RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELECTED COMMUNITY CAPITALS AND LEVEL OF PARENTAL PARTICIPATION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN MIGORI COUNTY, KENYA

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A Thesis submitted to the Graduate School in partial fulfillment for the requirements of the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Community Studies and Extension of Egerton University

EGERTON UNIVERSITY

FEBRUARY, 2019

DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

I declare that this is my original work and that it has not been presented in this or any other university for the award of any academic qualifications.

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ED21/04085/14

Signature……. Date……..

Recommendation

The work has been presented with our approval as University Supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my father, the late Hezbon Aoyi Jomune, who tirelessly inculcated in me a culture of focused hard work, honesty and humility to everyone. Such a culture was necessary to undertake a study of this kind. I owe my success in this study to the gift of that culture.

The study is also dedicated to my mother, the late Juliana Akong'o Aoyi. Although she did not have the opportunity to go to school, like me, she had an immense passion for schooling. That passion inspired me and contributed to the motivation I had to undertake this study to its successful completion.

Last, but not least, the study is dedicated to the members of my family. They provided a warm and lovely home environment that was very conducive for carrying out this study. The emotional support you provided me contributed immensely to the success of this study. To my children, in particular, may the success of this study be an inspiration to you to continue scaling the heights of education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I wish to give glory and honour to the Almighty God for granting me good health and safe journeys during the study. I also wish to thank Egerton University for offering me the opportunity and providing a conducive environment for this study.

This study was possible through contributions of a number of people whom I would like to acknowledge and thank. I wish to sincerely thank my university supervisors, Dr. Catherine Ng'endo Munyua and Prof. Dolphine Odero-Wanga, both of the Department of Applied Community Development Studies, Egerton University, for their guidance which was of great help in the study. I wish also to thank the headteachers of the schools which I used for collecting data and the parents of Standard Seven pupils in those schools who spared their valuable time to give information that I required for this study.

Special appreciation goes to staff of the Centre for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in Africa (CEMASTEA) for encouragement and advice. I wish to sincerely thank my wife, Linet Atieno, for the emotional support I received from her and for providing a conducive home environment for the study. I am grateful my friends for their continued encouragement and prayers during the entire period of this study. Last, but not least, my appreciation goes to many other people, whom I have not mentioned by name but made useful contributions in this study.

May God bless all of them.

ABSTRACT

At the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) made in Jomtiem, Thailand, in 1990, it was decided that there would be more involvement of parents in the education programmes, under the principle of building partnerships and mobilizing resources. One of the commitments of the Government of Kenya to this declaration is to provide policy and legal frameworks of involving the parental participation in the education of their children. However, there has public concern by the members of Migori County that lack of the desired level of parental participation is one of the factors contributing to relatively low standards of education in the county. The concerns have also pointed out a possible relationship between the community capitals and parental participation in education. Little research has been conducted on this relationship in Migori County. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to investigate the relationship between the community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County, in the south-western part of Kenya. The scope of the study was limited to four selected community capitals, which were human capital, social capital, cultural capital and financial capital. The study was a survey in which the target population comprised all the parents who have children in the primary schools, from which the parents who have children in Standard Seven formed the accessible population. A study sample of 436 parents and 16 headtachers was obtained through stratified multi-stage, purposive and simple random sampling procedures. Parents' questionnaires, headteachers' questionnaires and document analysis guides were used to collect data. The content validity of the instruments was ascertained by experts in education and community development and construct validity was confirmed through Exploratory Factor Analysis. The study was piloted in Homa Bay County, which neighbours Migori County. The main source of data, the parent's questionnaire had a reliability of .82 based on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The study found out that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between all the four community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education. The study concluded that an improvement in the four community capitals, which were human, social, cultural and financial, in Migori County could result into a higher level of parental participation in the education of their children. The study therefore recommended the up-scaling and optimum utilization of the community capitals to improve the standard of education in the County.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAPOR	American Association for Public Opinion Research
ARP	Access-Responsive Participation
BOM	Board of Management
CBE	Competency-Based Education
CCF	Community Capitals Framework
CDE	County Director of Education
CFS	Child Friendly Schools
CPE	Certificate of Primary Education
EFA	Education for All
FPE	Free Primary Education
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GRP	Gender-Responsive Participation
KAPE	Kenya African Primary Education
KCPE	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
Ksh	Kenya shilling
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGCDF	National Government Constituency Development Fund
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NTA	National Taxpayers Association
QRP	Quality-Responsive participation
SCDE	Sub-county Director of Education
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SHGs	Self-Help Groups
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations

UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
US	United States

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The extent of the achievement of the education-related goals in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) did not rely only on school-based factors but also on the wider community-based factors, according to Ngwaru and Oluga (2015). Drawing from research, Roche (2013) notes that community-based factors, such as parental participation, play as great if not a greater role than formal learning in a child's success at school, especially primary school. Parental participation is the contribution of ideas, money and materials by parents in the education of their children (Dale, 2008). Goal Four of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all, focuses on education and hence parental participation is important for its achievement. The importance of parental participation in primary education was affirmed at the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) made in Jomtiem, Thailand, in 1990, where it was decided that there would be more involvement of parents in the education programmes, under the principle of building partnerships and mobilizing resources (UNESCO, 1990).

Parental participation in the education of their children, however, is not just as a partnership, but a responsibility. In emphasizing the importance of parental participation, UNESCO (2017) noted that, as much as education is important to the children, they cannot secure their right to education by themselves but have to rely on their parents, teachers, and other members of the community. The parents' role of up-bringing their children is incomplete without supporting the education of the children. Parents are the first educators of their children and that the support they provide affects their children's learning and development. Mahuro and Hungi (2016) observe that if children are to reap maximum benefits in their education then they must enjoy parental support. Increasing evidence indicates that the responsibility of promoting children's education does not lie on schools alone but also on families and community whereby they are engaged in helping the children develop the knowledge and skills they need to effectively function in the society (Byun, Meece, Irvin & Hutchins, 2012). Educationists are therefore in agreement that education does not only take place in schools but also within families and the community at large, hence no single agent, such as the state, has the whole responsibility for educating children. Carolan-Silva (2011) also observes that in countries with universal education, researchers and policy makers have focused on parental participation in children's education as a means to promote higher academic achievement. A demonstration of the importance of parental participation has been witnessed in

England where a policy intervention was put in place to offer parenting classes through a trial initiative from 2012 to 2014, called CANParent, which laid emphasis on the importance of a conducive home environment (Vincent, 2017).

Parental participation occupies an important place in complementing the contribution of the Government. Some of the ways in which the parents complement the contribution of the Government are contributing ideas on how to improve quality of learning, providing money to improve infrastructure, and buy reading materials for their children (Nyabuto & Njoroge, 2014). There is substantial research evidence that parental participation in their children's schooling gives a positive effect on their learning outcomes. Parental participation has been recognized as an invaluable input in the education of their children because education does not only take place in school but also at home and in the community at large (Ngwaru & Oluga, 2015). According to Roche (2013), the home and family life very often outweighs what occurs in the classroom.

The Government of Kenya is keen on achieving international and national commitments on education. The Constitution of Kenya stipulates that education is a right of the child and obligates both the government and the parents to facilitate acquisition of basic quality education for all children (Republic of Kenya, 2010, 2014). One of the ways of the Government ensures quality education is to provide policy and legal frameworks of involving the parental participation in the management of the schools. For example, the Education Act of 2013, it is mandatory for each school, both public and private to have a Parents and Teachers Association (PTA), which provides forums for all the parents to actively participate in making decisions that concern the learning of their children (Republic of Kenya, 2013b). All public schools, according to the Act, must have a Board of management in which six of the fourteen members are parents of children learning in the school. On ensuring access to education, the Act spells out that it is the duty of every parent to present the child for admission to basic education and to ensure that the child attends school regularly.

Other than the Government, a number of development actors in Kenya have also focused on strengthening parental participation. For example, capacity-building of parents to enhance their participation in the education of their children has been a key focus by the National Taxpayers Association (NTA). Through the School Report Card (SRC) project that was introduced in 2009, NTA and the Ministry of Education involves the parents in taking a more active role in improving the quality of education in their local primary schools in order to enhance accountability and management of primary education (National Taxpayers Association, 2015). Currently, the curriculum for basic education in Kenya is undergoing reforms to align it with the competency-

based education. One of the guiding principles in aligning the curriculum to the competency-based education is parental participation. In this principle, it is noted that parents play a very important role in determining the success of a child's education and that they have a shared responsibility with schools to provide an enabling environment that is conducive to learning and which motivates the children to achieve their full potential (Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development [KICD], 2017).

Due to importance of parental participation in achieving desired education outcomes, a lot of literature continue to focus on it (Domina, 2005). A review of a number of literature shows that there are two directions taken by research on parental participation in education. One direction focuses on the parental participation in relation to the achievement of education outcomes, such as in Loomis and Akkari (2012) and Jeynes (2005). In taking this direction, it should be noted that parental participation occurs within the wider contexts situated in the community (Mahuro & Hungi, 2016; Ziersch, Osborne & Baum, 2011). Barton, Drake, Perez, St. Louis and George (2004) note that parental participation in education is a set of relationships and actions that are produced and bounded by the context in which that participation takes place. Wiebe (2011) observes that although participation of community members is frequently referred to in the development literature, the factors that influence participation are less explored. For that reason, the second direction focuses on the community contexts underlying the parental participation in education. According to the determinist paradigm (Feldman & Chandrashekar, 2018), when a government provides educational opportunities, the parents respond by sending their children to school. However, the decision of the parents about accessing schooling does not occur in a vacuum but in their contexts. Empirical studies have established a positive relationship between community contexts and participation, since the contexts shape the individual perceptions of local conditions and their behaviour (Magwa & Mugari, 2017). Despite the evidence that parental participation has a relationship with the community contexts, more studies have focused on the outcomes of parental participation than on the contexts affecting the participation (Smrekar & Cohen-Vogel, 2004). This is a gap that needs to be addressed. This study therefore sought to contribute information that addresses the gap.

The community contexts are many and varied. According to Flora Cornelia, Flora Jan, Fey and Emery (2007), one of the community contexts that impact on development activities are the community capitals. Flora et al. (2007) observe that the communities that realized sustainable development, such as in education, were effectively utilizing all the categories of the community capitals. Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe and Newton (2009) share the same view and note that the

contributions of the members of a community are reinforced by integrating its capital stocks in all dimensions of development activities.

The term 'capital' is closely related to 'resource'. Capital is a resource that can be used to produce other resources (Flora & Thiboumery, 2005). For example, financial capital of a parent can be used to facilitate the education, a form of human capital, of their children. Parents who have good social networks (social capital) can use it to acquire financial capital which in turn can be used to facilitate education of the children. A community capital, therefore means the resources available for use within the community to produce other resources. Although some of the capitals may seem to be possessed at the individual level, they are still community capitals since their source is the community and they are also used in the community.

The categories into which the community capitals are put varies with scholars and has also varied with time. Economists in the Eighteenth Century, notably Adams Smith, perceived capitals into three categories, namely, money, labour and land (Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe & Newton, 2009; Goodwin, 2006). Later, especially with the emergence of participatory approaches to development in the early 1990s and improvements in technology, new perceptions of development emerged (Willis, 2005). For the Eighteenth Century economists, economic growth was the only indicator of development, but the proponents of participatory approaches to development hold a wider view of development, hence the recognition of its non-economic dimensions. They point out that recognizing the 'non-economic' dimensions of development is justified since communities are known to invest in some items or features of capital for non-economic reasons.

The use of the term 'community capitals' instead of simply 'capitals' became more frequent when referring to the participatory approaches to development. This is mainly because the principle underlying participatory development is the active involvement of the community. Embracing the participatory approaches to development, Flora Cornelia, Flora Jan, Fey and Emery (2007) identify the community capitals into seven categories, namely, natural (environmental) capital, produced (physical) capital, human capital, social capital, cultural capital, political capital and financial capital. A number of literature (Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe & Newton, 2009; Goodwin, 2006; Jacobs, 2011b; Green & Haines, 2008; Flora and Thiboumery (2005) consider political capital as part of social capital, hence identify only six categories of community capitals. This study, therefore, identified six categories of community capitals. They are natural (environmental) capital, produced (physical) capital, human capital, social capital, cultural capital and financial capital. The natural capital consists of the natural resources available in a community. The produced capital are the non-movable human-constructed physical infrastructure, such as buildings, and movable materials, such as books. The human capital are the acquired attributes of individuals such as

education, leadership abilities and occupation. Social capital are the formal and informal interactions and networks among individuals and groups in a community. Cultural capital are the actions, attitudes and values that make a group of people have a shared identity. Financial capital consists of the public and private financial resources.

Public concerns that suggest a possible relationship between the community capitals and the participation of parents in primary education in Migori County have been noticeable. For example, in a consultative forum held in 2001 to identify development opportunities and challenges in Migori District, now Migori County, it was observed that the negative attitude of parents toward education, child labour and early marriages constitute the main problems in education in the County (Republic of Kenya, 2001). Twelve years later, the County Government of Migori made the same observation in its development plan for the year 2013-2017 (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). The County Government observed that almost half (49%) of children aged 5-14 are engaged in some kind of child labour, thus compromising their enrolment and attendance in primary education. The child labour is mainly in tobacco farming, mining and fishing sectors. To some parents, child labour is a means of improving their financial capital. These are cases where low financial capital could be impacting negatively on the access to primary education.

In the development plan, the County Government also observes that access to education for girls is further impacted on negatively by certain cultural orientations that encourage or condone early marriages and early pregnancies. About 17% of women aged between 15 and 49 years are married before the age of 15 years (Republic of Kenya, 2013a), thus compromising their transition to secondary education. The observations of the consultative forum and the County Government also suggest an influence of cultural capital of a community on the parental participation in the education. The attitude of the parents is an aspect of cultural capital in the community. This cultural capital also influences the parents' decisions on child labour and early marriages.

Human capital and social capital are also implied in the problems cited for Migori County through public forums. For example, certain human attributes such as low education and interactions with other people, that is, social capital, can have a bearing on certain cultural inclinations. Although the observations on the parental participation in education have been documented by the County Government of Migori, no study has been done to establish them. Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014) observe that there is little research on the community contexts and participation of parents in the education of their children in the East African region. In this regard, this study sought to provide empirical data on the relationship between the level of parental participation in primary education and the community capitals in Migori County, which is a region in East Africa.

The level of parental participation should be viewed in the background of the status of education in the county. A standard approach of determining the status of education is by reference to the internationally recognized education outcomes. These outcomes are about equitable access to education (across age, region and gender) and quality (United Nations [UN], 2015c; UNESCO, 2005). Indeed, the desirable education outcomes should be an equitable access to quality education, as captured in Goal Four of the SDGs. In this study, the parental participation will, therefore, be viewed with respect to the 'access' and 'quality' aspects of education outcomes. Some of the conventional indicators of education outcomes are; gross enrolment rate, net enrolment rate, completion rate, gender parity, attendance rate, transition rate and academic achievements. The enrolment, attendance, completion and transition rates are determinants of the level of access.

The role of the parents in the access to education is important since they influence whether the children enroll in a school (enrolment rate), how frequently the children go to school (attendance rate), for how long they stay in school (completion rate), whether or not they proceed to the next level (transition rate) and on the academic achievements (Ngwaru & Oluga, 2015; UNESCO, 2017). The quality of education is determined by the knowledge, skills and values which the children acquire through education. The parents are also expected to play a significant role in the quality of education of their children, for example, by providing them with learning materials, helping them in their assignments and instilling positive values in them.

Table 1 shows a comparison of the status of primary education in Kenya generally and in Migori County in particular. The comparison is based on the main indicators of education outcomes. Data on the indicators of education outcomes in Migori County is available for only 2009 and 2013, hence the reason for using the two years in the comparison. The data for the year 2009 was meant to inform the development plan for Migori District, now Migori County, and the data for 2013 was to inform the first development plan for the County.

Table 1 *Comparison of selected education indicators in Kenya and Migori County*

	2009		2013	
Education indicator in Primary Education	**Kenya**	**Migori County**	**Kenya**	**Migori County**
Gross enrolment Rate (GER), %	110	133	119	103
Net enrolment Rate (NER), %	92.9	76	95	72
Completion Rate (%)	83.2	42	80	70
Transition rate to secondary education (%)	66.9	35	77	52
Gender Parity Index	0.97	0.92	-	-

Sources:
Republic of Kenya. (2014). *Education for all 2015 national review*.
Republic of Kenya. (2009). *Migori district development plan 2008-2012.*
Republic of Kenya. (2013a). *Migori county development plan 2013-2018*.

Information in Table 1 shows that in Migori County, in 2009 and 2013, the gross enrolment rate (GER) reduced by 30%, completion rate increased by 28%, transition to secondary improved by 17%, but the net enrolment rate (NER) declined by 4%. Despite the improvement in GER, completion rate and transition rate, it is worth noting that the achievement of the education outcomes in the County for the two years lags behind the average for Kenya. As at 2013, the GER in primary education for Migori County is 103%, revealing that at least 3% of the pupils completing primary education comprises those who are either below or above the standard completion age. In Kenya the official age-group for primary education is from 6 to 13 years (Republic of Kenya, 2014). This means that a child is expected to enroll in Standard One when 6 years old and reach Standard Eight when 13 years old. The implication of a GER which is above 100% is that there are circumstances in the county which prevents some children from joining primary education at the expected age. According to the County Government of Migori, a number of pupils complete primary education when they are older than 13 years (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). The net enrolment rate (NER) of 72% as at 2013, for primary education in Migori County is still much below the desired 100%, apart from being below the country's average of 95%. This shows that 28% of the children within the primary school age bracket in Migori County were not attending primary education as at the year 2013.

A 70% completion rate of primary education in the county, as at 2013, shows that the proportion of the children enrolled in the first grade (Standard One) who do not complete the last grade (Standard Eight) was 30%. In terms of transition rate to secondary education, about half (48%) of

the children who complete primary education in Migori County do not proceed to secondary school. The low completion and transition rates in the county have been attributed mainly to early marriages (mainly for girls) and child labour (Republic of Kenya, 2009, 2013a), which is related to the cultural capital. It is important to note that primary education builds the foundations in basic literacy and numeracy while secondary education equips its graduates with basic skills and knowledge for most of the job market. The transition from primary to secondary education is, therefore, important in education.

Gender parity in the county for primary education, at 0.92 as at 2009, shows that the proportion of girls who are attending primary at that time was lower than that of boys by about 8%. This state of affairs is likely to remain the same, going by the observations by the County Government of Migori that drop-outs of girls from primary education due to early marriages and early pregnancies is yet to be properly addressed (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). A gender parity of 1.0 would be the ideal since the population of females is approximately equal to that of males, that is, 50.3% of total population are females and 49.7% are males (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics [KNBS], 2010).

The performance of Migori County in primary education also lags behind that of the contemporary counties, which are Homa Bay and Kisii, as shown in Table 2. The counties were considered contemporary because they neighbor Migori County.

Table 2 *Comparison of selected education indicators in Homa Bay, Kisii and Migori counties*

Education indicator in Primary Education	**Homa Bay County**	**Kisii County**	**Migori County**
Net enrolment Rate (NER), % as at 2014	98	99	95
Completion Rate (%) as at 2011	72	73	69
Transition rate to secondary education (%) as at 2011	57	73	52

Sources:
Ministry of Education Science and Technology. (2014). *2014 Basic Education Statistical Booklet.*
Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. (2011). *Multiple Indicator Custer Survey 2011.*

The indicators for primary education in Migori as depicted in Table 1 and Table 2 are indications that the county is likely to be one of the counties that holds Kenya back in efforts to achieve Goal Four of the SDGs and the national commitments to development. The education indicators are also reflections of the observations made at the county's consultative forum held in 2001 and in the development plan for 2013-2017 that the relatively poor status of primary education could have a relationship with the community capitals.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The government of Kenya introduced free primary education in the year 2003, with the aim of improving the education outcomes in that level of education. To achieve this aim the government has also continuously committed resources to improve the quality of primary education, specifically by providing learning materials and employing teachers. The government has also provide policy and legal frameworks for parental participation in the education of their children. Despite this commitment of the Government, the achievement of the education outcomes, such as net enrolment, completion and transition rates in Migori County is still below the national average, that of the neighbouring counties, and are also far below the desirable maximum levels. Public concerns expressed to the County Government of Migori suggest that weak and retrogressive parental participation are among the causes of low standards of primary education in the county. It has been pointed out through such concerns that a number of parents allow and aid child labour for financial income and early marriages. The parents, reportedly, also condone early pregnancies, which compromise access to education by the girls. These concerns point to a possible relationship between the human, social, cultural and financial capitals of the community in the county and parental participation in primary education. However, little research has been carried on this, a situation which constrains evidence-based agenda on how to improve parental participation in primary education in the county. There was therefore a need to document the level of parental participation in primary education in the county and its relationship with the four capitals.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The findings of the investigation may be useful in improving parental participation in the education of their children.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by the following objectives.

i. To determine the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.
ii. To establish the relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.
iii. To examine the relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.
iv. To determine the relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in education.

$H_0$4: There is no statistically significant relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.

1.6 Significance of the study

This study is significant to the Kenya vision 2030, competency-based education in Kenya and the County Government of Migori, as described in this section.

Significance to the Kenya Vision 2030

In the Kenya Vision 2030 social strategy, one of the overall goals for education is to increase access to education, improve the transition rate from primary to secondary schools, and raising the quality (Republic of Kenya, 2007). Parental participation is important in the access to education, transition rate and quality. This study provides information that may be useful in enhancing parental participation in the education of their children hence contributing to the aspirations in the Vision 2030.

Significance to the competency-based education in Kenya

Education in Kenya is currently transiting from the 8-4-4 system of education, introduced in 1985, to the competency-based education (CBE). The '8-4-4' stands for eight years of primary education, four years of secondary education and a minimum of four years for the university education. A summative evaluation of the curriculum done in 2009 showed that the 8-4-4 system of education is largely academic and examination oriented and has not adequately facilitated the learning of practical skills that enable learners address the problems in the community (KICD, 2017). According to KICD, the vision for the shift to the CBE is to enable every Kenyan to be an engaged and empowered citizen. The engagement and empowerment of every citizen provides opportunities for the learners to adequately apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes that they acquire in education to the contexts of the communities to which they belong. Within the vision of CBE, the Kenyan teacher is required to collaborate with stakeholders, such as the parents, who influence the learning of the child. The collaboration between teachers and parents entails knowledge on how parents should meaningfully participate in the education of their children. This

study may, therefore, contribute useful information for the teachers and the Board of Management (BOM) on how to engage and empower the parent as envisaged in the CBE.

