUUMA DAY	SUB COUNTY
344	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	MABUURUA DAY	SUB COUNTY
345	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	MUTHARA DAY	SUB COUNTY
346	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	MWEROKIENI DAY	SUB COUNTY
347	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	MWEROMUTHANGA DAY	SUB COUNTY
348	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	NCHUUI DAY	SUB COUNTY
349	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	NTIRUTU DAY	SUB COUNTY
350	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	NTULILI DAY	SUB COUNTY
351	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	THUBUKU DAY	SUB COUNTY
352	MERU	TIGANIA EAST	THUURIA DAY	SUB COUNTY
353	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KUNENE SEC	SUB COUNTY
354	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MUCUUNE SEC	SUB COUNTY
355	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	THINYAINE SEC	SUB COUNTY
356	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MIATHENE DAY SEC	SUB COUNTY
357	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	URRU SEC	SUB COUNTY
358	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	ST. JOHNS NCOORO	SUB COUNTY
359	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	LUBUNU SEC	SUB COUNTY
360	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	THAU SEC	SUB COUNTY

361	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MACHEGENE SEC	SUB COUNTY
362	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MACHAKU SEC	SUB COUNTY
363	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MUTIONJURI	SUB COUNTY
364	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	LACIATHURIU	SUB COUNTY
365	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KALIATI SEC	SUB COUNTY
366	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	NKANGA SEC	SUB COUNTY
367	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KAAMU SEC	SUB COUNTY
368	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	TWALE SEC	SUB COUNTY
369	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIBIRU SEC	SUB COUNTY
370	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KITHIIRI SEC	SUB COUNTY
371	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MAKANDI SEC	SUB COUNTY
372	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	NAIRIRI SEC	SUB COUNTY
373	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	K.K. LUMBI SEC	SUB COUNTY
374	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIRUKIRE SEC	SUB COUNTY
375	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KAMAROO DAY	SUB COUNTY
376	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	AMWARI	SUB COUNTY
377	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	LAIRANGI DAY	SUB COUNTY
378	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MWANIKA DAY	SUB COUNTY
379	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	K.K. RWANJWEE	SUB COUNTY
380	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KAMITONGU	SUB COUNTY
381	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIORIMBA SEC	SUB COUNTY
382	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MWERONKORO	SUB COUNTY
383	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	NTIBA MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
384	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	AMATU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
385	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	MITUNTU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
386	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	ST. AUGUSTINE DAY	SUB COUNTY
387	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	NTOOMBO MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY

388	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	KIANDIU MIXED DAY	SUB COUNTY
389	MERU	TIGANIA WEST	NKURARE DAY	SUB COUNTY
390	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	ACK MITUNGUU	SUBCOUNTY
391	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KIANGUA SEC	SUBCOUNTY
392	MERU	MERU CENTRAL	MWANGANTHIA SEC	SUBCOUNTY
393	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	ATHIRU GAITI	SUBCOUNTY
394	MERU	IMENTI SOUTH	KIANJOGU DAY	SUBCOUNTY
395	MERU	IGEMBE SOUTH	MAUA DAY	SUBCOUNTY

Appendix 8: NACOSTI Research Permit



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 734529

Date of Issue: 23/October/2020

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. MISHECK MUTUMA M'MUYURI of Kenya Methodist University, has been licensed to conduct research in Meru on the topic: EFFECTS OF EDUCATION DEMOCRATIZATION ON STUDENTS' DISCIPLINE IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF MERU COUNTY - KENYA for the period ending : 23/October/2021.

License No: NACOSTI/P/20/7267

734529

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

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THE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION ACT, 2013

The Grant of Research Licenses is Guided by the Science, Technology and Innovation (Research Licensing) Regulations, 2014

CONDITIONS

1. The License is valid for the proposed research, location and specified period
2. The License any rights thereunder are non-transferable
3. The Licensee shall inform the relevant County Director of Education, County Commissioner and County Governor before commencement of the research
4. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further necessary clearance from relevant Government Agencies
5. The License does not give authority to tranfer research materials
6. NACOSTI may monitor and evaluate the licensed research project
7. The Licensee shall submit one hard copy and upload a soft copy of their final report (thesis) within one year of completion of the research
8. NACOSTI reserves the right to modify the conditions of the License including cancellation without prior notice

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