Information on the community capitals in this study may also be of help to the teachers and BOM in identifying the potentials of the parents that can be harnessed for the improvement of education. For example, the human capital, in form of knowledge and skills, in the community can be identified and tapped by using members of the community as co-teachers in the schools. Information on the cultural capital in this study may help the schools in recognizing and commending the cultural practices that are responsive to the desired education outcomes. Such commendations reinforce the positive cultural practices. On the other hand, the schools may use information in this study to engage the parents in discouraging the undesirable cultural practices. This study also provides information on the social capital of the parents that may be useful to the schools. For example, they may find the importance of using social formations such as self-help groups as a vehicle for empowering the parents to enhance their participation in the education of their children. The engagement of the parents under the aspirations of the CBE involves giving parents feedback on their level of participation, with the main aim that the feedback challenges them to continually improve. The information in this study on the level of parental participation may be useful to the schools in identifying the aspects of participation that need to be strengthened. In general, this study provides information which may be useful to teachers, management of schools and other stakeholders in developing a framework for empowering and engaging the parents in the education of the children.

Significance to the County Government of Migori

One of the reasons for conducting a study is to get information which can be used in development programmes and other studies (Fink, 2013). This study may, therefore, contribute to the body of knowledge that informs public policy on the development programmes by the County Government of Migori. According to Stone (2004), public policy cannot aim to facilitate the growth of communities rich in a certain capital with accuracy until we are able to describe and measure what roles the capital plays within them. This study provides information on whether community capitals play any role in primary education. The county government has the obligation to promote social and economic development as spelt out in Article 174 of the Constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010). The establishment of the semi-autonomous county government system by the Constitution of Kenya requires the county governments to have adequate information on the status of the wellbeing of the people at the grassroots so that they can address problems that are specific to its people. This study may assist in providing information to the County Government

of Migori in its development plans for improving primary education. For example, the information on the level of financial capital of the parents may be useful in prioritizing the establishment of some income-generating activities in the county to enhance the financial capital.

A county government has the responsibility of coordinating the management of schools in the county, particularly in terms of access to education and the provision of infrastructure. In carrying out this responsibility, it is important that the management of schools mobilize the parents to participate in the education of children. Each school in Kenya has a Board of Management (BOM), which is appointed by the National Government to work together with the County government in the management of schools. The information availed through this study may be useful to the BOM of the schools in formulating strategies to mobilize parents and other members of the community for enhanced participation in education. Other development actors, such as the non-governmental organizations (NGOs), may also find the information useful for resource mobilization.

1.7 Scope of the study

Six types of community capitals, which are natural capital, produced capital, human capital, social capital, cultural capital and financial capital, have been mentioned earlier in the chapter. The study, however, focused on four of the capitals, that is, human capital, social capital, cultural capital and financial capital. Natural (or environmental) capital was not examined in this study since it does not vary significantly in the study area. The natural capital also has a significant bearing on the financial capital, which was within the scope of the study. The produced capital, which are the non-movable human-constructed physical infrastructure and movable materials was also not be examined in this study since it is provided by many other agents outside the community, other than the parents.

Parental participation in education consists of a wide range of activities. The scope of parental participation in the study was conceptualized within the three education outcomes; access, quality and gender parity. The study was conducted in Migori County, targeting parents of children in the primary schools.

1.8 Assumptions of the study

The following were the assumptions that were made in the study.

i. All forms of community capitals are available in Migori County.
ii. The capitals at the family levels, cumulatively contribute to the community capitals.
iii. The level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County is a normal distribution.

iv. The children enroll in Standard One at 6 years old, progress with schooling uninterrupted by circumstances such as sickness, and reach Standard Seven at 12 years old.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The following were the limitations of the study.

i. Some of the parents were not able to read and write. For such parents, the questionnaire was read to them and their responses recorded by the researcher or the assistants.

ii. Some of the parents, although literate, did not understand English, the language in which the questionnaire was written. The Questionnaire was therefore written in English and Kiswahili versions.

1.10 Operational definitions of terms

The following are the operational definitions of terms that are central to this study.

Access-responsive participation: In the study, this means the actions of a parent which enable their children to enroll in school at the right age, attend school regularly and continue to the completion of primary education. This meaning is derived from UNESCO (1990), where access to education is defined as enrollment in an organized education programme, continued participation in it and completing it to its certification requirements.

Capital: A resource that can be used to produce other resources (Flora & Thiboumery, 2005). The same meaning is used in the study.

Community: In this study, this means a group of parents who have children in primary schools in Migori County. In a wider context, community is a group of people who live in a defined geographical area and share common institutional structures, values, norms, beliefs and interests (Green & Haines, 2008).

Community capital: In this study, community capital means the resources available for use within the community to produce other resources. This meaning is derived from that of capital by Flora and Thiboumery (2005) and that of community by Green and Haines (2008).

Completion rate: The number of pupils who complete the last grade in a given level of education expressed as a percentage of those who enrolled in the first grade in this level of education (UNESCO, 2009). The same definition was used in this study.

Cultural capital: In this study, cultural capital means the attitudes of the parents towards primary education for their children and the value that they attach to education. The meaning is derived from Green and Haines (2008) who describe cultural capital as the actions, beliefs, attitudes, and values that make people have a shared identity as a community.

Education outcomes: What happens to students as a result of the objectives and inputs of an education programme (Eduventures, 2015). The same definition was used in this study.

Financial capital: In this study, financial capital comprised the income, expenditure and assets of the parents and that of the households to which they belonged. The meaning is derived from Po, Finlay, Brewster and Canning (2012), who describe financial capital as comprising of income, expenditure and assets.

Gender: The social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female (Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women [OSAGI], 2004). The same meaning is used in the study.

Gender parity index: The number of girls enrolled in a given level of education expressed as a fraction of the number of boys enrolled in the same level of education (United Nations, 2015c). The same definition was used in this study.

Gender-responsive participation: In the study, this means the actions of a parent that provide equal opportunities in primary education to girls and boys in terms of access and quality. The meaning is based on that of gender (OSAGI, 2004) and that of participation (Dale, 2008).

Gross enrolment rate (GER): The total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year (UNESCO, 2009). The same definition was used in this study.

Human capital: In this study, it is the education level, ability to speak the language of instruction at school, occupation, leadership ability, self-esteem, and passion for education of a parent. This meaning is derived from Flora and Thiboumery (2005), who define human capital as the acquired attributes of individuals that contribute to their ability to sustain or improve their individual well-being and that of the community.

Level of parental participation: In the study, this means the extent to which a parent exhibits access-responsive participation, gender-responsive participation and quality-responsive participation.

Net enrolment rate: The enrolment of the official age-group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the population of the age-group (UNESCO, 2009). The same definition was used in this study.

Parent: A mother, father or guardian of a child and includes any person who is responsible under the law to maintain a child or is entitled to a child's custody (Republic of Kenya, 2013b). The same definition was used in this study.

Parental participation: In the study, this means the contribution of ideas, money and materials by parents in the education of their children at primary school. The meaning is based on that of parent by the Republic of Kenya (2013b) and that of participation by Dale (2008).

Participation: The contribution of ideas, money, materials and service by an individual, a group of individuals or an institution (Dale, 2008). In this study participation means the contribution of ideas, materials and service by the parents towards education of their children.

Quality of education: The extent to which learning in an organized education programme translates into the acquisition of useful knowledge, skills and values (UNESCO, 1990). The same meaning was applied in this study.

Quality-responsive participation: In the study, this means the contribution of ideas, money and materials by parents to help their children learn effectively in the various subjects offered in the primary education.

Social capital: In the study, this means the relationships with close relatives (brothers, sisters, and cousins), trust, interactions or networks with other people in civic and faith-based groups and reciprocity (giving ideas to help other children in the community). The meaning is derived from Emery, Fey, and Flora (2006), who describe social capital as the connections between people and organizations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education. This chapter starts by a review of how the human, social, cultural and financial capitals have been conceptualized in various literature and how they are related to the parental participation in education and how they have been measured. This is followed by a review of literature on the conceptualization and measurement of parental participation in the education. The chapter ends with a discussion on the community capitals framework as the theoretical framework, from which the conceptual framework of the study was derived.

2.2 Aspects of human capital and their relationship with parental participation

In this section, the aspects of human capital are identified from various literature. The relationship between these aspects and parental participation from various literature are also discussed.

The aspects of human capital

This study identified two viewpoints in conceptualizing human capital. The first viewpoint is based on the individual attributes, something similar to personal property, and has been embraced in a number of literature. Goodwin (2006) views human capital as a stock of capabilities to provide services. These capabilities to offer this service depend on knowledge, education, training, skills and useful behavioral habits. For example, the help parents give to their children in their homework is a service that the parents offered to the education of their children. The capability of parents to help their children with homework depend on a number of attributes such as their knowledge of the content of the homework and the skill in helping a child learn. The capability of the parents, in this case, also depend on certain useful habits such as their interest in the homework and willingness to avail time for helping the children with homework. Flora and Thiboumery (2005), view human capital as the attributes of individuals that contribute to their ability to sustain or improve their individual well-being and that of the community. The attributes, according to them include leadership skills, general education background, health, native intelligence, self-esteem, experiences, passions, and willingness. Jacobs (2011b), defines human capital as all the skills and abilities of people, experience, leadership, knowledge, and the ability to access resources. According to Hallsmith and Lietaer (2008), human capital includes all the knowledge, skills, and capabilities that people already have accumulated and includes what they are willing to contribute to the community as a whole.

In the second viewpoint, the human is recognized as a 'creator' and hence human capital is the ability to create knowledge, skills and competencies (Kwon, 2009). Kwon asserts that this second viewpoint is more important than the first one because there is empirical evidence that human capital affects various other capitals. Kwon notes that as much as human capital is widely conceptualized as the attributes that enable humans to provide services, it is also important to note that the human being is the 'creator' of those attributes. Kwon adds that human capital takes charge of all economic activities. In the context of this study, participation in primary education is the economic activity. Bourdieu (2008), however, differ with the assertion of Kwon and notes that it is the cultural capital that determines the use of other community capitals. What is not in contention is that human capital plays a vital role in the development process.

Although this study acknowledges Kwon's conceptualization of human capital as human attributes and as the 'creator' of the attributes, a number of literature cited in this subsection seem to subsume the creator as aspect in the human attributes. In this study, therefore, the aspects of human capital were conceptualized as the human attributes, which were; the education level, ability to speak the language of instruction at school, occupation, leadership ability, self-esteem, and passion for education of a parent.

Human capital and parental participation in education

The education aspect of human capital is widely highlighted in various literature (Moore & Schmidt, 2004). A study in USA by Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) found out that parents with low educational attainment attach little value or interest to schooling. They observed that the parents' ability to monitor their children's homework was limited by their particular skills, formal education, and knowledge they possessed regarding the content of the homework. Some of the parents reported that their limited ability in English made it difficult to participate as fully as they would like to advance their children's academic success. In a study in Uganda, Mahuro and Hungi (2016) made a similar finding that the major reasons for low participation of parents in their children's academic work were their low literacy levels. In a case study in a school in Kenya, Miller and Elman (2013) report that teachers attributed poor performance of learners in English and Kiswahili to the inability of a large number of parents to speak the languages, hence they don't encourage their children to speak in the languages. English and Kiswahili are the two languages of instruction in Kenyan schools.

Studies by Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004), Mahuro and Hungi (2016) and Miller and Elman (2013) focused on the relationship between the education of the parents and the quality of education for their children. The three studies, however, noted that the elite and the relatively more

educated members of the community tend to dominate the decision-making. The three studies also found out the better-educated members dominate the positions in the School Management Committee (SMC), or by exerting more influence on decision-making if they are not members of the SMC. These studies did not focus on two other important aspects of education; access and gender parity. However, a study in Cyprus that was done by Symeou, Martínez-González and Álvarez-Blanco (2014) took a different perspective and focused on parents' education in relation to the access aspect of education. In the study, they found out that children of parents with lower education background were more likely to drop out of school than those of parents with better education background. In a study, which involved a review of a number of literature to find out the various ways in which parents in East Africa participate in education of their children, Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014), observe that parents are expected to participate in school decision-making aimed at impacting on education quality and access. These studies therefore seemed to have limited their scope on the parental participation to only two education outcomes – quality and access. This study extended this scope to include gender parity, which is another education outcome. Within this scope, one of the objectives of the study was to investigate the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.

Another aspect of human capital is the availability and willingness of the parents to participate in the education of their children. Human capital would be of no use to the individual or community if it is not put to use. In a study done in India to find out the factors which facilitate and those which impede community participation in primary education, Sharma, Burnette, Bhattacharya and Nath (2014) were told by the teachers who were respondents in the study, that lack of interest of the parents were the cause of low participation for the improvement of the quality of primary education. In the study, it was observed that school meetings were poorly attended by parents since they were rarely willing to stay in the meetings. Meetings provide suitable forums where the parents share knowledge on the education of their children. In another study using household-survey data from twenty nine African and Latin American communities, Awortwi (2012) noted that the willingness of the members of the community influenced their participation. Their availability at the meetings and willingness to contribute ideas during the meetings were important aspects of their participation. The parents are expected to be willing to share the ideas not only in meetings but also in other formal and informal interactions.

Experience in parenting roles is another aspect of human capital. Rispoli and Sheridan (2017) vividly capture the experience in parenting in their study to assess the feasibility of a parenting intervention for adolescent parents. Rispoli and Sheridan observed that the older parents had higher nurturing behavior and lower negativity in the parent-child interactions. Citing a number of

literature, they reasoned that the younger parents are less experienced in parenthood due to immaturity or role confusion, compared to the older parents. Children undergo a lot of learning at home hence the parenting experience is very important in their education. According to Bower and Griffin (2011), the experience of the parents should be reflected when they set clear and consistent behavioral rules for their children, engage in frequent and meaningful conversations with the children and encourage independence. In this study, the experience in parenting was measured in terms of the number of children that a parent has taken through primary education. This was considered a better measure than the age of the parents since some parents can be old but have fewer children than younger parents.

The importance of the leadership aspect of human capital in parental participation in education is largely uncontested. This is demonstrated by the fact that all schools involve parents in their leadership through formations such as School Management Committee (SMC), Parents and Teachers Association (PTA) and Board of Management (BOM). Lahtero and Kuusilehto-Awale (2013) note that leadership is no longer considered to be a reserve of only the heads of schools but participation in decision-making begins from the members of the school community. In fact, Nettles and Herrington (2007) point out that a component of effective leadership is the ability of the head of a school to involve the parents in the leadership of the school since researchers consistently cite community involvement as related to high-achieving schools. The heads of the schools therefore need to skillfully tap the diverse leadership abilities of the parents. Sharma, Burnette, Bhattacharya and Nath (2014) and Blimpo, Evans and Lahire (2015) emphasize the importance of leadership abilities in parental participation by noting that in cases where the leadership is found not adequate, interventions such as training the parents on leadership is necessary for their optimum participation. Leadership abilities of the parents demonstrated at the community level are also an important aspect of the human capital. Bower and Griffin (2011) point out that the leadership opportunities at the community level can be used by the parents to effectively advocate for good practices in education. In this study, the leadership ability of a parent was measured by whether the parent holds a leadership position in the school and the community. It was acknowledged that the leadership position at the school is likely to have more weight than leadership at the community in terms of participation. However, the fact that the leadership positions at a school are by far fewer than those at the community, it was considered a fair measure of leadership ability to capture leadership positions either at school or in the community.

The measurement of human capital in this study was based on the conceptualization of its aspects in relation to the parental participation. In identifying the aspects of human capital that should be used as measures, Kwon (2009) suggests that the authentic attributes that should be considered to

have significant contribution to human capital are those that have impact on the individual, organization and the society. The implication of Kwon's suggestion for this study is that the attributes identified should be those that have impact on the individual parents, the school (organization) and the community (society). The attributes used in measuring human capital in this study, therefore, were the education level of parents, literacy in English and Kiswahili, leadership ability, experience in educating children (measured by the number of children who have been taken through school by the parent), availability at school meetings and willingness to contribute ideas to other members of the community. Moore and Schmidt (2004) note that majority of literature are on the education aspect of human capital. This study endeavored to address this gap by not only focusing on the education aspect of human capital but also on other aspects considered relevant in the parental participation in the education of their children.

2.3 Aspects of social capital and their relationship with parental participation

In this section, the aspects of social capital are identified from various literature. The relationship between social capital and parental participation as established in various studies is also discussed.

The aspects of social capital

Social capital is premised on the fact that a human being is social by nature, and hence depends very much on the interactions with other human beings. A number of literature have delved into defining social capital. Bourdieu (2008), defines it as all kinds of civil society organizations and relationships which enable members of a community to work together to meet their needs. Stone (2004) seems to elaborate Bourdieu's definition by noting that relationships are characterised by norms of trust and reciprocity. Klamer (2005) defines social capital as the capacity to generate social values like friendship, collegiality, trust, respect, and responsibility. Flora, Flora, Fey and Emery (2007), define social capital as the close bonds between and among family and friends and other ties to people and organizations, such as those in a government office. The relationships, bonds and ties are formed and enacted through interactions with other people, for example, in clubs, welfare groups, faith-based groups, local non-governmental organizations (NGOs), associations and the government. In some literature, the relationships are referred to as networks (Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe, & Newton, 2009; Perna & Marvin, 2005; Goodwin, 2006).

It is important to note that the relationships conceptualized in the foregoing definitions of social capital are both formal and informal. This arises from the fact that the norms may be formalized, such as in the clubs, groups and associations, or informal, such as in the general expectation of good behaviour for a particular community. Hayami (2009), however, observes that social capital

should consist of only the informal relationships. He argues that true social capital is not enforced by the powers of the state, such as formal laws and policies, hence it must be viewed in terms of the informal relationships only. This observation presents the difficulty in marking the conceptual boundary between informal and formal relationships. It is perhaps due to this difficulty that the formal and informal relationships are embraced as aspects of social capital (Stone, 2004).

While agreeing that the social capital comprises the norms and relationships, Israel and Beaulieu (2004) note that it has two dimensions, which are the social structures and the interactive social capital. According to them, the extent to which the relationships, which they refer to as interactive social capital, are realized depend on the social structures. They give residential stability as one of the social structures for the social relationships to thrive. They note that the structures should be there at the family, school and community levels. Marschall (2004) also points out that residential stability, or public order, is an important aspect of social capital that can impact on the parental participation in education. School sessions in some communities, for example, have been disrupted due to conflicts, which essentially arise when the residential stability is missing. In such a situation, the parental participation will most likely be impeded. Also emphasizing on the importance of social structures, which they refer to as 'opportunity structures', Ziersch, Osborne and Baum (2011) note that a wider body of research has associated residential stability with social integration and that higher rates of residential turnover and mobility are thought to limit residents' ability to form relationships with others in the area. They further state other forms of the social structures such as local recreational facilities, open spaces and gathering places can facilitate community social interactions.

Although there are perceptions that the social structures should be distinct aspects of social capital, it appears that they are implied in the social interactions. This is because there would be little social interactions without the social structures. With this consideration, the scope of this study was limited to the aspects of social capital arising from the social interactions. The social interactions were then conceptualized in this study as comprising of the formal and informal relationships and interactions. Social capital, in this study, was therefore operationalized as the relationships with close relatives (brothers, sisters, and cousins), trust, interactions or networks with other people in civic and faith-based groups and reciprocity (giving ideas to help other children in the community). Social capital can be viewed as investment in relationships which emerge through interpersonal interactions and it serves public rather than interest of individuals (Israel & Beaulieu, 2004). For example, the relationships among adults and youths results into the adults having interest in the welfare of other people's children. This observation is shared by Abuya, Ngware, Mutisya and Nyariro (2016), who note that many people agree that the upbringing of a child is better with the

participation of the whole community than by individual parents. For this reason the community social capital plays a very important role in realizing the education outcomes. In the contemporary society, children are not near their parents for a significant part of their life. This is occasioned by the fact that many parents spend a lot of time in economic activities where they are far from their children. However, in most of the times, there are adults wherever the children are. Instilling discipline and other desirables in a child is then not the responsibility of the parents alone but of other adult members the community.

An important feature of social capital that should not escape notice is that its value tends to increase the more it is used and can depreciate through neglect (Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe, & Newton, 2009). The driving factor in increasing, or at least sustaining, social capital is reciprocity. According to Goodwin (2006), studies suggest that strong norms of reciprocity lead people to trust and to help one another, and that dense networks of civic participation encourage people to engage in mutually beneficial efforts rather than seeking only to gain individual advantage at the possible expense of others. Arregle, Hitt, Sirmon and Very (2007) assert that social capital is essentially the goodwill and resources made available to an individual or a group through reciprocal and trusting relationships. They add that increased interactions between actors aid the development and maintenance of mutual obligations in a social network. Hayami (2009) agrees with this assertion and emphasizes that reciprocal relationship must be mutual. The implication of this is that an individual engages in the formal and informal relationships that build social capital with the expectations that the other persons would reciprocate. With reciprocity, the social capital increases and without reciprocity the social capital is likely to decrease and eventually disappear. From the foregoing literature, the study identified the interactions and reciprocity as key aspects of scial capital.

Social capital and parental participation in education

Pishghadam, Noghani and Zabihi (2011) note that a number of studies concur that social capital is important in education and worthy of consideration by researchers and practitioners. Social capital can be understood as a resource for collective action, which may lead to a broad range of outcomes (Stone, 2004), such as participation in education. Goodwin (2006) observes that social capital encourages cooperation among groups of people, such as parents of children in a given school, whose joint and interdependent efforts are needed to achieve a common goal. This observation echoes what Mythili (2005) terms the ‘synergy view’ of social capital, in which the cooperation for realising a common goal is important. As the parents bring up children and guide them through their education process, the parents need to learn a lot from the other people. Social capital provides

a framework through which such learning can be realized. As Abenakyo, Sanginga, Njuki, Kaaria and Delve (2007) note, social capital supports learning through interaction and hence plays an important role in fostering the information exchange needed to achieve collective action. Perna and Marvin (2005) note that most education research stresses the role of social capital in communicating the norms, authority, and social controls that an individual must understand and adopt in order to succeed. In the context of education, it is important that parents, for example, understand the nature of the authority in charge of the management of education.

In their study, Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014) observe that there is a positive relationship between social capital and parental participation. In a paper on participation for educational change, Shaffer (2004) also observes that social capital, in the form of belonging to a group, supports the parental participation to improve the quality of education. In another paper based on a study carried out in Ghana to examine the community participation in schooling, Pryor (2005), however, differs with these observations and points out that a community is merely a geographical entity and does not translate into a sense of collectivity. He therefore asserts that it would not be right to assume that there is significant social capital in a community to have a bearing on participation in education. A study done in several villages in India to investigate the relationship between social capital and participation in education, Iyengar (2012) also showed that there was no relationship between social capital and education in the majority of the villages. This demonstrates that findings from studies on the relationship between the social capital and parental participation in education remain inconsistent. As Stone (2004) notes, the inconsistent findings could be as a result of conceptualizing social capital in relation to differing contexts. In this study, for example, social capital is conceptualized in relation to the parental participation. Nevertheless, it is envisaged that this study may still provide useful information about social capital in other contexts, apart from the parental participation.

Identification of the aspects social capital is a requisite for its empirical measurement, as evident in a number of studies. In a research paper to develop a framework for researching social capital in family and community life in Australia, Stone (2004) advances the use of three aspects of social capital, which are relationships, trust and reciprocity. In the paper, Stone also argues for using the various levels, that is, the family, friends, at the community, and beyond the community, for measuring social capital. According to Stone, the relationships at the family level and with the friends are largely informal and those at the community level and beyond are largely formal, such as formal groups, associations and networks with NGOs. In a study aimed at assessing the levels and aspects of social capital of a community in Uganda, Abenakyo, Sanginga, Njuki, Kaaria, and Delve (2007) considered social capital in three aspects; bonding, bridging and linking. Bonding

involves relationships within families and with friends, bridging involves networks within groups and the community, and linking involves networks outside the community. Stone (2004) and Abenakyo et al. (2007), therefore, share the view that social capital should be measured at the family, community, and beyond community levels.

It can then be noted that the forms of social capital, such as relationships, trust and reciprocity, should be measured at three levels; family, community and outside the community. Acknowledging that there are many aspects of social capital at each of the three levels, this study focused only on those aspects that were considered pertinent in the context of parental participation in education. The aspects identified in this study, therefore, were: relationships with close relatives such as brothers, sisters and cousins; trust, interactions with other people in a civic or a faith-based group and reciprocity through giving ideas to help other children in the community. These aspects were considered to encompass social capital at the family, community and outside the community. Stone (2004) observes that most of studies on social capital are based on secondary data, leaving a gap in terms of the availability of primary data. This study, therefore, may make a useful contribution to the body of primary data on social capital.

2.4 Aspects of cultural capital and their relationship with parental participation

In this section, the aspects of cultural capital are identified from various literature. The relationship between cultural capital and parental participation as established in various studies is also discussed.

The aspects of cultural capital

Flora, Flora, Fey and Emery (2007), describe cultural capital as the traditional ways of doing things, comprising the habits and attitudes. Common habits and attitudes among a group of people gives them an identity. Green and Haines (2008) describe cultural capital as the actions, beliefs, attitudes, and values that make people have a shared identity as a community. Sullivan (2007) views cultural capital simply as the ability to understand and use 'educated' language. This view fits well in the context of education. The 'educated' language comprises the attitudes, values and language of the parents. For example, a parent should have positive attitude towards education and inculcate values in their children which promote education. Cultural capital influences what voices are heard and listened to within a community, which voices have influence in what areas (Emery, Fey & Flora, 2006). Ways of knowing, ways of acting, what people value, what people take for granted, local talents, spirituality are examples of cultural capital. According to Dalziel, Saunders, Fyfe and Newton (2009), cultural capital is a set attitudes, practices and beliefs that are

fundamental to the functioning of different societies. What emerges from the foregoing definitions is that actions (practices), attitudes, beliefs and values are some of the aspects of cultural capital.

According to Zabihi and Pordel (2011), cultural capital stems from the Attribution Theory as advanced by Weiner. The theory is about people's beliefs about themselves and how they explain their real or perceived successes and failures. The importance attached to education the world over shows that the majority of people attribute success in life to education. On the other hand, some people attribute failure in life to education, surprisingly. Such different attributions to successes or failure, according to Zabihi and Pordel, are results of cultural differences. From the definitions of cultural capital captured at the forgoing paragraph, it can be argued that the attributions are within the beliefs and attitudes. For example, in communities where early marriages are espoused, the people generally believe that education beyond a certain age to be contributing to the 'failure' of the youth to give birth and raise children early enough in their lives (Keriga & Bujra, 2009; Chimombo, 2005). In this study then, attribution was not considered a distinct aspect of cultural capital, but a manifestation of beliefs and attitudes.

Klamer (2005) presents an assertive argument on the conceptualization of cultural capital, which is closely related to the Attribution Theory. He points out that cultural capital is recognized in the capacity to find meaning in all that we do. It follows then, that a person who attaches little meaning to education has low cultural capital in respect to education. Klamer's argument is closely related to the Attribution Theory in the sense that cultural capital enables us to attribute meanings to goods and services. He notes that although the amount of cultural capital seem not explicitly recognizable, it appears to account for the most important values of all, that is, the values that can give meaning to our life. According to Klamer, cultural capital and social capital are the ultimate goods for good life and good society, and that the other capitals (produced, natural, financial and human) are only instrumental. For example, the possession of a good education (human capital) is not the ultimate good but the values that accrue from it. In fact, UNESCO (1990) expanded the definition of quality education from focusing on skills and knowledge only, to include the development of desirable attitudes and values, which are aspects of cultural capital. In line with the assertion by Klamer, the attitudes and values are the ultimate goal of education and the skills and knowledge are just instrumental. Although this assertion could be contested, what is not in contention is that cultural capital, mainly manifested through attitudes and values, significantly determine what people invest in.

The concept of cultural capital has much of its roots on the theoretical and empirical work of Pierre Bourdieu, a social theorist. Bourdieu (2008)), is a strong advocate of incorporating the cultural

capital as one of the means of production and hence, an important aspect of development, which includes education. Munk and Krarup (2011) note that culture determines and influences the good manners in the educational system and the extent to which parents and children strive to obtain the recognition in meeting education outcomes. Marschall (2004) observes that culture influences how people utilize the other capitals. For example, certain parents may have adequate financial capital to enroll their children in school and maintain them to completion, yet they fail to do that because of a cultural orientation. Erdreich and Golden (2017) note that the cultural capital that parents use in the upbringing of their children is shaped and informed by the cultural capital of the whole community.

Through the literature reviewed, the study identified two aspects of cultural capital, which were the attitudes of the parents towards primary education for their children and the value that they attach to education. In this conceptualization, it was recognized that actions, beliefs and religiosity are also aspects of cultural capital that are captured in a number of literature. However, these aspects were considered to be adequately captured by the attitudes and values.

Cultural capital and parental participation in education

With the background that cultural capital may have a significant influence on what people do, a number of studies have been carried out on the relationship between cultural capital and parental participation. In particular, a number of studies have focused on the value parents attach to education in general and the value they attach to the education of boys and girls and their attitude towards pertinent issues, particularly early marriage and child labour.

A study in Guatemala to find out the determinants of participation in community projects showed that cultural capital is one of the major determinants of the participation (Wiebe, 2011). In another study in Netherlands to investigate the effect of parental participation on student performance, Cabus and Ariës (2017) found out that the performance depends on a home climate that is supportive of what goes on in school. In a study done in America to establish whether there is a relationship between religiosity, an aspect of cultural capital, and participation in community affairs, Park and Smith (2005) found out that there is a positive relationship not only between religiosity and participation, but also in 'non-religious' activities such as education. In another study in America to find out the relationship between cultural capital and parental involvement in the learning of their children, Ringenberg, McElwee and Israel (2009), showed that there is a relationship between cultural capital and parental participation in improving the quality of education for their children.

A similar study on the relationship between cultural capital and parental participation in providing quality education in Dutch primary education was done by Driessen, Smit and Sleegers (2005). The study implied a relationship between parental participation and cultural capital, which comprised socio-economic status and ethnic background. In a paper on the insights from Israeli Jewish parental participation in the primary education of their children, Erdreich and Golden (2017) noted that the participation is shaped by culture. In California, a study by Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) found out that culture is one of the factors which contribute to parental participation in education. Mukudi (2004) notes that parental cultural capital is like a role model to their children such that parental little value to education of their children and negative attitude towards their children's schoolwork, impacts negatively on the learning of the children.

Symeou, Martínez-González and Álvarez-Blanco (2014) focused on both quality of education and access to education, in a study done in Cyprus on parental participation. On the parental participation to ensure the quality of education, Symeou et al. (2014) noted that parental efficacy in participating in what they termed 'the curriculum of the home' was determined by the family attributions and beliefs, which are aspects of cultural capital. In regard to the access to education, Symeou et al. noted that pupils who come from homes where education is not valued frequently drop-out of school. Still on access to education, Chimombo (2005), in a study on primary education in Malawi, found that cultural practices, such as traditional dances and rites interfered with school attendance. Chimombo observed that the cultural practices were valued more than schooling because, according to the locals, education alienates people from the more valued cultural roots.

In terms of gender considerations, some studies have shown that relationships between cultural capital and parental participation on the education of boys and girls have gender dimensions. In India, a study by Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) on the role of cultural factors on primary school enrolment found out that in communities where the schooling of girls is not taken seriously, the parents may choose to keep their daughters at home in order not to harm their relationships with their neighbours. In a study carried out in Kenya on the right of children to education, Munene and Ruto (2010) observed a cultural orientation in which the education of boys is more valued than that of girls, especially when household resources are constrained. In the study, Munene and Ruto found out that boys are perceived to be more useful to the family than the girls since the girls eventually leave the family when they are married off.

Attitudes of parents towards issues such as early marriage and child labour may influence parental participation in ensuring that their children attend school as expected. Lewin (2015) points out that among the factors of children's non-attendance in schools are communities' cultural habits such

as encouraging early marriage. A study in Malawi by Chimombo (2005) also notes that factors that interfere with school attendance include initiation ceremonies, early marriages and child labour in the fishing sector. In the cultural viewpoint of some parents, early marriages and child labour are ways of addressing their economic problems. A study in Ghana, Kenya and Zimbabwe by Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) on unequal participation in education, attest to such viewpoint. In the study Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang noted that some parents force girls into early marriage as a way of reducing their poverty situations.

The measurement of cultural capital in this study was based on how it is conceptualized, as discussed here earlier, and the role it plays in parental participation. To start with, the measurement of cultural capital should be based on the aspects which constitute it. In a conference paper on measuring cultural capital, Eames (2012) holds the view that the measurement should be based on the aspects such as ideologies and values of the local community. Eames suggests that these ideologies and values can be captured from individual members of the community, without specifying the categories of individuals to be involved. In a study on the influence of family systems on the gender education gap in developing countries, Vleuten (2016) observes that, as much as community cultural capital is important for education, it is elusive to measure at the community level. Vleuten, however, noted that the family is a measurable cultural institution which provides information about the underlying rules, norms and preferences in the community. In a study to construct and validate a questionnaire to measure cultural capital in the context of Iran, Pishghadam, Noghani, and Zabihi (2011) concur with Eames that the aspects of cultural capital can be captured from the individuals. In the study by Pishghadam et al. (2011), however, the measurement of cultural capital was based on a specific category of the individuals, the university students. In this study, the measurement of cultural capital was also based on specific members of the community, the parents who have children in primary schools. The aspects of cultural capital that were measured in this study are the parents' attitudes in relation to education in general, their attitude towards education of girls and boys and their attitudes towards early marriages and child labour. The measurement was used in the study to find out how the extent to which the cultural capital is related to the level of parental participation in primary education outcomes.

Although many studies have established a relationship between parental participation and cultural capital, Smith and Moore (2013) observe that this relationship is not generalisable across cultures. Smith and Moore argue that a cultural practice may influence parental participation positively in one community and negatively in another community. Secondly, Smith and Moore point out that certain parental behaviours are viewed as inappropriate in one community, but may be considered

nurturing in another. The observation by Smith and Moore raises the necessity of more studies on the relationship between cultural capital and the parental participation in education. This study, therefore, may make a significant contribution in examining the relationship between the cultural capital and parental participation.

2.5 Aspects of financial capital and their relationship with parental participation

In this section, the aspects of financial capital are identified from various literature. The relationship between financial capital and parental participation as established in various studies is also discussed.

Aspects of financial capital

Yadollahi and Paim (2010) describe financial capital, which they refer to as economic status, as the capacity to meet the material and non-material needs. Education of children, the focus of this study, is one of the important needs in our society today. Yadollahi and Paim give the income, expenditure and ownership of physical assets as what comprises financial capital. According to Po, Finlay, Brewster and Canning (2012), financial capital consists of income, expenditure, or wealth. What Po et al (2012) refer to as wealth can be interpreted to mean the ownership of physical assets, as perceived by Yadollahi and Paim. Green and Haines (2008) describe financial capital as the public and private financial resources available for investment in the community, such as what people produce and consume, businesses, community credit institutions, informal economic exchanges, grants, and philanthropic donations. Green and Haines are not committal in viewing financial capital as income, expenditure and assets. However, the income, expenditure and assets are implied in their description of financial capital.

An insight that can be derived from the description by Green and Haines (2008) is that there is no clear-cut conceptual boundary on what is income, expenditure, or asset. For example, 'what people produce' can be income, it can be accompanied by expenditure or it can lead into an asset. A special dimension pointed out by Green and Haines is that financial capital is either private or public. As the name suggests, public financial capital is collectively endowed to the public. Public capital is particularly important in education since it is directly used to acquire most of the produced capitals, such as buildings, books, equipment, which are essential in schools. Private financial capital is owned and controlled by individuals, households or group of individuals. It can then be noted from the literature that financial capital, whether public or private, can be conceptualized as income, expenditure and assets. This study focused on the private financial capital. Specifically, the study focused on the financial capital of individual parents and that of the

households to which they belong. With this focus, financial capital was conceptualized as the income, expenditure and assets of the parents and that of the households to which they belonged.

Income, expenditure and assets are the aspects of financial capital that guide its measurement. The measurement can be based on all, some, or only one of these aspects. One approach of measuring the private financial capital, then, is to use direct measures such as income. However, there are difficulties in this approach since many people are not willing to disclose their actual financial income, especially for wide publicity, such as in a study. For this reason, proxy measures are commonly used to obtain a measure for income. In a study to investigate the extent to which socio-economic status affects educational achievement in South Africa by Tylor and Yu (2009), researchers are alerted that there is usually a high rate of non-response to questions on the income of households. Tylor and Yu suggest that consumption or expenditure is a suitable proxy measure of household income, giving three reasons. The first reason is that expenditure largely depends on income, hence it is suitable measure of income. The second reason is that expenditure is a better representation of human well-being compared to income. Thirdly, income may be derived from a diversity of sources and may vary significantly across seasons, hence not giving the true status of financial capital. Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS] (2011) concurs with the third reason and explains that fluctuations of income through time can lead to individuals or households being mistakenly classified as either financially advantaged or disadvantaged, depending on the particular point at which the measure was taken. Yadollahi and Paim (2010) observe that there has been a long-standing debate on which indicator, between income and expenditure, is a better measure of financial status. After analysis of such debates, Yadollahi and Paim concluded that expenditure is a better indicator of the long-term financial status than income, especially with long-term considerations.

Apart from using the household expenditure as a measure of financial capital, an increasingly common approach to use is an asset-based index of income where questions are asked regarding the ownership of certain household items (Tylor & Yu, 2009). Yadollahi and Paim (2010) observe that an asset-based approach can be used to measure family financial capital and that data concerning assets has claimed to be more consistent than income or consumption expenditure. In a study in India to find the impact of parental socio-economic status on students' educational achievement, Memon, Joubish, and Khurram (2010) used household possessions such as telephones, refrigerator, air conditioner, and motor car a proxy measures of the financial status. Huisman, Rani, and Smits (2010) also measured household financial capital with an index constructed on the basis of household assets, such as televisions, cars, and telephones. In a paper to develop an approach to constructing a measure of household income using physical assets, Po,

Finlay, Brewster and Canning (2012) observed that researchers often use proxy indicators of income based on household ownership of physical assets, such as television, refrigerator, motor vehicle, phone, and watch. Po et al. (2012) also point out that ownership of household physical assets is highly correlated with household expenditure and hence a reasonable proxy measure of household income.

An important consideration in identifying a set of the household assets to be used as measure of financial capital is the importance of those assets in the community. Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS] (2011) notes that the relative importance of the assets in terms of capturing socioeconomic status can vary substantially across populations and can change through time. The variations of the assets across populations could due a number of factors such as general economic status. For example, ownership of a car can be an important indicator of financial status in some communities, while other communities, it is so obvious that it is not a suitable indicator of financial status. Assets that are suitable indicators of income change with time due to factors such cultural changes and changes in technology. For example, several decades ago, the radio was an important asset in households for news, educative programs and entertainment such that it could be an important indicator of financial status. With the changes of technology, the importance of the radio has dwindled in preference to other electronic devices such as the television. Another example of a household asset, the mobile telephone, which due to changes in technology, has widely replaced the landline telephone as a means of communication.

Although expenditure and household assets have been used in the measurement of the household financial capital, Chowdhury, Nath and Choudhury (2006) used a different approach. In their study in Bangladesh to examine how the equity levels influence the trends in primary education, Chowdhury et al. (2006) asked the respondents to classify their own financial capital into one of the following categories: always in deficit, sometimes in deficit, in balance or surplus. One possible weakness in this approach is that the amount of the 'deficit' experienced in a household could be as result of the difference in financial discipline and not necessarily due to the difference in financial capital.

It is therefore evident from literature that the direct measurement of household income would be the ideal measure of financial capital of the household. However, challenges in obtaining data on income necessitate the use of either the household expenditure or the physical assets as proxy measures of income. In this study, the aspects of financial capital that were used for its measurement were the household expenditures and physical assets. The expenditure on general items (food, electricity bills, kerosene and petrol) and on airtime for communication were used as

measures of financial capital. For the assets, the possession of a motor vehicle, television and a supply of mains electricity and water in the house were used as measures of household financial capital.

Financial capital and parental participation in education

The relationship between financial capital and parental participation has been a focus in a number of literature. In a paper to analyse access to education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Lewin (2009) points out that access to education at primary and secondary levels of education depend on the household income. It was the realization of the effect of parental financial capital that prompted the commitment to offer free primary education under the wider goal of Universal Primary Education (UPE) that was adopted at the World Education Forum (WEF) in 2000 at Dakar, Senegal (UNESCO, 2000). Member countries of the WEF committed to abolish fee for primary education by the year 2015 to ensure that education of children is not hampered by the financial status of their parents. Wasswa-Matovu (2009) notes that it is generally acknowledged that many of the very poor were excluded from basic education prior to UPE. When Kenya, for example, introduced free primary education in 2003, the national net enrollment rate in primary education rose by 22.3% within the first year (Sifuna, 2005). This was a demonstration of how financial capital of parents affected the education of their children.

In a study on the effects of school fee policy on attendance, Mukudi (2004) found out that some parents might have an interest in educating their children but that financial capital limited their ability to do so. It is important to note that paying school fess for children is just one of the needs that draw from the financial capital of the parents. There are other needs of the children such as clothing, learning materials and food that the parents should meet from their financial capital. In fact, Mukudi observed in the study that in spite of the abolishment of school fee in public schools by Kenyan government, some of the schools continued to charge fees for school uniforms and stationery. Mukudi further observed that such fees limited access, contributed to drop-out and absenteeism. A study on universalizing education in Kenya by Somerset (2009) also found out that public schools still asked parents to pay various kinds of charges, such as computer fee, tutorial fee, examinations fee and charges for school trips.

In some households, parents make their children to contribute to the financial capital of the households by engaging in child labour. The decision of the parents to make or allow their children to be engaged in child labour for financial gain is dependent on the financial capital of the parents, according to some studies (Huisman, Rani & Smits, 2010; Munene & Ruto, 2010). A study in

India by Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) found out that, in both developed and developing countries, children from families with more financial capital are more often enrolled in school. Huisman et al. (2010) explain that that for low-income parents, the opportunity costs of sending their children to school may be high, since they are more likely to expect their children to help out tending the land and rearing livestock. In their study on the right to education for children in Kenya, Munene and Ruto (2010) found out that because of low financial capital of parents, their children are either not enrolled in school or drop out to be employed as domestic workers, as farm-hands, or as caretakers of domestic livestock.

Parental participation in education of their children includes providing the nutritional needs of the children. According to a study done in rural China, Yu and Hannum (2007) found out that parental financial capital determines the nutritional status of a family and that poor nutritional status of children negatively affect their attendance in school programmes. Lewin (2015) points out that poor health and nutrition are related to late enrolment, low attendance, repetition, low achievement, and subsequent drop-out. Lewin notes that nutritional deficiencies and sickness can compound these problems. The importance of good nutrition has prompted many actors to intervene where the financial capital of parents are low to the level that they cannot meet the nutritional needs of their households. In a programme in Bangladesh, free wheat rations were provided every month to children from poor households as an intervention to enable them attend primary school (Chowdhury, Nath & Choudhury, 2006). In Kenya, food supplementation has also been perceived as an incentive to increase demand for education in the arid and semi-arid lands (Sifuna, 2005), where poverty is widespread. The Government of Kenya currently runs the School Feeding Programme, which is aimed at improving enrolment, retention and academic performance in primary schools situated in communities where the financial capital of the parents are low (SoftKenya, 2011).

This study acknowledged that a number of studies have focused on the relationship between financial capital of parents and their participation in the education of their children. However, most of the studies seemed to focus on the relationship between financial capital and the access aspect of education. Fewer number of studies, such as one in Kenya by Nyabuto and Njoroge (2014), focused on the quality aspect of education. This study therefore addressed this gap by focusing on the relationship between financial capital with the access, quality and gender aspects of education.

2.6 Parental participation in primary education

The measurement of the level of parental participation was core in this study. In this section, therefore, aspects that constitute parental participation in education have been discussed, drawing from various literature. The section also presents an argument for modelling parental participation in education along the education outcomes.

It is important to establish the meaning of a parent as a foundation for a discussion of parental participation. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) note that a parent should be broadly conceptualized to include any adult with responsibility for the financial and emotional care and support of the school-age child. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel add that such a broad conceptualization recognizes a guardian and the rich diversity of family structures, which may include other family members such as the aunts, uncles, grandparents, older siblings. The legal provisions in Kenya, for example, take into account such a broad conceptualization in defining a parent. This study therefore adopts the definition of a parent prescribed in the Basic Education Act Number 14 of 2013 (Republic of Kenya, 2013b). In the Act a parent is defined as a mother, father or guardian of a child and includes any person who is responsible under the law to maintain a child or is entitled to a child's custody.

One approach of measuring a concept such as parental participation is to identify its aspects, which can then be used to model it for measurement. Loomis and Akkari (2012) observe that such models and aspects are many and varied. In the early 1990s, Epstein developed a model for parental participation, which was widely embraced in a number of literature (Mahuro & Hungi, 2016). In the model, Epstein (2004) identifies the family, the school and the community as three environments in which parental participation takes place. Within these three environments, Epstein identifies six interrelated aspects of parental participation, which are parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making and collaboration with the community.

Parenting includes the provision of conducive general home environment such as nutrition, clothing, security, shelter and parental affection. Communication entails a two-way communication between the school and the parents. Within the framework of parental participation, the parents have a role in ensure that such a communication is established and maintained. Volunteering is the aspect of participation in which the parents voluntarily support the school by offering services or providing goods. Learning at home is whereby the parents involve their children in activities that enhance their learning, such as helping them with homework, helping them develop positive attitude toward learning and advising them on career goal-setting. Decision-making occurs when the parents take part in the decisions that enable the school to run

as desired. Although such decisions are mainly made in forums such as committee meetings and parents meetings, they can also be influenced at the level of informal individual interactions. Finally, collaboration with the community is the aspect of participation in which parents draw from the resources in the community for the benefit of their children's learning. Vincent (2017) seems to sum up what parental participation entails by noting that becoming a parent is akin to being engaged in a project called the child.

So far, there is a general consensus that parental participation in education should viewed along the role of parents in the home, school and community contexts, as in the Epstein model. Loomis and Akkari (2012, p.90) capture this consensus vividly that "the question is not 'do we need parent participation', but rather 'how' do we do it considering parents' context". Education of children takes place everywhere and every time, hence the role of the parent in education is important at home, school and in the community. The aspects of parental participation in education can therefore be viewed along the role of parents in the home and school contexts. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) and Seginer (2006) view parental participation in the home and school contexts only. This view may not necessarily imply that the importance of community context in parental participation is not considered important by the authors of the literature. Rather, it could be that the authors consider the home and the school as already part of the community.

Each of the six aspects of parental participation identified in the Epstein model is actually aligned to either the home, school or community context. For example the parenting and learning at home are more aligned to the home context; communication, volunteering and decision-making are more aligned to the school context and collaboration is aligned to the community context. Seginer (2006) seems to have taken into consideration such an alignment of the aspects parental participation in education, thus viewing them as either school-based or home-based participation. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) are also of the same view and note that parent participation is conceived within the experiences and activities located in both the home and school. However, it is important to note that the aspects of parental participation are interrelated and overlap to the extent that the alignment to the home or school should not be conceived as a clear-cut demarcation. For example, parenting is mainly a home-based participation but at the same time it can be informed by collaboration, which is a community-based participation or by communication, which is a school-based participation.

A view of parental participation in the perspective of the home, school and community contexts has been employed in a number of studies. In an empirical analysis of a survey data from Detroit on citizens' participation in education, Marschall (2004) identified parental participation along the

following aspects; talking to friends about the school, contacting officials about the school and attending school meetings. Although the survey by Marschall captured the school and the community contexts, it was silent on the home context. According to the World Bank (1999), community participation in education, and by extension, parental participation in education, should be modelled as; establishing suitable environments that support children's learning, helping the children at home with curriculum-related homework, participating in decision-making in school meetings, and collaborating with the community to strengthen school programmes. Marschall converges with the World Bank on the school and community contexts, but the World Bank includes the home context. In a study in Uganda to explore the notion of parental participation, Suzuki (2010) observes that parental participation can be viewed from the individual and collective perspectives. In the study, Suzuki points out that parents should participate in the education individually and collectively, and also noting that the participation is an important means of assuring accountability in the management of schools. The parenting, helping children with homework, and communicating with the school are examples of participation at individual level, while participating in meetings and collaborating with the community are collective participation. On the communication aspect of parental participation, the Child Friendly Schools [CFS] (2005) emphasizes that it is important since some problems in the child's life may go unnoticed by the school and will not be addressed if parents do not communicate promptly and effectively with the schools.

Recognizing that the importance of parental participation in education is generally not in dispute, Kendall (2007, p.706) asks "what exactly is such participation supposed to improve?" This question was key in this study in designing a model for measuring parental participation in education. An examination of the aspects of parental participation discussed in the earlier parts of this section shows that the participation is related to the education outcomes. A suitable answer to the question posed by Kendall, then, is that parental participation in education should be responsive to the conventional education outcomes. A support for such an answer is given by Child Friendly Schools [CFS] (2005, p.13), which observes that the parents "are full partners in decision-making about education outcomes for their children".

The education outcomes have much of their roots in the MDGs. Goal Two of the MDGs was to achieve universal primary education by 2015 and its target was to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, complete a full course of primary schooling. Goal Three was to promote gender equality and its target was to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education by 2015 (United Nations, 2015d). To assess the achievement of the two education-related MDGs, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics

(UIS) identified certain outcomes that were expected from primary education (UNESCO, 2014). Further, UIS prescribed specific indicators that were to facilitate the objective assessment of the achievement of these goals. Some of the indicators for Goal Two were gross enrolment rate, net enrolment rate, completion rate, and transition rate. These four indicators are all about access to education, which is one of the education outcomes. An indicator for Goal Three was gender parity. This indicator is focused on gender equity, which is another education outcome.

In prescribing the indicators for MDG Two and MDG Three, it was noted that they were silent on another important outcome, which is the quality of education to be provided to the learners (UNESCO, 2005). A possible reason for the silence on the quality aspect could be that it is sometimes viewed as part of access to education (Samoff, 2007; Lewin, 2009). However, the quality of education, measured in terms of academic achievement, was eventually included as one of the education outcomes. The successor of the MDGs, the SDGs, subsequently upheld the education outcomes that were identified by UIS. Goal Four of the SDGs is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all (UN, 2015b). As can be noted, SDG Four has upheld the two education outcomes, access and gender equity, captured in the MDGs and has gone further to include the quality of education, which was muted in the MDGs. The parental participation in this study is then examined in the background of the three education outcomes; access, quality and gender equity.

Parental participation in this study was therefore modelled along the three education outcomes, translating into three aspects of the participation. One aspect of parental participation pertains to the access to education, the second aspect pertains to the quality of education and the third aspect pertains to gender equity in access and quality in education. The parental participation in this study is then modelled as; *access-responsive* participation (ARP), *quality-responsive* participation (QRP) and *gender-responsive* participation (GRP). Responsive means reacting to suggestions, influences, appeals, and situations quickly in a positive way (Longman Publishers, 2017). The ARP was therefore conceptualized in this study as the actions of the parents which enable their children to enroll in school at the right age, attend school regularly and continue to the completion of primary education. QRP was conceptualized as the contribution of ideas, money and materials by parents to help their children learn effectively in the various subjects in the primary education. GRP was conceptualized as the actions of a parent that provide equal opportunities in primary education to girls and boys. The sub-sections that follow under this section present a review on the operational understanding and the place of ARP, GRP and QRP of the parents in primary education.

Access-responsive participation

The rationale for access to education is anchored on the global commitments, some of which have been mentioned earlier in this chapter. Since access has been defined in different ways, this sub-section presents a review of literature on the meaning of access to education and the operational meaning as applied in the study. The subsection is concluded by a review on literature on what constitutes the aspects of ARP of parents.

Access to basic education was elevated to one of the priority global development agenda following the establishment of basic education as a fundamental human right by Article 26 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNESCO, 2002). Focus on access to education was reaffirmed in the 1990 World Conference on Education for All (EFA) at Jomtien, Thailand (UNESCO, 1990). At the conference, there was a global commitment to provide basic education to all by the year 2000. However, the progress towards the realization of the EFA targets on access was slow, especially in the developing countries, prompting the April 2000 World Educational Forum held in Dakar, Senegal, to move the target for universal basic education to 2015 (UNESCO, 2000). In September 2000, the aspirations of the EFA targets on universal primary education were incorporated in MDG2. Although the MGDs were adopted by UN in 2000, they were the outcome of international conferences throughout the 1990s (Willis, 2005), such as the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien and the 2000 World Educational Forum in Dakar. Currently, the global agenda on access to basic education is well asserted in SDG4 under the target of ensuring inclusive and equitable education for all. The continued global focus on access to education has been accompanied by varying definitions of access. Lewin (2009) defines access to primary education as the admission at the right age, progression to the next grade on schedule, regular attendance, achievement related to national curricula, access to post-primary opportunities and more equal opportunities to learn. From the definition of Lewin, the quality and gender parity aspects of education are implied in conceptualizing access. However, according to UNESCO, the quality aspect of education is distinct from access. In UNESCO (1990), access to education is defined as enrollment in an organized education programme, continued participation in it and completing it to its certification requirements. In this study, therefore, access to primary education is conceptualized as enrolling in school at the right age, attending school regularly and continuing to the completion of primary education.

Access to education is visualized as comprising of the supply side and the demand side (Lewin, 2015; Huisman, Rani & Smits, 2010; Sifuna & Kaime, 2007). In the supply side, is the government and the local community as they ensure that there is a conducive environment for learning, which

for example, include physical infrastructure, policy and legal framework, learning materials and personnel. Akyeampong (2009) affirms that infrastructure affects the level of access to education. Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim (2005) note the players on the supply side of education have the responsibility of putting in place policies, legal framework and other institutional arrangements that anchor education in the social fabric of the community, hence stimulating demand and ensuring that schooling provides social benefits, has economic returns and reflects local priorities and values. Chimombo (2005) notes that increasing the rate of transition and reducing drop-out rates in the lower grades require policy changes based on a proper understanding of the home contexts. To provide the infrastructure and learning materials, the parents are required to pay school fees in some countries. The payment of school fees has been shown to have a negative impact on the access for children from low-income households (Akyeampong, 2009; Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim, 2005). It is for this reason that one of the resolutions at the 2000 World Educational Forum held in Dakar, Senegal was the commitment of member countries to ensure free primary education by the year 2015 (UNESCO, 2000). Countries that have removed school fees and any other levies have realized significant increase in access to education. For example, the estimated number of children out of school in sub-Saharan Africa decreased by about 26% within 10 years after the Dakar conference (Lewin, 2015).

In the demand side of access to education are the parents who have children in the school-going age. The parents create the demand for access when they see the value of education and facilitate their children to attend school. Sifuna and Kaime (2007) observe that participation in education is an interaction of the supply side, demand side and the learning the learning of the children. Their observation implies that when those in the supply side play their roles well, good demand for access is expected. A similar observation was made by Chimombo (2005), in in a paper to investigate the implementation and impact of the FPE reform in Malawi. Chimombo observed that the core problem with primary education in the country emanated from the supply of education. According to Chimombo, the levels of supply by the state were so low that a correspondingly low effective demand for education resulted. Munene and Ruto (2010) also acknowledge that participation in access to education is an interplay between the supply side and the demand side, comprising the socio-cultural practices and the economic realities of the parents. In some cases, the demand for education appear to exceed the supply. According to Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010), such cases are demonstrated when there is an expansion of private schools, which is a pointer to the lack of adequate facilities in government schools. Huisman et al. (2010) also note that improving the supply of education is not enough if the factors at home which influence demand for it are not addressed. Citing cases where the commitment of the government was high, but

enrolment rates remained low, Akyeampong (2009) noted that it is the collective influence of locals, comprising the parents, and not state coercion, which gives positive results in access. These cases cited demonstrate that as much as the government is expected to play its part, it must be followed by the responsiveness of the parents to realize the desired levels of access. Although the government is mainly responsible for the supply side of access to education, Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim (2005) advise that it should not sit back and let parents decide whether their children go to school or not. Rather, the government should take proactive initiatives to increase demand for access to education.

The notion that the parents are on the demand side of access to education is the basis of their access-responsive participation. A number of literature capture some of the aspects of access-responsive participation. One of the aspects of access-responsive participation of the parents is to facilitate enrolment of their children in school at the right age. Motala, Dieltiens and Sayed (2009) point that it is important for children to be enrolled in school at the right age since those who are not in the expected age range for their grade are likely to be struggling with their work and may be more vulnerable to dropping out. Loomis and Akkari (2012) note that in South Africa, parents are expected to ensure that their children attend school while they are within the required age range. Loomis and Akkari further note that this aspect of parental participation is compulsory by law in order to uphold the right of children to education. Akyeampong (2009) notes that such a compulsory element is a genuine determination on the side of the government to put pressure on parents to enroll their children for the full duration of basic education. Akyeampong, however, adds that compelling the parents would not yield much positive results without positive response of the parents.

Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) point out that the parental income, wealth, education and occupation have long been known to be major determinants of educational enrolment. Enrolling in school is just the starting point of access to education. From that point, the parents have a role to ensure that their children are punctual in going to school or not missing to go to school to do work. Wasswa-Matovu (2009) notes that one of the roles of parents is to prepare children to attend school. Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim (2005) observe that parents incur some opportunity cost by sending their children to school rather than to work, and hence access to education depends on how parents view schooling as a priority. Making a similar observation, Lewin (2015) notes that some parents question the value of completing a full cycle of basic education, especially where there are pressures on children to marry or to contribute to the household economy. It therefore takes the responsiveness of parents to facilitate their children not only to attend primary school but to continue up to the completion of primary education. Upon completion of primary education, the

parents are still expected to play a leading role in ensuring that their children transit to secondary education. The importance of this role, as captured by Norris (2011), is that young people often rely either directly or indirectly on their parents for direction when making decisions about progression in education.

From the foregoing literature, some of the aspects of access-responsive participation of parents are to ensure that their children enroll in school at the right age, are punctual in going to school, do not miss to go to school because of work at home, complete primary education, and transit to secondary education. In summary, it can be noted that access-responsive parents are those who put the schooling of their children to be one of their top priorities. The conceptualization of access-responsive participation in this study is that it is not driven by laws that compel parents to participate. Rather, it is out of the value that the parents attach to the education of their children. Access is at the core of inclusive and equitable education for all, which is a focus in SDG4. Chowdhury, Nath and Choudhury (2006) observe that, although equity is a desirable objective in education, not many studies dwell upon this important area. The information this study may therefore make a contribution in exploring access to primary education.

Gender-responsive participation

A discussion on an issue related to gender-responsive participation would be incomplete without a mention of some of its underlying concepts such as sex, gender gaps and gender parity. Sex refers to the biological state of being male or female (Collins Dictionaries, 2011). Sex is therefore a physical characteristic that is not determined by a social or cultural context. Gender, on the other hand, refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female (Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women [OSAGI], 2004). These attributes are socially and culturally constructed, unlike in sex. According to OSAGI, gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a women or a man in a given context. In the context of this study, gender determines whether the education is valued for a boy or a girl. Social justice requires that equal value be attached to the education of boys and girls.

As noted by UNESCO (2015), the realization of gender equality in education remains a serious issue of social justice. However, such justice has been observed to be lacking in many societies and, instead, what is witnessed is widespread gender discrimination. Gender discrimination occurs when one gender is favoured and that favouritism causes the other gender to become relatively disadvantaged. The discriminations leads to gender gaps. The gender gaps can also be described as the unfair differences between women and men that are driven by the social contexts. One of the unfair differences is in the rate of access to education, which is a focus of this study. Gender

parity occurs where the differences do not exist. A gender parity index (GPI) is widely used to assess the extent to which boys and girls have equal access to education (Lewin, 2015). The GPI the number of girls enrolled in a given level of education expressed as a fraction of the number of boys enrolled in the same level of education (UN, 2015c).

Akyeampong (2009) observes that the existence of a gender gap in schooling in low-income countries is well established in the literature. Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) are more specific on a similar observation by noting that education of girls in African countries seems to suffer more discrimination in terms of access to education. Kenya is one of the countries where gender gap in terms of access to education still remains unresolved (Keriga & Bujra, 2009). Concerted global efforts to address the problem of discrimination of girls were intensified from the early 1960s. In 1961, both the United Nations universal declaration of human rights and UNESCO's educational plans for Africa drew attention to the problem (Shabaya & Konadu-Agyemang, 2004). From then, a number of international initiatives, among them the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE), sustained efforts in addressing the gender gaps in education. MDG3 and SDG further affirmed the need to sustain measures aimed at achieving gender parity in education. Parents are expected to play a central role in realizing gender parity in education. The essence of gender-responsive participation (GRP) of the parents is therefore to realize and maintain gender parity through actions and attitudes that contribute in eliminating gender gaps.

Aspects of GRP have been depicted directly or indirectly in various literature. A study by Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) involving an analysis of data from recent national surveys focusing on Ghana, Zimbabwe and Kenya found out that there is no gender gap in school enrolment among children in the ages ranging between six and ten years. Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang observed that the gender gap start emerging in the upper grades of primary education, which, according to them, can be attributed to early marriage. Keriga and Bujra (2009) also observe that in most traditional societies, the education of the 'girl child' is considered to be of little value and the emphasis is on marriage as a prestigious gender identity for the girls. One of the aspects of GRP is therefore to resist any influence that may make parents facilitate, support or condone early marriage.

In a study on the environments of disadvantage in Uganda's Universal Primary Education (UPE), Wasswa-Matovu (2009) notes the presence gender gap in the allocation of household duties allows boys more time for school work. Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) also note that poor families are often dependent on their children's labor for household chores. Shabaya and Konadu-

Agyemang futher note that in many African societies, gender construction has conditioned girls to play the role of mothers and care providers right from a very young age. According to UNICEF (2016), work is often gender-specific, with girls performing more domestic and home-based work, while boys are more often involved in outdoor work such as agriculture and constructions. Depending on the nature and amount of the household-related work, one of the gender is usually disadvantaged. As Wasswa-Matovu noted, the household work disadvantaged girls more than the boys. The manner in which the children are given work by their parents can create environments for gender gaps.

Involving children in such kind of work to the extent which impacts negatively in their education is a form of child labour. UNICEF (n.d.) points out two forms of child labour, namely, domestic work and economic activity. In domestic work, the children perform work allocated to them by their parents. In economic activity, the children are employed to work for economic gain. According to the United Nations [UN] (2015a), child labour is work performed by a child who is under the minimum age specified for that kind of work (as defined by national legislation, in accordance with accepted international standards), and that is likely to impede the child's education and full development. In the Children Act Cap. 586 of the Laws of Kenya on the protection from child labour, every child shall be protected from economic exploitation and any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development (CKadvoates, 2014). Therefore, the actions or attitudes of parents that do not solicit or encourage child labour is another aspect of their gender-responsive participation.

General attitude of parents towards boys and girls is yet another aspect that creates gender gaps and need GRP to realize gender parity. Literature on the parental participation in education has captured the realities of the attitude of some parents being biased against a particular gender. A study in America by Juvonen, Vi-Nhuan, Kaganoff, Augustine and Constant (2004) found out that parents are more likely to check their sons' homework than their daughters'. In the study UPE in Uganda, cited here earlier, Wasswa-Matovu (2009) noted that preferences for different gender existed in certain districts in the country. A study in Kenya by Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) also found out that entrenched systemic discrimination and negative attitudes about women still persist, which pulls back the enormous strides toward universal enrolment. Another study in India by Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) on the role of socio-economic and cultural factors on primary school enrolment found out that many parents invest more in their sons' education, since, according to the parents, investments in daughters' education eventually benefit their future husbands' family, while the boys do not leave the family hence their education benefit the family.

In yet another study in Ghana to assess the achievement of the goals for UPE, Akyeampong (2009) made a similar observation that when the parents have limited resources and have to make a choice on which child to enroll, the tendency had been to favour boys who were believed to generate more returns in investment than girls. Gender-responsive participation in this respect requires that the parents must not only have such retrogressive attitudes but should also help the community in changing such attitudes.

Regular attendance in school sessions, completion of primary education and transition primary to secondary education are other important components of access to education that requires active participation of parents. Gender-responsive participation requires that the parents facilitate the attendance, completion and transition for their children without favouring any gender. Wasswa-Matovu (2009) observes that there is overwhelming qualitative evidence that absenteeism, dropout and transition is heavily gendered. Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2004) also observe that primary education completion rate for girls still lag behind that of boys. UNESCO (2015) notes that for the population at average economic status, there has either been parity in the completion rate or that for girls is higher than for boys. However, for the poorer populations, girls still face severe disadvantage in entering and completing primary education. This is a pointer to the importance of decisions that parents make concerning the choices on education of the children when faced with limited resources, as has been noted here earlier. These choices, as Keriga and Bujra (2009) note, are influenced by social and cultural factors that in turn shapes the perspectives on gender roles. Gender-responsive parents do not allow themselves to be swayed by the socio-cultural environment that perpetuate gender gaps.

In summary, gender-responsive participation of the parents requires that the parents ensure that the education of both boys and girls are not hampered by practices such as early marriage and child labour. The gender-responsive participation also requires that the parents ensure that both boys and girls are equally facilitated to regularly attend school, complete primary education and transit to secondary education.

Quality-responsive participation

Parental participation is not only to facilitate access to education for the children but also to ensure that the children get quality education. Motala, Dieltiens and Sayed (2009) note that, although enrolment in basic education is near universal, the impressive access has not translated into quality learning in many countries, evidenced by low learning achievement levels in national and international standard tests. The low achievement, according to them, is an indicator that many learners with physical access to schools do not have the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary

to reach the required levels of achievement and competency. Miller and Elman (2013, p.24) point out, in a study to explore the educational pressures in a primary school in Kenya, that "the quality of education has become a major issue in developing countries, prompted by the low levels of educational achievement". Miller and Elman add that ensuring good quality basic education is one of the most urgent of national issues in Kenya, given that 39% of its population is under 14 years of age.

For long, quality had been defined in terms of the knowledge and skills that were believed to be necessary for the later success of students (Griffith, 2008). This definition basically focused on the cognitive achievement of learners. Sifuna and Kaime (2007) observe that the focus on quality from the perspective of cognitive achievement faced serious criticism as the goals of schooling encompass more than just academic achievement. Sifuna and Kaime add that such a focus ignores issues which deal with human well-being. The criticisms seem to have been considered seriously at global forums. For example, at the deliberations during the 1990 World Conference on Education for All (EFA) at Jomtien in 1990, it emerged that there was a need to expand the definition of the quality of education (UNESCO, 1990). Quality education was then defined as the extent to which learning in an organized education programme translates into the acquisition of useful knowledge, skills, values and attitudes (UNESCO, 1990). Griffith (2008) points out that the addition of values and attitudes to the definition was based on the realization that they are increasingly important considerations in the world in which students will live and work.

During the same period, in the 1990s, the concept of quality education was not only confined to school activities but was also understood to include the family-based practices and the wider social context that were intended to raise children's quality of learning (Woronov, 2008). Kendall (2007) supports this understanding of the quality of education and notes that current discourses on quality of education regularly focus on the importance of parental and community participation in improving the quality. This emphasizes the key role that parents play, or should play, in the quality learning of their children. In the context of this study, that role of the parents is conceived as quality-responsive participation.

Within the definitions of quality education, Griffith (2008) proposes two complementary dimensions of quality. One dimension is how well the internal processes are working to enable students acquire the knowledge and develop skills and attitudes. The other dimension is the extent to which the outcomes (knowledge, skills and attitude) have been achieved by the students. In discussing quality of education, Keriga and Bujra (2009) identify 'inputs' as a third component of quality education. This third component is also implied in Griffith's discussion. Three components

of quality education – inputs, process and outcomes - can therefore be identified. The inputs are, for example, school's physical infrastructure, quality of teachers, quality of the curriculum and learning materials. The process include management, quality of teaching and the learning of the students. The 'outcomes' component of quality include, for example, academic achievement, values developed and how well the students apply the knowledge, skills an attitudes for their well-being and that of others. The quality-responsive participation of the parents is necessary in the three components of quality education. In the input component, the parents are, for example, expected to provide learning materials and contribute to the development of the physical infrastructure in the schools. In the process component, the participation of the parents include participating in decision-making for management of the schools, collaborating with teachers to improve learning of the children and ensuring that the children have the discipline required for effective learning. The parents are also expected to participate in assessing the achievement of the desired outcomes of their children's learning. The paragraphs that follow in this subsection present a review of literature in which specific aspects of quality-responsive participation of parents have been identified.

In the model of parental engagement advanced by Epstein (2004), helping children in their homework is one way in which the parents are engaged in the education of their children. Engagement in the homework of the children is one of the aspects of quality-responsive participation of the parents. In ensuring the quality of education for the children, parental participation in the homework serves two main purposes. One, checking the homework is a form of participating in assessing the level at which the children are achieving the intended learning outcomes. Griffith (2008) points out that ensuring quality education requires continuous assessment. Participation in the homework of the children is a form of assessment. By checking the homework, parents are able to identify the weaknesses that children have, help them if they are able, and inform the teachers for appropriate help. The other purpose of homework is that it provides a suitable entry point for the parents to be co-teachers of their children. In this case, the education of the parents play a key role. Parents who are not knowledgeable in the content of the homework may not be effective as co-teachers of their children.

Among the strategies that have been used to ensure parental participation in the education of their children is to regularly invite parents for discussions concerning their children and any other education-related issues at home or in the community (CFS, 2005). Quality-responsive parents envisaged in this study not only accept such invitations readily but also take the initiative to meet the teachers for discussions on the learning of their children. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) note that teachers benefit from parental participation, such as through discussions with teachers,

by gaining insights about students and their home environment. The discussions also provide suitable forums for the parents to give feedback on their assessment of the 'process' aspect of quality education. Mythili (2005), in a study that was aimed at documenting a success story in achieving higher quality education within UPE in India, notes that parents exert pressure on the teachers to achieve higher quality of education. Such pressures are most likely successful when put through open discussions in an atmosphere of mutual understanding and devoid of any form of coercion, as noted by Mythili. In the study, Mythili reports that the parents were, for example, very keen to ensure that teachers adhere to the timings of the school sessions. This keenness was a form of participation that ensured that the process aspect of quality education was efficient. Evidence from around the world suggests that greater parental leads to higher teacher attendance (Birdsall, Levine & Ibrahim, 2005) and hence a greater assurance on quality education. Kendall (2007) observes that empowered parents have local definitions of quality and are able to engage the schools in meaningful discussions on efforts to improve quality of education.

Learning materials, as already mentioned at the beginning of this subsection, form an important input component of quality education. Wasswa-Matovu (2009) puts it emphatically that one of the main roles of parents in the education of their children is provide learning materials such as exercise books and pens. Griffith (2008) note that one of the investments expected for quality education is in terms of text books and other learning materials. In Kenya, for example, the parents with children in public schools are expected to buy some learning materials to supplement what the government provides. Even in the private schools, the parents are still expected to buy books to supplement the ones provided by the proprietors of the schools. Buying the learning materials is therefore another aspect of quality-responsive participation of the parents.

Apart from giving material support, good parenting requires that the parents give their children psychological and emotional guidance. This is mainly because the learning of children is multi-dimensional requiring that their material, cognitive, psychological and emotional needs be addressed at home, in the school and in the community. Woronov (2008) advises that parents should give children attention and love, make sure they are developing good habits. Juvonen, Vi-Nhuan, Kaganoff, Augustine and Constant (2004) report that research on the relationships between parents and their teen-age children shows that close connections and communication between parents and the children are associated with better school performance and psychosocial adjustment. CFS (2005) notes that parents who feel positive about school by encouraging schoolwork, for example, foster self-confidence and self-esteem in their children. It is one thing for the system to provide quality education and another thing for a child to uptake the education. Another aspect of quality-responsive parents is therefore to encourage their children to put the best

effort they can in their education. By doing this the parents are affirming the importance of education in the lives of the children.

In summary, therefore, some of the aspects of quality-responsive participation of the parents are helping the children with homework, holding regular discussions with teachers on the learning of their children, availing learning materials for their children and encouraging the children in schoolwork.

2.7 Theoretical framework

This study was anchored on the systems theory, also referred to as systems thinking. The systems theory was pioneered by Ludwig von Bertalanffy in the 1950's with ideas from the works of Durkeim and Max Weber. Durkeim was interested in how societies are organized and Max Weber was interested in the systems in organizations (Friedman & Allen, 2014). According to Friedman and Allen, systems theory is a way of examining a complex social system that encompasses the person in a specified environment. The systems theory is therefore suitable for this study since the parents operate in the community, which is their environment. In the systems theory, a system is defined as an organized whole made up of components that interact within themselves (Friedman & Allen, 2014). The organized whole can be a collection of people, plants, or objects.

One of the important tenets of the system theory is that interactions occur between the components of the system. In this study, the components are the parents who are members of a specified community – Migori County. A second tenet of the theory is that the interactions are such that there are inputs, outputs, and outcomes. A third tenet is that the interactions are measurable and can be subjected to scientific inquiry (Friedman & Allen, 2014). In this study, the community is considered a system because there interactions among the parents. The interactions of the parents, in the form of participation in the education of their children, is measurable and can be subjected to scientific inquiry.

The systems theory, although developed many years ago, continues to be applied in development activities, such as education. Tamas (2000) observes that the systems theory is a suitable framework for studying some of the factors involved in community development. The systems theory, however, is very general and has been adapted to suit specific community development activities. For example, the community capitals framework (CCF) that was developed by Cornelia Flora, Jan Flora, and Susan Fey (2007) is based on the systems theory. CCF has been used by a number of researchers and development practitioners in their work with communities (Emery, Fey

& Flora, 2006; Iowa State University, 2008). CCF is essentially about the place of the community capitals in a development process, such as education, to achieve certain desirable outcomes.

The CCF modifies the input-process-outcome concept in the systems theory to context-process-outcome (Flora, Emery, Fey & Bregendahl, 2012). In CCF, the inputs are the community capitals, and holds that each community is endowed with various types of capitals. The community capitals collectively form the context of development in the community. The proponents of CCF go ahead and identify the following seven community capitals: produced, natural, human, social, cultural, political and financial. Secondly, CCF holds that there is a process in the community in which the different capitals are utilized. The process comprises the actions, investments, and interventions by development actors such as individuals, groups, organizations, government departments and private companies. CCF also holds that the process is intended to produce a certain outcome, which is the development desired.

The framework was therefore suitable for this study since it captures development, such as education, in the context of the community capitals. In the framework, the level of parental participation in education is an example of an outcome of utilizing the community capitals. This study then sought to investigate the relationship between the contexts, which are the community capitals, and the outcome of utilizing the capitals, which is the level of parental participation in primary education.

2.8 Conceptual framework of the study

This section presents the conceptual framework of the study, highlighting the independent, dependent and moderating variables. The section ends by a diagrammatic presentation of the conceptual framework.

Independent and dependent variables in the conceptual framework

This study adapted the 'context-outcome' thinking in the CCF as the conceptual framework. The 'context', in this study, were the four selected community capitals; human, social, cultural, and financial. The 'outcome' in this study was the level of parental participation in primary education. In this study, the independent variables constituted the context and the dependent variables, the outcome. The human, social, cultural and financial capitals were therefore the independent variables and the access-responsive participation, gender-responsive participation and quality-responsive participation of the parents were the dependent variables. Each of the objectives of the study was based on one of the aspects of the context, as the independent variables, and the outcomes as the dependent variables.

As Perna and Marvin (2005) note, an individual's actions cannot be well understood except in relation to the context in which those actions occur. In this study, the community capitals are some of the contexts in which parental participation (the actions of parents) can be well understood. All the forms of capital are inequitably distributed among individuals and groups (Ziersch, Osborne, & Baum, (2011). The implication of this in this study is that the community capitals form suitable variables for a study. The 'outcomes' in this study are the aspects of parental participation, which are; access-responsive participation (ARP), and quality-responsive participation (QRP) and gender-responsive participation (GRP). ARP comprises actions of parents that are related to access in education, such as allowing their children to enroll in school at the right age, allowing them to attend school always, and allowing them to complete primary education. QRP are actions of parents that are related to supporting the quality of learning such as helping the children with curriculum-related homework, providing text books and other learning materials, and regularly communicating with the school and other members of the community about their children's learning. GRP are actions of parents that are related to providing equal opportunities in education to boys and girls in terms of access and quality. In the conceptual framework of the study, the community capitals were the independent variables and the three aspects of parental participation were the dependent variables. Community capitals have been used as independent variables in some studies. In a paper on the measurement of social capital, Stone (2004) note that a number of studies present social capital, one of community capitals, as an independent variable, and ask questions about how social capital influences other variables. In another paper on improving the measurement of financial capital, National Center for Education Statistics [NCES] (2012) note that financial capital is treated as one of the independent variables, which they refer to as background variables, in the National Assessment of Educational Progress project in the US.

The moderating variables in the conceptual framework

Although this study focused only on the community capitals as the variables that may influence parental participation, there are other moderating variables that are known to be related to participation in education. One such variable is the quality of the physical infrastructure of the schools. Akyeampong (2009) points out that improving physical infrastructure increases enrolment in schools. In a study on the determinants of school enrollment in Indian villages, Dostie and Jayaraman (2006) found out that the children were more likely to be enrolled when the public schools had enough classrooms so that no classes were likely to be held outdoors. Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) observe that children have a higher probability of dropping out if school quality in terms of physical infrastructure is low. Sifuna (2005) concurs with this observation in a study

in Kenya that congestion in classrooms is a key contributory factor in the drop-out of children from school.

The physical infrastructure of a school has a bearing on the quality of education (Chimombo, 2005), which translates into the academic performance of the children. Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) note that the way parents interact with the school may be mediated to some degree by the academic performance of their children. Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) observe that parents often get to know quality education that the children get in particular schools and are, therefore, more willing to send them to schools in which they perceive the quality of education to be better. Birdsall, Levine and Ibrahim, 2005) concur with this observation by pointing out that where schools cannot offer a quality education, parents are far less likely to send their children to school.

A second variable that often affect parental participation is the distance from the schools. Lewin (2015) notes that access to education is hampered when a school is located too far away from the home. Chimombo (2005) also observes that, in Malawi, many children found it difficult to travel to school because of the mountainous terrain and large distances between primary schools. Chimombo observed that most cases of drop-outs were those pupils whose homes were situated 5 kilometres, or more, from the nearest school. Dostie and Jayaraman (2006) note that it is easier for boys than girls to attend a distant school. They noted that the average time spent walking to school was 32 minutes for boys and 34 minutes for girls. Sifuna (2005) also observes that distance to a school is a major hindrance to participation, especially for girls. This means that where distance to school is large, more boys than girls would attend thus distorting gender-responsive participation of the parents. Although there is a concurrence that distance to school hampers access, the foregoing literature is not explicit on the distance that is considered not too far from school for children to walk. Chillón, Panter, Corder, Jones and Van Sluijs (2015) found out that in Belgian, the average distance that children walk to school is 1.5 kilometres for 11–12 year-olds and 2 kilometres for 13-17 year-olds. Easton and Ferrari (2015) found out that, in the United Kingdom, the mean walking distance for 11-16 year-olds was 2.7 kilometres. In this study, a distance which is more than 3km was, therefore, considered too far for the 11-16 year-old children.

Figure 1 is a diagrammatic representation of the conceptual framework based on the CCF and taking into considerations the two moderating variables. In the conceptual framework, the aspects of each of the community capitals are listed under it. The framework also shows that, although each the community capitals have distinct aspects, they are all inter-related. Tylor and Yu (2009), Abenakyo, Sanginga, Njuki, Kaaria and Delve (2007) and Rouse and Barrow (2006) attest that the

community capitals are inter-related and complementary to each other. The components of each of the aspects of the level of parental participation are also indicated in the conceptual framework.

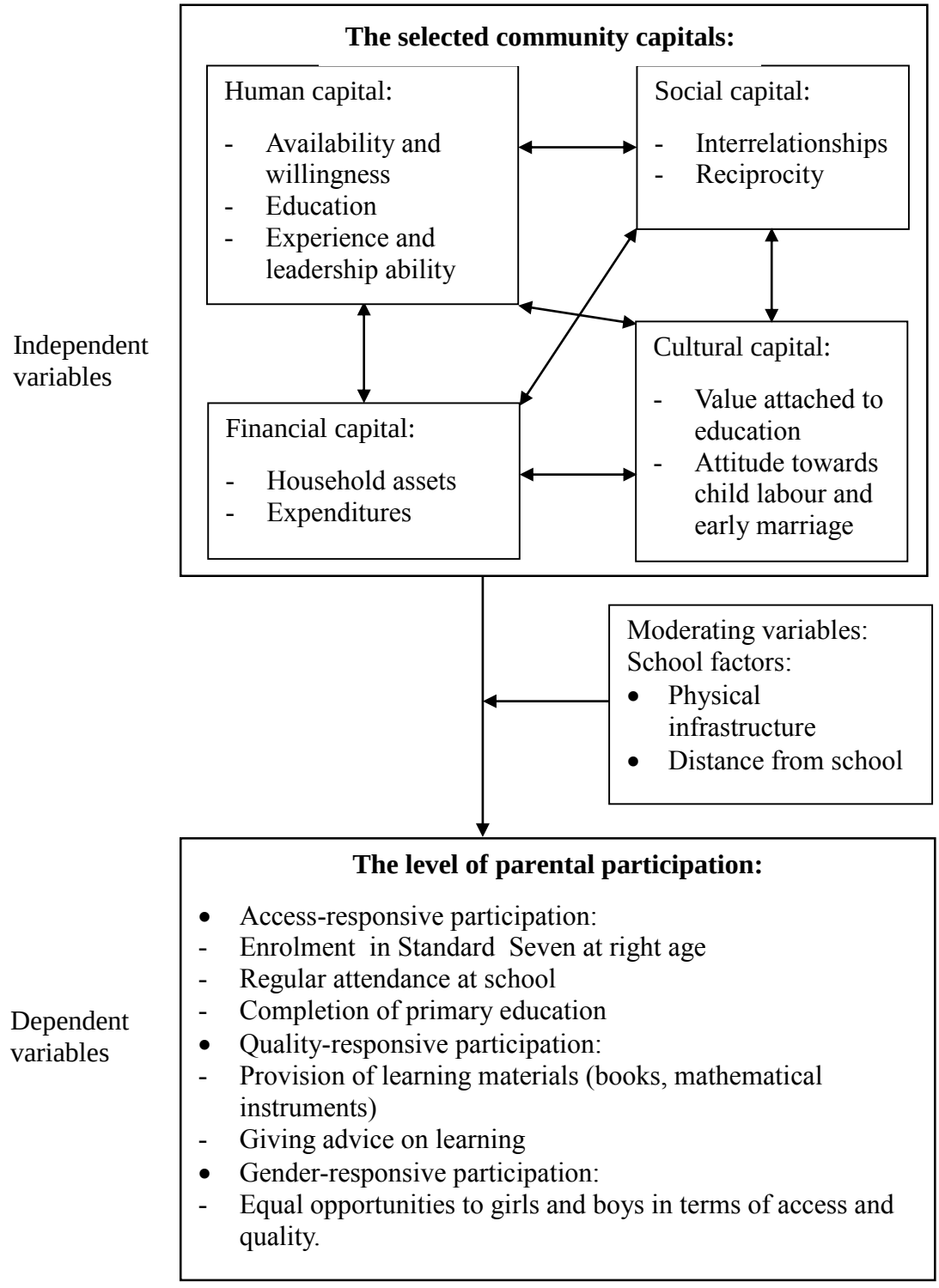

Figure 1 Conceptual framework for the study

Source: Adapted from Flora, Emery, Fey & Bregendahl. (2012). *Community capitals: A tool for evaluating strategic interventions and projects.*

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the design of the study, location of study, target and accessible population of the study, sampling procedure, sample size, instrumentation, procedure of data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research design

The design of the study was a survey in which the correlations between variables were determined and explored. A survey is suitable for identifying relationships between variables (Mann, 2005), making it suitable for achieving the purpose of this study. The survey was cross-sectional, which means that the data was collected at one point in time. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), a cross-sectional survey has a stronger likelihood of participation by the respondents compared to the longitudinal one. This is because, in the cross-sectional survey, the respondent is engaged for a shorter time, hence increasing the likelihood of giving the full response required. They continue to note that another reason for using a cross-sectional survey is that the relocation of a respondent from the location of the study will not affect the data collected. The once-off information captured from a respondent was therefore considered sufficient for the study.

3.3 Location of the study

Migori County is situated in the south-western part of Kenya bordering Tanzania and Uganda (Appendix VI). The county has an estimated population of 971,000 people (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). The county is divided into eight sub-counties, which are Awendo, Kuria East, Kuria West, Nyatike, Rongo, Suna East, Suna West and Uriri. The headquarters of the county is Migori town, which occupies a part of Suna East and that of Suna West sub-counties. Migori town and the headquarters of the other sub-counties form the urban parts of the county. In total, Migori County is 34% urbanized (Kenya Opendata, n.d.). The majority (66%) of the population in the county therefore live in rural settings.

The proportion of the population in Migori County that is living below the national poverty line of $1.25 a day is 45.8% as at 2014 (Kenya Opendata, 2016). This is slightly worse than the national poverty rate, estimated at 43.4% as at 2014 (Indexmundi, 2016). The main economic activity of the people who live in the rural parts of the county is farming. The county is generally endowed with good climate that support farming of a large variety of crops. The main food crops are maize, beans, potatoes, cassava and kales. The cash crops are sugarcane, mainly in Awendo and Rongo

sub-counties and tobacco, mainly in Kuria East, Kuria West, Suna East and Suna West. Fishing is a major activity in parts of Nyatike sub-county that lie along Lake Victoria. Mining of gold is also a significant activity, mainly in Nyatike sub-county. A smaller number of the rural population is in other occupations such as formal employment (mainly primary school teachers), small trade and crafts. In the urban parts of the county, the major occupations are formal employment, trade and crafts.

It was important to ascertain the level of poverty and the economic activities in the county since this could have a bearing on the financial capital and the quality-responsive participation of the parents. For example, the financial capital enables the parents to buy learning materials for their children. The economic activities could further have a bearing on the social capital and the access-responsive participation of the parents. This is because the rate of school attendance of children could be affected by the economic activities of their parents. For example, in the parts of the county where fishing is a major economic activity, the children are likely to miss going to school to engage in the fishing to help their parents. The fishing could also contribute to child labour in those parts of the county.

The proportion of the adults in the county aged 15 years and above who cannot read or write is 10.7% (Republic of Kenya, 2013a), which is slightly better than the national proportion of 27% (UNESCO, 2016). The knowledge that some adults could not read or write was helpful in planning to administer data collection instruments. The literacy level was also important to know since it could have a bearing on the human capital of the parents.

The Luo and the Kuria are the two main ethnic groups that inhabit the county. The Luo is the majority group, being also the majority in Awendo, Nyatike, Suna East, Suna West, Rongo, and Uriri sub-counties. The Kuria mainly occupy Kuria East and Kuria West sub-counties. Dholuo, the language of the Luo, and Kikuria, the language of the Kuria, are the two main indigenous languages in the county. Another ethnic group with a significant presence is the Abaluhya. Most of the Abaluhya and the Kuria in the county speak Kiswahili. The Abaluhya comprises several sub-ethnic groups which do not have a common language, hence they conveniently speak Kiswahili. Apart from their indigenous language, most of the Kuria also speak Kiswahili. This is because of the frequent interactions with those in the neighbouring Tanzania, where Kiswahili is the language of communication. The ethnic groups in the county have different cultural orientations, which could have a bearing on the cultural capital of the parents.

3.4 Population of the study

The study targeted the parents of children in all the primary schools in Migori County. The county has 615 public and 201 private primary schools, totaling to 816 primary schools with an average of 296 pupils per school (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). The total number of pupils in the county was then estimated to be 242,000. Since each pupil has at least one parent, the total number of parents was also estimated to be at least 242,000. The target population was therefore 242,000. The accessible population, from which the study sample was drawn, were the parents who had children in the Standard Seven in all the public and private primary schools. The population of parents of the children in the Standard Seven is approximately one-eighth of the total population in one school, since a primary school has eight grades. An estimate of the size of the accessible population was therefore 30,250, which is one-eighth of 242,000. A total of 816 headteachers, one from each of the primary schools in the county, were also targeted to provide information that would be used to compare with that from the parents.

3.5 Sample size and sampling procedure

Determination of the appropriate sample size for the study was based on the size of the accessible population. Since the size of the accessible population (30,250) was greater than 10,000, the minimum sample size required for the study was determined using the Cochran's formula (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003),

$$n = \frac{Z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

where,

n = the desired sample size (when the target population is greater than 10,000),

Z = the standard normal deviation at the required significance level,

p = the proportion in the target population estimated to have characteristics being measured,

q = 1-p, and

d = the level of statistical significance set for the study.

In this study, the level of statistical significance was set to be 0.05, so the value of Z is 1.96. The probability of the accessible population having a characteristic being measured is 0.5, since the population can either have the characteristic or not. This means that p = 0.5 and q = 0.5, hence,

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

= 384.16

= 385 (rounded off to the next whole number).

The minimum sample size of 385 is recommended for a survey targeting a population that is greater than 10,000. This minimum size, however, is recommended with the assumption that the response rate is 100%. In reality, the chance of a response rate of 100% is extremely remote. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), therefore, suggest that it is important to plan for a response rate which is below 100%. According to a study by Baruch and Holtom (2008) in which they analysed 1,607 surveys, the average response rate for a survey in which questionnaires are left with respondents to fill, such as in this study, is 62%. This means that to attain the recommended minimum sample size, the study had to target a sample size that was above 385. The targeted sample size was then

$\frac{385}{0.62}$ = 621 (to the nearest whole number).

The study therefore targeted 621 parents in order to obtain the minimum of 385 of them.

The study employed purposive, proportionate and simple random sampling methods to obtain the sample of parents. All the eight sub-counties were purposively sampled to ensure that the sample represented the various communities in the county as much as possible. Proportionate sampling was then used to obtain the number of parents who were targeted in each of the eight sub-counties. The proportion was based on the number of schools in the sub-county as a percentage of the total number of schools in the county as shown in Table 3. For example, Awendo sub-county has 106 schools, which is 13.0% of 816. The number of parents targeted from Awendo sub-county was 81, which is 13.0% of 621.

Table 3 *Sampling procedure for number of parents per sub-county*

Sub-county	Number of schools	Proportion of number of schools (%)	Proportionate number of parents targeted
Awendo	106	13.0	81
Kuria East	71	8.7	54
Kuria West	121	14.8	92
Nyatike	140	17.2	107
Rongo	103	12.6	78
Suna East	83	10.2	63
Suna West	81	9.9	62
Uriri	111	13.6	84
Total	**816**	**100**	**621**

Once the proportionate sample of parents for a sub-county was obtained, the second level involved determining the proportionate samples of parents of the pupils in the public and private schools The proportion of parents were based on the number of schools as a percentage of the total number of schools as shown in Table 4. In Awendo sub-county, for example, with 72 public primary schools out of 106 primary schools, the proportionate sample size of the parents for the public schools, out of the 81 parents, was 55, that is, (72÷106) x 81. The sub-county had 34 private primary schools, hence the proportionate sample size was 26, that is, (34÷106) x 81.

Table 4 *Sampling procedure for parents of children in pubic and in private schools*

Sub-county	Number of primary schools:			Number of parents sampled proportionately:		Total number of parents sampled
	Public	Private	Total	For pupils in a public school	For pupils in a private school	
Awendo	72	34	106	55	26	81
Kuria East	51	20	71	39	15	54
Kuria West	91	30	121	69	23	92
Nyatike	122	18	140	93	14	107
Rongo	68	35	103	51	27	78
Suna East	68	15	83	52	11	63
Suna West	67	14	81	51	11	62
Uriri	76	35	111	56	28	84
Total			**816**			**621**

In each sub-county, one public primary school and one private primary school was obtained by a combination of purposive and simple random sampling. Purposive sampling was used to obtain a group of public primary schools and another group of private ones with a certain minimum level of enrolment. One reason for purposively sampling the groups of schools was to ensure that the enrolment was adequate enough to obtain the number of parents for the study, as shown in the sampling framework. For example, in Awendo sub-county, the group of public primary schools comprised those with an enrolment of at least 55 pupils and the group of private primary school comprised those with an enrolment of at least 26 pupils in Standard Seven class. Another reason for purposive sampling was to take care of the two moderating variables, which were physical

infrastructure and the distance of the school from the farthest home of the children. Schools where the buildings were all permanent, had adequate desks and electricity connection were purposively sampled to ensure that their infrastructure were similar. The schools for which the catchment area spanned a radius of not more than 3 kilometres were sampled to ensure that no pupil or a negligible number of pupils walk more than 3 kilometres to school, unless the school had means of transport.

After moderating for the infrastructure and distance from the schools, the sampled schools were within a certain range of academic performance in KCPE. It was not possible to get schools that had similar infrastructure, catchment area and also have same academic performance. Schools in which the mean score in KCPE were in the range of 250 to 300 marks were sampled. This category of schools are those considered the average ones or just slightly above average, in terms of the academic performance. Simple random sampling was then used to obtain schools from this category of schools to ensure that the two moderating variables were taken care of. Through the random sampling, one public school and one private school were obtained from each of the 8 sub-counties, making a total of 16 primary schools for the study. The headteachers of each of the schools were also included as respondents in the study, forming a sample of 16 headteachers.

The sampled parents were reached through their children in the sampled schools. For example, 55 parents were targeted in the sampled public primary school in Awendo sub-county (Table 4). Since it would be cumbersome to identify parents with children in Standard seven, their children were used as proxies to reach them. This means that for the public school in Awendo, 55 pupils were randomly sampled and used to reach 55 parents, ensuring that none of the sampled pupils shared a parent. The Standard Seven class was purposively sampled because the pupils in this class are mature enough to assist the researcher in reaching their parents. The Standard Eight pupils are more mature but left out to avoid inconveniences to them as they prepare for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) examinations. In a school with more than one class in Standard Seven, simple random sampling was used to sample one of the classes.

Out of the targeted 621 parents, 436 of them responded, which was well above the recommended minimum sample of 385. Table 5 shows the response rates per sub-county. The overall response rate of 70%. The determination of the response rate in the study was based on the standard definition provided by the American Association for Public Opinion Research (AAPOR) for a survey questionnaire. According to AAPOR (2016) a response is considered complete if the returned questionnaire has responses to at least 80% of the items provided that there are no essential or crucial items which must be responded to. In this study, there was no item designated as crucial, hence the non-responses included unreturned questionnaires, returned questionnaires

but no response and returned questionnaires with less than 80% of the items responded to. The response rate was therefore the ratio of complete responses to the total number of questionnaires issued.

Table 5 *Response rates from the sampled parents*

Sub-county	**Targeted sample of parents**	**Attained sample of parents**	**Response rate (%)**
Awendo	81	59	73
Kuria East	54	37	67
Kuria West	92	68	74
Nyatike	107	78	73
Rongo	78	52	67
Suna East	63	42	67
Suna West	62	41	66
Uriri	84	59	70
Total	621	**436**	**70**

3.6 Instrumentation

The instruments for data collection were the parents' questionnaire (Appendix I), headteachers' questionnaire (Appendix II) and document analysis guide (Appendix III). Each of the instruments had a number of items whereby each item measured an aspect of a variable. The items that measure the same variable were grouped under a section in the instruments as in the descriptions that follow.

The parents' questionnaire

The parents' questionnaire consisted of 49 items grouped into eight sections. Section One had 3 items that captured the demographic information of the parents. The demographic information was useful in demonstrating the diversity of the respondents in terms of gender, age and occupation. Section Two consisted of 6 items that measured the human capital in terms of experience in educating children, education level, availability for parents' meetings in the schools, giving ideas to improve education in the schools, and leadership ability. Section Three had 8 items which measured the social capital in terms of the relationships with close relatives (brothers, sisters,

cousins), interactions (networks) with other people in a civic or a faith-based group and reciprocity (giving ideas to help other children in the community). Section Four had 7 items that measured the cultural capital in terms of the attitude in relation to education in general, attitude towards education of girls and boys, and ability to speak in Kiswahili and English.

Section Five of the questionnaire had 6 items designed to measure the financial capital, which, in this study was limited to the household assets and expenditure. Section Six consisted of 5 items designed to measure the level of access-responsive participation of the parents in terms of facilitating the enrolment of their children in school at right age, attendance in school as required and transition of the children to secondary education. Section Seven comprised of 5 items that measured the level gender-responsive participation of the parents in terms of their readiness to give equal opportunity for a girl and to complete primary education and to transit to secondary education. Finally, Section Eight had 6 items which measured the level of the quality-responsive participation of the parents based on the assistance they give their children at home in learning tasks, providing the children with required learning materials and consulting the school on academic work of the children.

Recognizing that not all the people in the target population were able to understand English, the parents' questionnaire was also in Kiswahili and Dholuo. The questionnaire in Kiswahili was to cater for the Kuria and Abaluhya who were not able to read and write in English. The one in Dholuo was to cater for the Luo respondents who were also not able to read and write in English.

The headteachers' questionnaire

The headteachers questionnaire had a total of 10 items divided into three sections. Section One had 2 items that sought to obtain information on the access-responsive participation of the parents in terms of the reasons that make children report to school late and for the absenteeism of children in their schools. Section Two consisted of 2 items that were designed to capture information on the gender-responsive participation of the parents. The items captured information on how the community in which the school is situated value education of boys to that of girls and a comparison of drop-out rates for boys and girls in the school. Section Three comprised 6 items on the quality-responsive participation of the parents, according to the headteachers. In this section, they were required to give their assessment on the help given to the children by their parents and how often the parents consult teachers on academic work of their children.

The document analysis guide

The document analysis guide had 7 items in two sections. Section One had 3 items which captured the gender aggregated data on total enrolment in the school from Standard One to Standard Eight, academic achievement and age of the enrolment in Standard One and Standard Seven. The items in Section One were designed to obtain information on the gender-responsive participation of the parents. Section Two of the guide captured information on the level of academic achievement of the school, in terms of the mean score in KCPE the years 2014, 2015 and 2016. The section also captured data on the availability of the learning materials bought by parents. The section was designed to obtain information on the quality-responsive participation of the parents.

Validity

The validity of the instruments was addressed by grounding the definitions and understanding of the main variables on conventional theories and experiences from similar studies. The theories and experiences were discussed in Chapter One and Chapter Two, and used to formulate the items in the data collection instruments. The content validity in the instruments was also addressed by involving people who have expert knowledge in education capitals in reviewing the instruments. The expert knowledge was from the lecturers in the Department of Applied Community Development Studies of Egerton University. The university supervisors in this study also validated the instruments to ascertain their content validity. The validation helped to improve the clarity of the language used in the items, addition of items considered essential in capturing the variables, and deletion of those considered irrelevant to the variables in the study. The reason for grounding the variables on conventional theories and experiences from similar studies and the review of the instruments was to ascertain the content validity of the instruments. Content validity shows that the items in the instrument fairly represent the wider issues under investigation and that the items adequately covers the depth and breadth of the issues (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In this study, the content validity meant that the instruments fairly and adequately represented the community capitals and the parental participation in primary education within the stated scope.

The adequacy of the items, in terms of the number of items, was considered against the amount of time that the respondents would averagely be willing to spare for giving the information required in the instruments. The instruments were therefore designed not to have too many or too few items. Too many items would mean that many respondents would not be patient enough to go through the whole instrument and too few items would mean the instrument could not adequately represent the issues under investigation. The optimum number of the items in the instruments was established during the pilot study.

The study also ascertained the construct validity of the Parents' Questionnaire, which was the main source of data. Construct validity is concerned with the way the constructs, or concepts, are articulated in the items. Construct validity is the accuracy with which an item measures the construct which is targeted to measure (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). An item has a construct validity if it contributes to the accurate measurement of the constructs in the study. The constructs that were measured in the study were; human capital, social capital, cultural capital, financial capital, access-responsive parental participation, gender-responsive parental participation and quality-responsive parental participation.

The construct validity of the Parents' Questionnaire was ascertained through Exploratory Factor Analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) recommend the use of Factor Analysis for checking the construct validity of an instrument. A number of studies (Ang, 2005; Binks-Cantrell, Joshi & Washburn, 2012; Pohlmann, 2004) have employed Exploratory Factor Analysis to check construct validity of instruments. The Factor Analysis puts variables together under one factor, depending on how much they are inter-correlated to the factor. One item in the Parents Questionnaire was designed to measure only one variable, hence the factor analysis grouped the items under certain factors.

Reliability

Piloting the three instruments was used to test the reliability in terms of the internal consistency of items in them. To avoid data contamination, the instruments were piloted in Ndhiwa Sub-county in Homa Bay County, which borders Migori County to the north (Appendix VI). The county was chosen for piloting since the characteristics of its population are relatively closer to those of Migori County compared to any other county. The sample for piloting the questionnaires was obtained from one private and one public primary school in the pilot sub-county, giving a sample size of 72 parents. The sample for piloting was 11.6% of the total targeted sample population, which was 621. The determination of the sample size for piloting was based on the scientifically acceptable practice that such a sample should cover at least 10% of the sample population (Simon, 2011). The headteachers in each of the two schools were also in the pilot sample.

The data obtained from the pilot study was analysed to determine whether the instruments were reliable for use in the final data collection. Using the data from the piloting, some of the items in the instruments were either reworded and maintained or deleted. For the Headteachers' questionnaire, no item was reworded or deleted. It was then used in the final data collection without alteration. For the Document Analysis guide, the items concerning access-responsive participation

were omitted after the piloting since the information was found to be well taken care of in the Parents' and Headteachers' questionnaires.

The piloted Parents' questionnaire had a total of 63 items. After the pilot, the number of the items were reduced to 49 for the final data collection. The reason for reducing the number was that there were many cases of non-response for 15 items, on average, falling in last part of the questionnaire. This showed that the questionnaire was too long for the respondents, occasioning a large amount of non-response, which could negatively affect the reliability of the questionnaire. The pilot data was tested for reliability based on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The threshold value of the alpha for the group of items to be reliable is at least 0.7 (Bryman, 2012). Two criteria, based on the reliability test, were used for omitting certain items from the questionnaire. One criterion was that the variable captured in the item was already captured in another item with a higher contribution to the reliability of the questionnaire. The second criterion was that the inclusion of the item would lower the reliability of the questionnaire to below the threshold of .70 for a statistically acceptable reliability.

The 49 items in the Parents' questionnaire were therefore considered adequate for capturing the variables required in the study and their level of reliability met the threshold. Out of the 49 items, 3 were capturing the demographic information of the population, 27 measuring the four community capitals and 19 measuring the level of parental participation. Exploratory Factor Analysis showed that one item for measuring community capitals and another item for measuring the level of parental participation did not meet the criteria of construct validity and was therefore excluded from the final data analysis.

The piloting results were also used to assign categories to the different occupation and to assign the expenditure range for the items that require the respondents to indicate them. The categories of the different occupations and the range of expenditures were assigned a scale ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 6.

3.7 Data collection procedure

Before commencing the data collection, a letter approving the research proposal was given by Egerton University Graduate School. The letter was used to apply for a permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The permit was issued, with a requirement that authorization in writing be obtained from the County Commissioners and County Education Officers of Homa Bay County, the location of the pilot study, and Migori County (Appendix VII). Four authorization letters, two from each of the two counties were granted

(Appendices VIII, IX, X and XI). Two research assistants were trained by the researcher on the understanding of the instruments so that they can explain it to the respondents.

With the permit and authorization letters issued, data was collected in Homa Bay County for the pilot study. After the piloting, the main data was collected in Migori County. Two methods were used in taking the questionnaires to the parents. The first method involved sending the questionnaire, as a mail, to each parent through the Standard Seven pupils. This method was used for parents who were known to be literate, as per records available in the schools. The method had also been tested during the pilot study and was found to yield adequate response rate. To ensure good response on filling in the questionnaires, a letter from the school introducing the researcher to the respondent was attached to the questionnaire. When giving the questionnaires the researcher and the headteacher and the researcher told the pupils not to participate since it was for their parents only. The pupils were given the questionnaires when they were going home in the evening after school and told to give one of their parents. They were also told to bring back the questionnaire the following day whether filled or not. This was done to maintain the research ethics that the respondents shall not be coerced to give their responses. The time for the parents to fill in the questionnaire was limited to only one evening to minimize interference by other people on their responses. The filled in questionnaires were collected from the school by the researcher and the assistants.

In the second method used in the data collection, the questionnaires were taken to the parents by the researcher and the assistants. They read the questionnaire to the parents and wrote down their responses. The method was used in the cases where the parents sampled were not able to read and write. This category of parents were, however, very few compared to those who could read and write. All the sampled parents of children in the private schools were able to read and write. In the public schools, the number of the sampled parents who were not able to read and write averaged about two parents per school.

The headteachers' questionnaires were administered directly to the headteacher by the reasearcher. The document analysis guide was filled in jointly by the headteacher and the researcher or the data collection assistants. Out of the 16 headteachers targeted, 12 responded to the questionnaire. The other 4 were out of the school on other commitments and their deputies declined to fill the questionnaires on their behalf.

3.8 Data analysis

In each of the four objectives there was one independent variable and one dependent variable. The human capital, social capital, cultural capital and financial capital were the independent variables. The dependent variable was parental participation, which was common to all the four objectives.

The parental participation consisted of three variables, which were; access-responsive, quality responsive and gender responsive. Each of the three variables was measured by a group of items, all scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. The measure of each of the three variables was the average value of the Likert scores for the group of items under the variable. The level of parental participation was the average measure of the three variables; access-responsive, quality responsive and gender responsive.

Out of the 18 items for measuring the level of parental participation, the responses of the parents to 17 of them were directly indicated on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. One of the 18 items required a free response in which the parent were asked to write down the age of the child in Primary school and the class. The age at which a child is expected to be in Standard Seven is 12 years (Republic of Kenya. (2013b) hence the older the child for that class the less access-responsive the parent is. The age and class given by the respondent was therefore coded between 1 and 5, where 1 represents the least and 5 the highest access-responsive participation in terms of enrolling the child in school. Age of 12 years or below was assigned the maximum score of 5, 13 years a score of 4, 14 years a score of 3, 15 years a score of 2 and 16 years or above was assigned the least score of 1. The scale for measuring the level of parental participation therefore had a minimum score of 18 and a maximum score of 90.

Objective 1 was analysed using the measures of the level of human capital and that of parental participation. The data on human capital was obtained through a mixture of items, one required a free-response, another item required a ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ and responses for the other items were on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. The free-response was scored on a scale of 0 to 4 and the ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ was scored 1 for ‘No’ and 2 for ‘Yes’. The measure of the level of human capital was the sum of the scores for each item. The scale for measuring the level of human capital, therefore, had a minimum score of 7 and a maximum score of 36.

Objective 2 was analysed using the measures of the level of social capital and that of the level of parental participation. The data on the level of social capital was obtained through seven items, all scored on a Likert scale 1 to 5. The minimum score for the level of social capital was, therefore, 7 and the maximum was 35.

Objective 3 was analysed using the measures of the level of cultural capital and that of parental participation. The level of cultural capital was measured using five items scored on a Likert scale 1 to 5. Three of the items were negative statements hence the scores indicated in the questionnaire were recorded in reverse. That is, 5 was recorded as 1, 4 as 2, 3 remained as 3, 2 was recorded as 4 and 1 as 5. The minimum score for the level of cultural capital was 5 and the maximum was 25.

Objective 4 was analysed using the measures of the level of financial capital and that of parental participation. The level of financial capital was measured using a total of six items. The responses to four of the items, on possession of household assets, were 'Yes' or 'No, whereby a 'No' was scored 0 and a 'Yes' was scored 1. The item used to measure the household monthly expenditure was scored on stratified intervals of Kenya shillings (Ksh) 5,000. The lowest monthly expenditure ranging from Ksh 0 to 4,999 was scored 1, followed by a score of 2 for Ksh 5,000 to 9,999, a score of 3 for Ksh 10,000 to 14,999, a score of 4 for Ksh 15,000 to 19,999, a score of 5 for Ksh 20,000 to 24,999 and the highest score of 6 for monthly expenditure ranging from Ksh. 25,000 and above. The monthly expenditure on airtime was scored on stratified intervals of Ksh 50. The lowest monthly expenditure on airtime, ranging from Ksh 0 to 49 was scored 1, followed by a score of 2 for Ksh 50 to 99, a score of 3 for Ksh 100 to 149, a score of 4 for Ksh 150 to 199, a score of 5 for Ksh. 200 to 249 and the highest score of 6 for monthly expenditure of Ksh 250 and above. The two types of expenditures combined, therefore, had a minimum score of 2 and a maximum score of 12. As a whole, the scale for measuring the level of financial capital ranged from a minimum score of 2 to a maximum of 16.

Frequencies, means and Exploratory Factor Analysis were used to explore the data on the variables. The Factor Analysis was used because it identifies the factors (groups of variables) in the study that possess more explanatory power (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011) and hence directed the emphasis of the recommendations from the findings.

The four hypotheses for the study were tested using the Spearman's Correlation coefficient, r_s, generated by SPSS, in which a two-tailed test at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was used as the threshold. Hence statistical significance was accepted if the observed level of significance, p was equal to or less than 0.05. The correlation coefficients obtained from the analysis were judged to be very small, small, moderate or high. According to Fan and Chen (2004), a correlation of $r_s \leq .10$ is very small, $.10 < r_s \leq .30$ is small, $.30 < r_s < .50$ is moderate and $r_s \geq .50$ is high. Table 6 shows a summary of the data analysis in terms of the objectives and the respective variables and statistics.

Table 6 *Summary of the data analysis framework*

Objectives	**Independent variable**	**Dependent variable**	**Statistic**
Objective 1: To determine the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.	Human capital	Level of parental participation in primary education	Frequency, mean, chi-square, Spearman's Correlation
Objective 2: To establish the relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.	Social capital	Level of parental participation in primary education	Frequency, mean, Spearman's Correlation
Objective 3: To examine the relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.	Cultural capital	Level of parental participation in primary education	Frequency, mean, Spearman's Correlation
Objective 4: To determine the relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County.	Financial capital	Level of parental participation in primary education	Frequency, mean, Spearman's Correlation

The analysis of the distribution was also carried out in the study to assess the extent to which the study sample is representative of the target population, in which the variables were assumed to have a normal population. The extent to which the data of each of the variables approximates a normal distribution was used to assess how well the sample population was representative of the target population. One of the statistics used for testing the normality of distribution of a variable is skewness (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Brown, 2011). Skewness is the extent and direction to which a distribution curve differs with the normal distribution. In this study therefore,

skewness was used in determining the extent to which the distribution of the variables under consideration approximates the normal distribution. Brown (2011) notes that in real-world data, a perfect normal distribution is very unlikely. According to Brown, if skewness is less than −1 or greater than +1, the distribution is highly skewed, if skewness is between −1 and -0.5 or between +0.5 and +1, the distribution is moderately skewed and if skewness is between -0.5 and +0.5, the distribution is approximately symmetric.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by presenting the findings on the demographic profile of the parents with children who are in primary schools in Migori County. This is followed by the findings on the profile of the level of parental participation in the education of their children. Next in this chapter are the findings based on each of the four objectives of the study and corresponding hypotheses. Out of the 621 targeted sample of the parents, 436 responded, representing a response rate of 70%. In case of the headteachers, there were responses from 12 out of a targeted sample of 16. The following were therefore based on responses from 436 parents and 12 headteachers.

4.2 Reliability and construct validity of the study

Reliability

The Parent's Questionnaire measured the levels of the four community capitals, considered as one scale, and the level of parental participation, considered as the second scale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability of the scale used for measuring the level of the four community capitals was .73 and that of the scale used for measuring level of parental participation was .74. The overall reliability of the Parent's questionnaire was .82. A group of items in an instrument is reliable if its Cronbach's alpha coefficient is at .7 or more (Bryman, 2012). The Parent's Questionnaire was therefore a reliable instrument for measuring the four community capitals and the level of parental participation.

Construct validity

The construct validity of the Parent's Questionnaire was tested using Exploratory Factor Analysis. To carry out the Exploratory Factor Analysis, the data gathered through the questionnaire was first analysed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy. The scale for measuring the four community capitals had a KMO measure of .70 and that for measuring the level of parental participation also had a KMO measure of .70. A sample is considered adequate if its KMO measure is at least .5 (Field, 2009). The sample size for the parents in this study was therefore adequate for Exploratory Factor Analysis.

After ascertaining that the sample size used in the study was adequate, Principal Component Analysis with Kaiser Normalization was done for the two scales in the Parents' questionnaire. Varimax orthogonal rotation method was used for both scales because the factors were considered to be independent of each other.

After initial Factor Analysis, one of the items (Number 17 in Appendix I) reading 'You get invitation to a school to talk to the pupils', as constructed, was found not to be valid as a measure of any aspect of community capitals. Consequently, the item was excluded from the final analysis. The number of items in the scale for measuring the community capitals was therefore reduced from 27 to 26. Further, two items in the scale, 'Literacy in Kiswahili' and 'Literacy in English' were found valid, but only when considered as part of human capital. In some literature (Zabihi & Pordel, 2011), education is viewed as part of cultural capital. The two items, however, were then factored under the human capital in the final analysis. Nine factors, or groups, were identified from the 26 variables for measuring the community capitals, as in the Table 7.

Each of the three decimal-place number shown in Table 7 is a factor loading, which represents how strongly a variable contributes to each factor (Binks-Cantrell, Joshi & Washburn, 2012). The factor loadings range from -1 to 1. According to Binks-Cantrell et al., the threshold factor loading for a variable to be included in a given factor is .3. The Factor Analysis therefore showed that the scale for measuring the community capitals had a construct validity since all the variables had factor loadings of at least .3 for the factors under which they were included. In the table of Factor Analysis, the shaded factor loadings in the column of a factor correspond to the items which were included in the factor. An inspection of the factors showed the 26 variables for measuring the four community capitals were described by only 9 factors, out of which human capital was described by three factors (4, 5, and 9), social capital by two factors (1 and 9), cultural capital by two factors (3 and 8) and financial capital by two factors (2 and 7).

Table 7 *Exploratory factor analysis for human, social, cultural and financial capitals*

Serial number in the Parents' Questionnaire and the item description	Factor								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Number of children who have completed Primary school ……..	-.055	-.108	.048	.088	-.049	-.043	.026	-.073	.750
5. Educational level ……	.104	.195	-.011	-.080	.781	.120	.181	.013	.220
6. Attendance of meetings …….	.029	.009	.059	.768	.072	.000	-.086	.008	.080
7. Telling other parents about meetings	.017	-.041	-.018	.827	-.069	.126	-.044	.005	.014
8. Giving ideas to improve school …	.195	.032	.048	.783	.013	.039	.077	-.132	-.017
9. Leadership position in community	.114	.073	.018	.035	.116	.060	.103	.200	.570
23. Literacy in Kiswahili ……	.078	.061	.062	.203	.468	-.010	.162	.124	-.422
24. Literacy in English ……	.085	.141	.098	.016	.860	.056	.085	.055	-.071
10. Help from family members ……	.776	.025	.043	.133	.159	-.080	.078	-.055	-.024
11. Help from relatives ……	.807	-.004	-.029	.074	.056	.068	.042	-.067	-.086
12. Help from friends ……	.802	-.048	.040	.034	.066	.070	-.011	-.032	-.008
13. Help from self-help groups ……	.745	.065	-.015	.023	-.148	.021	.033	.040	.098
14. Help from church/Islamic group …	.697	.060	.042	.003	.110	.151	-.044	.050	.054
15. Advice to children of relatives …	.064	.073	.071	.102	.097	.886	.008	.043	.010
16. Advice to children of friends ……	.142	-.052	-.006	.060	.042	.888	.037	.072	.007
17. Importance of education of a child	.015	.054	.703	.070	.119	.092	-.135	.119	.122
19. Importance of educating a girl-child	.049	.001	.891	.022	-.026	.006	.057	-.012	-.018
20. Importance of educating a boy-child	.005	.010	.904	.004	.025	-.027	.047	.020	-.042
21. A child leaving primary school for employment to earn money……	.001	-.003	.005	-.085	.044	.082	.034	.867	-.019
22. A girl leaving primary school for marriage ……	-.064	.048	.109	-.017	.054	.026	.046	.852	.086
25. General expenditure per month …	.049	.210	.029	-.067	.197	.117	.746	.143	.114
26. Expenditure on airtime ……	.046	.146	-.043	-.015	.110	-.052	.848	-.024	.009
27. Has Television ……	.158	.780	.072	-.060	.127	.006	.008	.074	.053
28. Has electricity connection ……	.079	.806	.034	.012	.154	.009	-.093	.042	-.024
29. Has water connection ……	-.085	.791	-.015	.009	.027	-.016	.292	-.044	-.051
30. Has a vehicle ……	-.088	.734	-.029	.052	.046	.032	.351	-.020	-.060

The Factor Analysis arranges the factors in the order of how strongly they contribute to the overall concept, which is community capitals in this case. The order shows that the inter-relationships (Factor 1), which is an aspect of social capital had the strongest contribution to the community capitals. Experience and leadership (Factor 9), which is an aspect of human capital had the least contribution to the community capitals in the context of this study.

The Exploratory Factor Analysis showed that the variables that were used to measure human capital coalesce into three groups or factors. The Factor Analysis sorted out the groups in the order of the magnitude of their contribution to the human capital. The order showed that among the variables used to measure human capital, Factor 4, comprising variables that described the availability and willingness had the strongest contribution to human capital, according to the Factor Analysis. The items coalescing together under availability and willingness were; attendance of meetings, telling other parents about meetings and giving ideas to improve the school

The Factor 5 group of variables, that was second in terms of how strongly they contribute to human capital, described the aspects of human capital related to the education of the parents. The items in this group were; education level, literacy in Kiswahili and literacy in English. Factor 9 group of variables had the least contribution to the human capital. The group described the experience aspects and the variables that coalesced under it were; number of children who have completed primary school and leadership position in community.

Using the Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings, the Factor Analysis showed that the 26 items account for 68% of the variance in community capitals. It then means that other than the human, social, cultural and financial capitals, there are other capitals that would account for 34% of the community capitals. The result of the Factor Analysis would be expected since, as noted earlier in Chapter Two, other community capitals, namely, the produced capital and natural capital were not within the scope in this study.

Exploratory Factor Analysis does not indicate the titles of the factors (groups of variables), but indicates only assigns them labels 1, 2, and so on. Table 8, therefore, shows the titles that were assigned to each group.

Table 8 *Factors in the community capitals and their assigned titles*

Community capital	**Factor as in Table 7**	**Assigned title**	**Items in the factor (group)**
Human capital	Factor 4	Availability and willingness	• Attendance of meetings • Telling other parents about meetings • Giving ideas to improve school
	Factor 5	Education	• Educational level • Literacy in Kiswahili • Literacy in English
	Factor 9	Experience	• Number of children who have completed Primary school • Leadership position in community
Social capital	Factor 1	Inter-relationships	• Help from family members • Help from relatives • Help from friends • Help from self-help groups • Help from church/Islamic group
	Factor 6	Reciprocity	• Advice to children of relatives • Advice to children of friends
Cultural capital	Factor 3	Value attached to education of children	• Importance of education of a child • Importance of educating a girl-child • Importance of educating a boy-child
	Factor 8	Attitude towards interruption children's schooling	• A child leaving primary school for employment to earn money • A girl leaving primary school for marriage
Financial capital	Factor 2	Household assets	• Has Television • Has electricity connection • Has water connection • Has a vehicle
	Factor 7	Expenditure	• General expenditure per month • Expenditure on airtime per day

The titles assigned to the factors were chosen is such a way that they reflected the aspects of each of the four community capitals discussed in Chapter Two. According to Cohen, Manion and

Morrison (2011), the factors possess more explanatory power in a study than that of the individual items.

For the level of parental participation, the initial Factor Analysis showed that one of the items (Number 36 in Appendix 1) in the scale, reading 'Ensuring that a girl proceeds to secondary education is as important as ensuring that a boy proceeds to secondary education', as constructed, was not valid as a measure of any aspect of parental participation in Primary education. Consequently, the item was excluded from the final analysis. The number of items in the scale for measuring the level of parental participation in Primary education was therefore reduced from 19 to 18. The Exploratory Factor analysis grouped the 18 variables for measuring the level of parental participation into six factors as shown in Table 9.

The grouping in Table 9 showed that the scale for measuring the level of parental participation in Primary education had construct validity since all the variables have factor loadings of at least .3 for the factors under which they were included. The shaded factor loadings in the column of a factor in the table of the Factor Analysis correspond to the items which were included in the factor. An inspection of the factors showed that the 18 variables were grouped into six factors, out of which access-responsive participation had two factors (4 and 6), gender-responsive participation had three factors (2, 6 and 5) and all the variables for quality-responsive participation were grouped as one factor (Factor 1) .

Table 9 *Exploratory factor analysis for parental participation*

Serial number in the Parents' Questionnaire and the item description	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Age of child at Standard Seven ……..	.228	.015	-.079	.257	.307	.067
School attendance of child …….	.068	-.040	-.024	.096	.029	.840
Would like child to complete primary school ….	.037	.078	.052	.872	.122	-.025
Would like child to proceed to secondary education	.065	.109	.159	.865	.010	.040
Care about punctuality of child at school ……..	-.058	.024	.022	-.064	.010	.834
Girl favoured for secondary education ……..	-.041	.041	.124	-.006	.837	.057
Boy favoured for secondary education …….	-.027	.276	.153	.117	.735	-.058
Alright for a girl to leave school for marriage …..	.043	.905	.161	.145	.156	.016
Alright for a boy to leave school for marriage …..	.017	.911	.223	.062	.132	-.033
Alright for a girl even without education ……..	.076	.225	.851	.070	.122	-.023
Alright for a boy even without education …….	.074	.161	.876	.130	.099	.027
Checks homework of child ……	.664	-.093	.259	-.063	.099	-.035
Helps child with homework ……..	.561	-.143	.200	-.006	.154	-.092
Discuss with teachers about child ……	.626	-.104	-.004	.039	.030	-.013
Buy books for child by own judgment ……..	.654	.096	.069	-.006	-.156	-.036
Buy books for child when told by teachers ……	.738	.108	.015	.080	-.121	.033
Encourage child to work hard ……	.741	.193	-.058	.059	.087	.050
Advises children of other people to work hard …..	.650	.027	-.130	.121	.014	.091

The factors (groups of variables) identified through Exploratory Factor Analysis for the level of parental participation were assigned titles as shown in Table 10.

Table 10 *Exploratory factor analysis for parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation	**Factor**	**Assigned title**	**Items in the factor (group)**
Access-responsive participation	Factor 4	Enrolment, completion and transition	• Age of child at Standard Seven • Would like child to complete primary school • Would like child to proceed to secondary education
	Factor 6	Attendance of school programmes	• School attendance of child • Care about punctuality of child at school
Gender-responsive participation	Factor 2	Attitude towards early marriage and child labour by gender	• Alright for a girl to leave school for marriage or job • Alright for a boy to leave school for marriage or job
	Factor 3	Attitude towards doing well in education by gender	• Alright for a girl even without doing well in education • Alright for a boy even without doing well in education
	Factor 5	Attitude towards transition from primary to secondary by gender	• Girl favoured for secondary education • Boy favoured for secondary education
Quality-responsive participation	Factor 1	Quality-responsive participation	• Checks homework of child • Helps child with homework • Discuss with teachers about child • Buy books for child by own judgment • Buy books for child when told by teachers • Encourage child to work hard • Advises children of other people to work hard

4.3 Demographic profile of the parents

Demographic profile is an overview of the characteristics of a population. In this study the characteristics on which data was collected were gender, age and occupation. Demographic profile is important in research for assessing whether the respondents form a representative sample of the target population. It is also collected to be used as supportive evidence of some of the findings.

Profile of the parents by gender

In terms of gender, the parents were expected to include mothers (females) and fathers (males). Figure 2 shows the composition of the parents in terms of their gender, in which the proportion of the males was found to be 51% and that of the females was 49%.

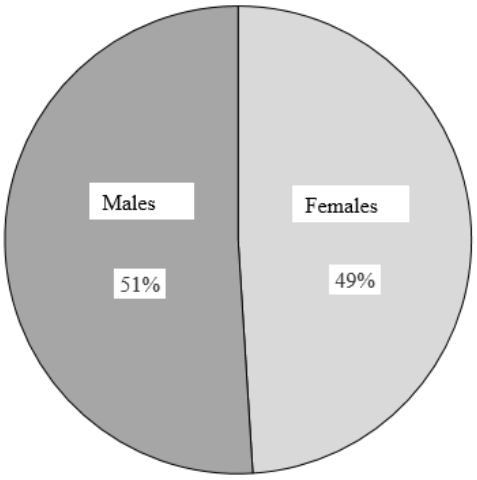

Figure 2 Composition of parents by gender

According to the Kenya Population Census carried out in 2009, the proportion of women in the population of Kenya is 50.3% and that of men is 49.7% (KNBS, 2010). In the study, therefore, women had a representation of 97% and men by 103%, showing that the males were slightly over-represented by 3% and females under-represented by 3%. The data in the study therefore provided an equally representative view of the participation of male and female parents in the education of their children.

Profile of the parents by age

Figure 3 shows the composition of the parents in terms of their age. The mean age of the parents was 40 years, to the nearest whole number.

Figure 3 Composition of the parents by age

The distribution of the ages was analysed for skewness and kurtosis. The distribution of the ages has a skewness of .76. Since the skewness is between +0.5, and +1, the distribution of the ages of the parents was just moderately skewed towards the left, indicating that the sample population fairly approximates a normal distribution (Brown, 2011). The sampled parents therefore fairly represented the target population in terms of age distribution. The skewness of the distribution curve shows that more of the parents were younger than the average age (40 years) of the sample population compared to those who were older than the average age. The age of parents have implications on their experience in parenting, which is an important aspect of human capital for effective participation in the education of children (Epstein, 2004). A larger proportion of younger parents in the study could have lowered the level of human capital in terms of experience in parenting.

The profile of the parents by occupation

The parents were required to write down their occupation in the best way they could describe it. Out of the 436 parents, 401 indicated their occupation and 35 declined. After analyzing their responses, the different types of their occupation were put into five categories. The first category consisted of those in formal employment, both public service and private firms, where they receive monthly salaries. The category included, for example, teachers, those working in health facilities, public administration and accountants. The second category comprised those in private business, small traders, those earning daily wages in private establishments and casual work. Those in this

category were, for example, shop owners, those selling various goods in open air or market sheds, those running private firms such lawyers, contractors and surveyors. The third category comprised the parents whose occupation were either fishing or mining. The fourth category consisted of those whose occupation were craft works. This category included, for example, carpenters, those involved in metal works, those working in salons, barbers, vehicle mechanics, *matatu* (public transport van) drivers and private bus drivers. The fifth, and the last, category comprised the farmers.

Figure 4 shows the composition of the 401 parents in terms of their occupation. The majority (39%) of the parents were in private business, followed by farmers (27%) and those in the fishing and mining industry were the fewest, at 1% of the population. The finding that 39% of the population is in business would be expected since 34% of the population in Migori County live in urban areas (Kenya Opendata, n.d.). Almost the whole population in the urban areas (34%) are involved in business. This proportion added to the rural population involved in business, is just about 39%.

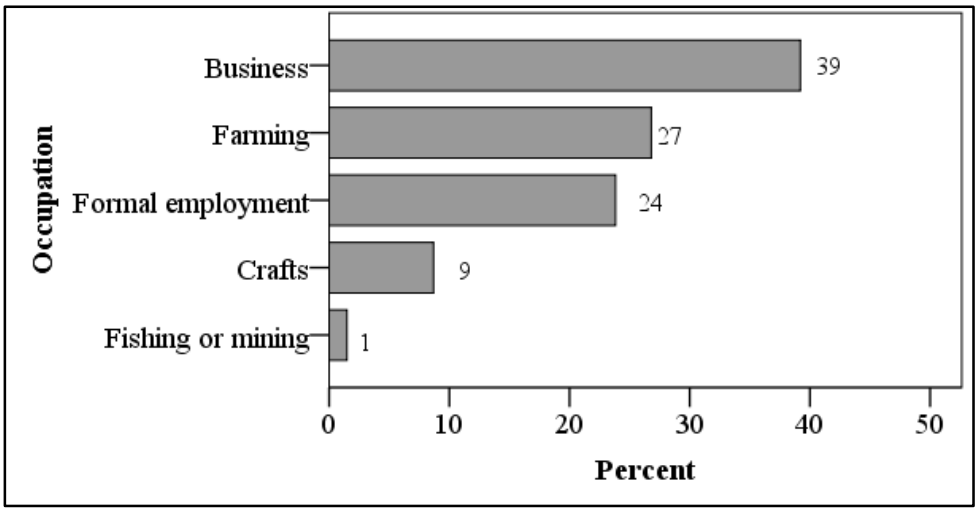

Figure 4 Composition of the parents by occupation

Prevalence of absenteeism from school and child labour in Migori County has been associated with the fishing and mining industry (Republic of Kenya, 2013a). This study found out that only 1% of the parents were involved in the fishing and mining industry. This finding implies that the impact of the fishing and the mining industries might not have an overall impact on absenteeism and child labour in the county. However, it is likely that the fishing industry had a significant impact on the child labour and absenteeism in Nyatike sub-county, where fishing takes place

because it borders Lake Victoria. The mining industry might also have a significant impact on the child labour and absenteeism in Nyatike sub-county, where mining of certain minerals take place.

In summary, the demographic profile of the parents in terms of gender, age and occupation shows that the study sample was representative of the target population. This also ascertains the credibility of the data.

4.4 The level of parental participation in primary education

Three aspects of parental participation in primary education, access-responsive, gender-responsive and quality-responsive participation, were the dependent variables common to all the four objectives of this study. This section, therefore, presents an overview of the three aspects of participation of the parents who had children in the primary schools in Migori County.

The level of parental participation in primary education was measured by a total of 18 variables. Out of the 18 variables, 5 measured the access-responsive participation, 6 measured the gender-responsive participation and 7 measured the quality-responsive participation. As a whole, the study found out, through the Exploratory Factor Analysis, that the variables used to measure the three aspects of parental participation accounted for 63% of the totality of the parental participation in primary education in the study area. This finding implies that there were other variables that contributes 37% of parental participation in the study area. The finding implies that there were some important aspects of parental participation which were not scoped in this study. One of the areas is participation in the provision of physical infrastructure such as buildings, electricity connection, water connection and furniture. Another aspect of parental participation that was not scoped in this study was the participation in choosing the leadership of the schools. Nevertheless, the finding shows that well over half of the variables of the level of parental participation in primary education were taken care of. The following is a presentation of the findings and discussion on the level of parental participation in terms of the three aspects.

The level of access-responsive participation of the parents

Access-responsive participation of the parents was measured in terms of the age at which the children are enrolled in primary education, the attendance of the children to the school programmes and their punctuality in reporting to school. The participation was also measured in terms of the extent to which the parents would like their children to complete primary education and to proceed to secondary education. To get information on the age at which the children are enrolled in primary education in the study area, the parents were required to indicate the age of their children in

Standard Seven. In Kenya, the official age of children for enrolment in Standard One is 6 years (Republic of Kenya, 2014). The children are therefore expected to be in Standard Seven at age of 12 years. In the study, therefore, those parents whose children in Standard Seven were 12 years old or younger, were given the highest score of 5 for the enrolment aspect of parental participation. Those whose children were older than 12 years by one year were given a score of 4 and so on. Those whose children were 16 years or older were given the lowest score of 1. Figure 5 shows the proportions of parents according to the age of their children at Standard Seven.

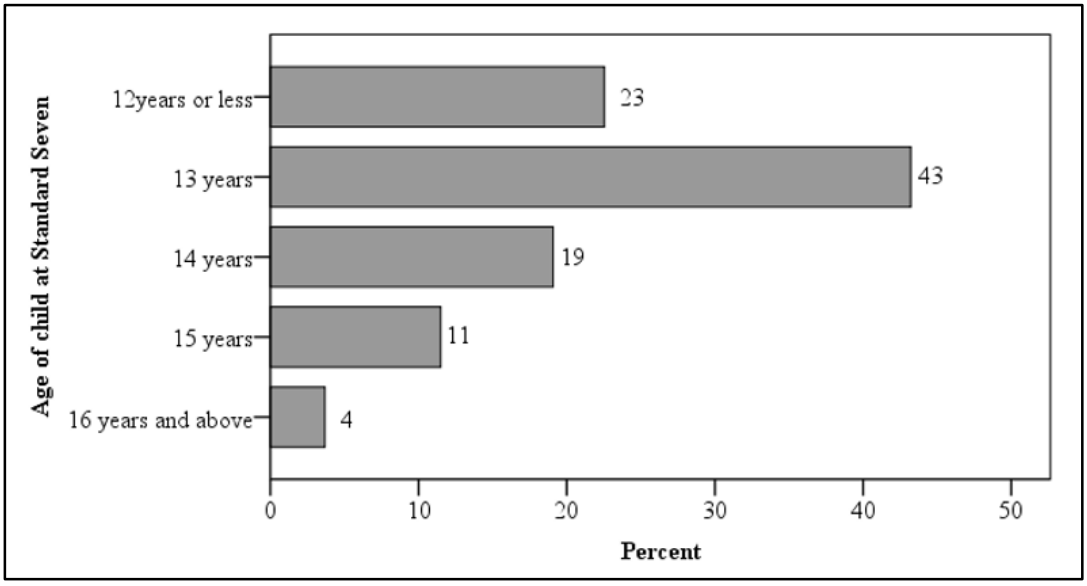

Figure 5 Age of the children at Standard Seven

The findings in Figure 5 show that 23% of the children were in Standard Seven at the officially expected age of 12 years. The largest proportion (43%) of the children in Standard Seven were 13 years old, just one year older than the official age. The average age of the children at Standard Seven, from the responses of the parents was found to be $13\frac{1}{2}$ years. The responses of the parents on age of enrolment of their children was triangulated with that obtained through the document analysis guide. The average age of the pupils in Standard Seven in the 16 schools, through the document analysis was 13 years. The finding from the document analysis shows that the responses of the parents could be relied upon in the study as a fair measure of their access-responsive participation in terms of enrolling their children in primary school.

To obtain information on the children's school attendance and their punctuality, the parents were asked to indicate, on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, how often their children miss going to school and how often the children are late in reporting to school. Those parents who indicated 'very often'

were given the least score of 1 and those who indicated 'it does not happen' were given the highest score of 5. The average levels of being responsive in terms of facilitating the children's attendance and punctuality were also calculated, based on the scale of 1 to 5, as shown in Table 11.

Table 11 *Facilitation of children's attendance and punctuality*

Aspect of access-responsive participation	Very often	Often	Rarely	Very rarely	It does not happen	Average responsive level
How often the child is absent from school to help in doing some work at home	1%	1%	4%	23%	71%	4.62
How often the child reports late to school because of helping in some work at home	1%	1%	6%	27%	65%	4.56

The responses of the parents in terms of facilitating attendance of their children was compared to the responses of the headteachers on the same. The study found out that the majority (71%) of the children are never absent from school because they are given work by their parents to do at home. This proportion of pupils could be absent from school due to other reasons such as sickness and bereavement. The average levels of being responsive in terms of facilitating the children's attendance and punctuality were found to be 4.62 and 4.56 respectively on the scale 1 to 5. This shows a very good level of these aspects of access-responsive participation, equivalent to a score of 91% for attendance and 89% for punctuality. The aspect of ensuring that the children are not absent from school was, however, found to be slightly higher than that that of ensuring that the children are punctual in reporting to school. This implies that the parents would generally tolerate lateness of their children more than they would tolerate absenteeism. Information on the causes of lateness in reporting to school and absenteeism from school was obtained through the headteachers questionnaire. Each headteacher was asked to give two reasons why the children report to school late and two reasons for the children's absenteeism from school. The findings are shown in Table 12 and Table 13.

Table 12 *Reasons for lateness in reporting to school*

Reason why children report to school late	**Number of responses**
Distance from school	8
Work at home	7
Low parental care on punctuality	5
Prayers at church or mosque	1
Influence of other pupils	1
Total	**22**

Table 13 *Reasons for absenteeism of children from school*

Reason for children's absenteeism from school	**Number of responses**
Sickness	7
Work at home	6
Work to get money (mainly motor cycle riding and fishing)	3
Low parental care	3
Lack of school fees	3
Total	**22**

This finding is similar to that of a study by Chimombo (2005) in which the headteachers cited the main causes of absenteeism for children are taking care of animals at home, fishing and low parental care. The finding is also similar to that of Akyeampong (2009) that if children combine schooling with work, it is likely to affect their class attendance. One of the moderating variables on access-responsive participation was the distance from the school. The schools selected for the study was such that the distances covered by the children to access the school was not more than 3 kilometres as has been discussed in Chapter Two. Children who cover distances greater than 3 kilometres to school are more likely to be late for school and even fail to come to school than those who cover less distances. The absenteeism and lateness of the children due to illness was beyond the control of the parents and were therefore not factored in the study.

For the other two aspects of access-responsive participation, the parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they would like their children to complete primary education and also the extent to which they would like their children to proceed to secondary education. Items for the two aspects

of access-responsive participation were designed to measure the extent to which the parents contribute towards the completion rate in primary education and the transition rate to secondary education. The average levels of being responsive in terms of extent to which they would like their children to complete primary education and also the extent to which they would like their children to proceed to secondary education were also calculated, based on the scale of 1 to 5. Table 14 shows the findings.

Table 14 *Parents' attitude towards completion and transition in primary education*

Aspect of access-responsive participation	**Very little**	**Little**	**Not sure**	**Much**	**Very much**	**Average responsive level**
How much they would like their child to complete primary education	1%	2%	2%	8%	87%	4.78
How much they would like their children to proceed to secondary school after completing primary education	1%	2%	2%	5%	90%	4.83

The findings show that at least 87% of the parents would like their children to complete primary education. However, data from the County Government of Migori show that the completion rate in the county was 70% in the year 2009 (Republic of Kenya. (2009). The variance of 17% can be attributed to two reasons. One, the completion rate has risen with time between 2009 and the time of this study. Second, it is possible that some of the children drop out of school, not because the parents want it that way but due to the children's own decisions. For example, a girl who becomes pregnant in the course of her primary education may decide to drop out on her own decision.

The findings also show that at least 90% of the parents would like their children to transit to secondary education after completing primary education. As at the year 2009 in Migori County, the transition rate from primary to secondary education was 52% (Republic of Kenya, 2009). The variance between the finding in this study (90%) and the estimated transition rate of 52% documented by Migori County Government, implies that 38% of the parents, that is, the difference between 90% and 52%, would like their children to transit from primary to secondary education but the children do not transit. A possible reason for the variance is that some parents are not able to afford the school fees for secondary education even if they would like their children to proceed to secondary education. If secondary education in Kenya were free, then the transition rate in

Migori County from primary to secondary would be about 90%, above the current rate of about 52%. Other possible reasons could be the children's own decision such as due to pregnancies or low academic achievement at primary education.

The average of the extent to which the parents would like their children to complete primary education was found to be 4.78 on a scale of 1 to 5, which is equivalent to a level of 87% in a scale of 0 to 100%. The average of the extent to which the parents would like their children to transit to secondary education was found out to be 4.83, which corresponds to a level of 96% in a scale of 0 to 100%. In summary, it was found out that the level of access-responsive participation of the parents in primary education of their children is well above average.

The level of gender-responsive participation of the parents

Gender-responsive participation of the parents was measured by six variables. The Exploratory Factor Analysis grouped the variables into three groups, each with two variables. The first pair of variables measured the attitude of the parents towards early marriage and child labour. The second pair measured the attitude of the parents towards continuing with the education of boys and girls. The third pair of variables measured the attitude of the parents towards the transition from primary to secondary education for boys and girls. In the study, the attitudes of the parents was considered to be indicators of what they actually do and hence a suitable representation of their gender-responsive participation.

To measure the attitude of the parents towards early marriage and child labour, the parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements representing aspects of gender-responsive participation as shown in Table 15.

Since the statements were negative in design, those parents who strongly disagreed with them were given the highest score of 5 and those who strongly agreed were given the lowest score of 1.

Table 15 *Parents' attitude towards early marriage and child labour*

Aspect of gender-responsive participation	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree	Average responsive level
It is alright if a girl does not complete primary school to get married or look for a job	67%	25%	6%	1%	1%	4.56
It is alright if a boy does not complete primary school to get married or look for a job	66%	26%	5%	2%	1%	4.53

The findings showed that a majority (92%) of the parents do not support early marriage and child labour for both boys and girls. However, the findings showed that there were still some parents who support early marriage and child labour for girls (2%) and for boys (3%). These proportions were also reflected in the average responsive levels towards the two sexes, which put the girls at 4.56 and boys slightly lower at 4.53. This finding showed that, in regard to early marriage and child labour combined, the gender-responsive participation towards the girls was better than towards the boys. This finding varies with those of Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2010) that early marriages are skewed against the girls in primary education. The variance can be attributed to the lumping together early marriage and leaving school to look for a job as one variable in this study, unlike the two studies in which early marriage was isolated from other variables. The headteachers were also asked to state which gender records a higher drop-out rate from their schools and give a possible reason. Four of the headteachers indicated that the drop-out rate is higher for boys and all of them attributed it to child labour. Five of the headteachers indicated that the drop-out rate is more in girls and all of them attributed to early marriages. Table 16 summarizes the findings from the headteachers for this aspect of gender-responsiveness of the parents.

Table 16 *Gender in early marriages and child labour*

Gender	Reason for drop-out		
	Early marriage	Child labour	Not applicable
Boys	0	4	
Girls	5	0	
None			3

The findings from the headteachers responses are in agreement with that of Shabaya and Konadu-Agyemang (2010) that girls are more negatively affected by early marriages than boys. The findings from the responses of the parents can then be interpreted to mean that they condoned or supported child labour for boys more than for girls. The finding also imply that the parents condoned or supported early marriage for girls more than for boys.

To measure the attitude of the parents towards academic achievement of the boys and girls, the parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements under the aspects of gender-responsive participation in Table 17. The statements were negative in design and those parents who strongly disagreed with them were given the highest score of 5 and those who strongly agreed were given the lowest score of 1.

Table 17 *Parents' attitude towards academic achievement of boys and girls*

Aspect of gender-responsive participation	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Average responsive level**
Girls can lead good life even if they do not do well in education	46%	30%	13%	7%	4%	4.09
Boys can lead good life even if they do not do well in school	45%	31%	14%	7%	3%	4.07

The favourable attitude of the parents was that they disagreed with the two statements in Table 17. The findings show that 76% of the parents either strongly disagreed or just disagreed with the two statement, hence had a favourable attitude towards the girls. The findings also showed that 76% of the parents had a favourable view towards the boys. The finding that proportion of parents who strongly disagreed with the two statements were 46% for girls and 45% for boys showed that the parents had a slightly better attitude towards girls than boys.

The unfavourable attitude of the parents was that they agreed with the two statements. The study found out that the proportion of the parents who either agreed or strongly disagreed with the two statements was 11% for girls and 10% for boys. This showed that the unfavourable attitude of the parents was slightly stronger against the girls. The findings based on the proportions were therefore not conclusive about the attitudes of the parents towards the girls and boys. The parents' ratings on the Likert scale, however, showed that the parents had a slightly more favourable attitude (4.09) towards girls than towards the boys (4.07) in terms of aspirations for academic achievement.

The findings showed that the parents would be slightly more committed to ensuring academic success for girls than for boys because they believe that the girls would succeed well in life without good academic achievement.

The ratings of the parents on their attitude towards girls and boys was triangulated with that of the headteachers. The headteachers indicated their opinions on which gender, girl or boy, is more valued by the parents in terms of education as shown in Table 18.

Table 18 *Headteachers' opinion on which gender is more valued by parents*

Opinion of the headteacher	**Number of headteachers with the opinion**
Education of girl is more valued	3
Education of boy is more valued	5
None of them is more valued	4
Total	12

The finding based on the responses of parents that girls are more valued disagrees with that of Keriga and Bujra (2009) who found out that, in most traditional societies, the education of the girls is of less value compared to that of the boys. The finding of Keriga and Bujra, however, agrees with that obtained from the responses of the headteachers in this study.

To explore more on the gender responsive participation of the parents in terms of education, data on the gender aggregated academic performance in KCPE for the sampled schools was collected using the document analysis. Data was obtained on the average number of girls and boy who obtained at least 250 marks in KCPE for the years 2014, 2015 and 2016. The maximum possible marks in KCPE is 500. In the study, 250 marks, which is 50% of the maximum marks, was considered a suitable threshold for quality performance in the examination. The ratio of girls to that of boys who scored at least 250 marks was computed. Table 19 shows the scores from 12 of the 16 sampled schools. In four of the schools, the headteachers were out of the school for other duties, hence the data was not available. On following up the four headteachers, three of private schools and one of a public school, the researcher realized that they were unwilling to give the results of academic performance of the schools.

Table 19 *Distribution of children who scored at least 250 marks in KCPE*

School code name	Number who scored at least 250 marks in KCPE		
	Girls (G)	Boys (B)	Ratio G/B
A	11	12	0.92
B	14	17	0.82
C	3	4	0.75
D	29	27	1.07
E	3	7	0.43
F	12	15	0.80
G	3	6	0.50
H	12	21	0.57
J	48	38	1.26
K	9	18	0.50
L	9	15	0.60
M	6	11	0.55
Total	**159**	**191**	**0.83**

The findings in Table 19 shows that in any given year in the 12 schools, a total of 159 girls and 191 boys scored at least 250 marks. The ratio of the number of girls to that of boys who scored at least 250 marks in KCPE was 0.83, which shows that the average academic achievement of the girls in the 12 schools was below that of the boys.

The finding (Table 19) is similar to that of a study done by Somerset (2009) in Kenya that girls lag behind boys in terms of the achievement in the Certificate of Primary Education 1979 and the KCPE 2003. Somerset used scores in Science, Mathematics and English as the variables for comparing the academic performance of boys and girls. Considering the finding in this study that the attitude of parents towards education of girls is slightly better than that of boys, the lower academic achievement of the girls in the target population can therefore be attributed to factors other than the attitude of the parents.

The other aspect of gender-responsive participation in this study was the attitude towards the transition from primary to secondary education for boys and girls. To measure this aspect, the parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the following statements under gender-responsive participation in Table 20. The statements were negative in design and those parents who strongly disagreed with them were given the highest score of 5 and those who strongly agreed were given the lowest score of 1.

Table 20 *Parents' attitude towards transition in terms of gender*

Aspect of gender-responsive participation	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree	Average responsive level
Girl to be favoured for secondary education	35%	29%	10%	12%	14%	3.57
Boy to be favoured for secondary education	48%	32%	10%	5%	5%	4.14
Overall						**3.86**

The findings in Table 20 show that 26% of the parents would favour the girls and 10% of them would favour the boys for secondary education. Favouring a given gender is not being gender-responsive. Not favouring was interpreted here to mean equal treatment of both gender and hence a gender-responsive participation. Analysis of the reverse scoring showed that the extent to which the parents felt that girls should get equal treatment is 3.57, and the extent to which they felt that boys should get equal treatment is 4.14. The average level of gender-responsiveness of the parents in terms of transition to secondary is 3.86 on a scale of 1 to 5, which represents a level of 72% on a scale of 0 to 100%. This means that 28% of the parents would tend to favour a particular gender in making decisions on transition to secondary education for their children.

The 28% of the parents who were not gender-responsive in terms of transition to secondary education, according to this study, included those who would favour boys and those who would favour girls. Considered with the findings, in this study, on gender-responsiveness in terms of early marriages, child labour and education in general, a larger proportion of the 28% of the parents would favour girls.

The level of quality-responsive participation of the parents

Quality-responsive participation of the parents was measured by seven variables in the parents' questionnaire and five variables in the Headteachers' questionnaire. In all the variables, a rating scale of 1 to 5 was used, where 5 was the highest.

Two of the variables in both questionnaires were designed to measure the quality-responsive participation of the parents in terms of checking and helping the children in their homework. The headteachers were also asked to indicate the extent to which the parents ensure that their children

do homework given by teachers. The level of quality-responsive participation of the parents in terms of checking the homework of their children and helping them in the homework as measured in the Likert scale is shown in Table 21.

Table 21 *Extent of checking and helping in children's homework*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	**Rating by parents**	**Rating by headteacher**
Checking the homework given to the child by the teacher	3.92	2.82
Helping the child when he/she has difficulties in the homework	3.47	2.37

According to the information from the parents, the extent to which they checked the homework of their children was 3.92, which is equivalent to a score of 73% on the scale of 0 to 100%. This is a quite impressive level of that aspect of quality-responsive participation. However, the data from the headteachers put the extent to which the parents checked their children's homework at 2.82, which is equivalent to a score of 46% on the scale of 0 to 100%. It is therefore apparent that either the parents over-rated themselves or the headteachers under-rated the parents. The extent to which the parents checked the homework of their children was therefore taken to lie between 2.82 and 3.92 on the scale of 1 to 5. The overall extent of the help, according to the parents, was found to be 3.47, which is equivalent to a score of 62% on the scale of 0 to 100%. The overall extent of the help, according to the headteachers, was found to be 2.37, which is equivalent to a score of 34% on the scale of 0 to 100%.

The proportions of the parents in terms of the extent to which they checked the homework and helped their children with homework is shown in Table 22.

Table 22 *Proportions parents on how they checked and helped children in homework*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	**Not at all**	**Very rarely**	**Rarely**	**Often**	**Very Often**
Checking the homework given to the child by the teacher	3%	6%	18%	43%	30%
Helping the child when he/she has difficulties in the homework	13%	9%	20%	33%	25%

A finding that is important to note was that a sizable proportion, 27%, of the parents either checked the homework rarely, very rarely or did not check them at all. In regard to helping the children with their homework, the situation was worse compared to checking the homework, whereby 42% of the parents either rarely helped their children with homework or did not offer help at all when they have difficulties. This finding shows that 15% of the parents only checked the homework but rarely or never helped the children in the homework. The finding closely compares to that in a similar study in Cyprus, in which Symeou, Martínez-González and Álvarez-Blanco (2014) found out that 12% of the parents do not help their children with homework. This can be attributed to a number of factors such as lack of adequate academic knowledge, lack of time and lack of awareness on the importance of giving the help. In the study, Symeou et al. (2014) found out that more than 50% of the surveyed parents stated a lack of knowledge as to how to support their children's academic learning as the reason for not helping them in their homework. This finding also echoes what a parent reported to Smrekar and Cohen-Vogel (2004) in a study to explore ideas of parents on education that:

> "My job is sending my kids to school. I can't help them with their home- work because I had little schooling myself. I ask my children how they are doing, what homework they have, and have they done it." (p.88)

The finding in this study, that is, 43% of the parents often checked their children's homework, closely compares to the finding by Juvonen, Vi-Nhuan, Kaganoff, Augustine and Constant (2004) that about 50% of parents often check their children's homework.

The third variable for the quality-responsive participation measured the extent to which the parents discuss with teachers how their children can improve in their academic performance. The parents were asked to indicate, on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, the extent to which they discuss with teachers on the performance of their children. The headteachers were also asked to indicate, on a Likert

scale of 1 to 5, the extent to which the parents discuss with teachers about the performance of their children.

From the parents' responses, the overall extent to which they discussed with the teachers about the performance of their children was 3.74, which is a score of 69% on the scale of 1 to 5. This is quite an impressive level of this aspect of quality participation of the parents. According to the headteachers, this extent was 2.91, which is a score of 48% on the scale of 1 to 5. The extent to which the parents discussed with the teachers about the performance of their children was therefore taken to lie between 2.91 and 3.74 on the scale of 1 to 5. The proportions of the parents in terms of the extent to which they discussed the performance of their children with the teachers was as shown in Table 23.

Table 23 *Proportions of parents in terms of the extent to which they discuss with teachers*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	**Not at all**	**Very rarely**	**Rarely**	**Often**	**Very Often**
Discussing with the teachers how the children can be helped to improve in their performance.	5%	6%	26%	38%	25%

The finding showed that the majority of the parents (63%) either often or very often discussed with the teachers about the performance of their children. A significant proportion (37%) of the parents either rarely, very rarely or never discussed the performance of their children with the teachers. This finding is close to that of Juvonen, Vi-Nhuan, Kaganoff, Augustine and Constant (2004), in which they found that about 50% of the parents had never discussed their children's performance with the teachers. It therefore implies that a significant proportion of the parents either are not aware of the importance of the discussion with teachers or have limited time for it.

The fourth and the fifth variables for the quality-responsive participation measured the extent to which the parents buy books for their children on a Likert scale of 1 to 5. The parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they buy books which think their children need without being told by teachers. They were also asked to indicate the extent to which they buy books which are recommended by teachers. To triangulate the data from the parents, the headteachers were asked to indicate the extent to which the parents buy books which they think their children need without being told by teachers. They were also asked to indicate the extent to which the parents buy books which are recommended by teachers. Table 24 shows the findings.

Table 24 *Extent to which parents buy books for their children*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	Rating by parents	Rating by headteachers
Parents buy books which they think their children need without being told by teachers	3.61	2.18
Parents buy books which their children ask them to buy	3.97	2.91

The study found out that the extent to which the parents buy books that are recommended by the teachers was higher (3.97) than the extent to which they buy books asked by the children (3.61). On the same scale, the ratings of the headteachers confirmed that more parents (2.91) buy books recommended by the teachers than those who buy books asked by the children (2.18). Table 25 shows the proportions of the parents in terms of buying books for their children.

Table 25 *Extent, in percentages, to which parents buy books for their children*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	Not at all	Very rarely	Rarely	Often	Very Often
Parents buy books which they think their children need without being told by teachers	8%	8%	25%	34%	25%
Parents buy books which their children ask them to buy	3%	5%	19%	37%	36%

The study found that 59% of the parents often or very often bought books for their children without being told by teachers while a higher proportion, 73% of them often of very often bought books which their children asked them to buy. Usually the books that the children ask parents to buy are those recommended by the teachers.

The finding that a sizable proportion (8%) of the parents do not take own initiative to buy books for their children can be attributed to a number of factors such as low financial capital and lack of knowledge of the relevant books. This finding is consistent with that of a study in Uganda by Wasswa-Matovu (2009) in which it was established that some parents were unable to buy the required textbooks for their children thus putting their children at a disadvantage in realizing quality education. In Kenya, the parents are expected to buy a number of books for their children

to supplement those given to them by schools. When children do not have adequate books then the quality of their education is significantly compromised. The finding therefore implies that the failure of the parents to buy books for their children is one of the factors that are likely to negatively impact on the quality of primary education in Migori County.

The other aspect of quality-responsive participation was the extent of encouragement that the parents gave their children and those of others. Table 26 shows the proportions of the parents in terms of the encouragement they give children. The table also shows the parents' own ratings on a Likert scale of 1 to 5, on the extent to which they encourage their children and those of others. .

Table 26 *Extent of parents' encouragement given to children*

Aspect of quality-responsive participation	**Not at all**	**Very rarely**	**Rarely**	**Often**	**Very Often**	**Average responsive level**
You encourage your child to work hard in class	1%	3%	7%	25%	64%	4.48
You advise children of other people to work hard in class	3%	5%	20%	33%	39%	4.02

The findings shown in Table 26 show that 11% of the parents either rarely encourages their children or do not do it all. Such parents leave the children to their own self-drive and encouragement from others, which is not desirable for quality-responsive participation in education. In a study in Kenya to inquire into the claims that parental involvement contributes significantly to the achievement of students in mathematics, Nyabuto and Njoroge (2014) noted that parental encouragement is important for the academic performance of children. They add that some studies have shown that high achieving children were those of parents who seemed to put more interests in their children's learning than parents of low achieving children.

Data on five of the seven variables that measured the level of quality-responsive participation in the parents' questionnaire were compared with data from the headteachers as has been highlighted in the forgoing paragraphs. Figure 6 shows the comparison of the two sets of data. The findings show that the ratings by the parents were consistently higher than those by the headteachers. The ratings of the headteachers were therefore useful in confirming the trend of the levels of the various

aspects of quality-responsive participation of the parents. The trend showed that, among the five aspects, the lowest level of participation is about helping children with homework while the highest level is buying recommended books for the children. The finding implies that some of the parents just buy books for their children but do not go ahead to help them in using the books during their studies at home.

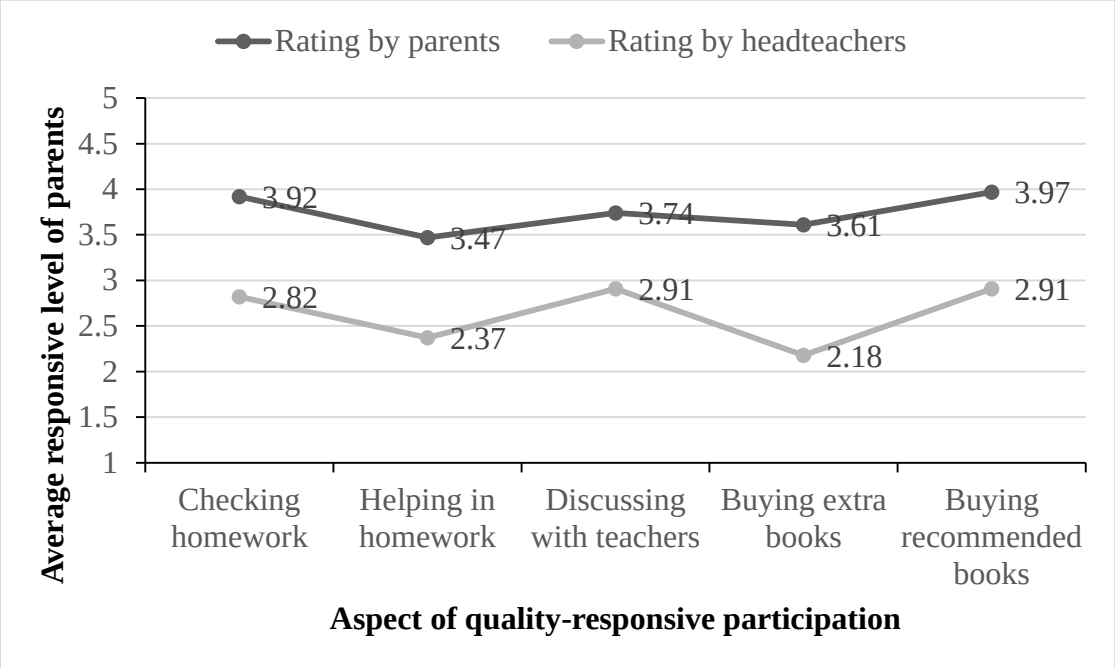

Figure 6 Ratings by parents and headteachers on the quality-responsive participation

Summary of the level of parental participation in primary education

The level of parental participation in primary education was measured by a total of 18 variables. Out of the 18 variables, 5 measured the access-responsive participation, 6 measured the gender-responsive participation and 7 measured the quality-responsive participation. All the variables measure the level of participation on a scale of 1 to 5, in which 5 was the highest. The distribution of the levels of parental participation among the parents is as shown in Figure 7.

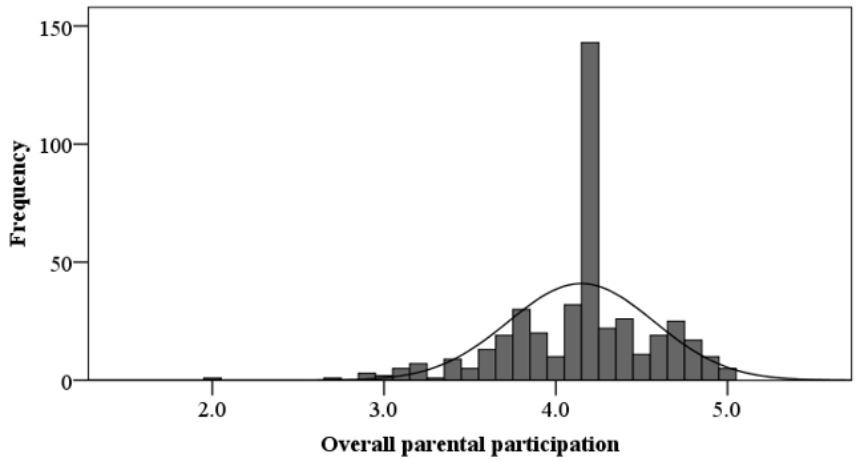

Figure 7 Distribution of the parental participation

The distribution curve of the levels of parental participation (Figure 7) in the study area is negatively skewed (skewnes = -.776, std. error = .117). From the distribution curve, there were unexpectedly many parents whose level of participation was 4.2, which contributed to the skewness towards the right. However, since the skewness was between -1 and -0.5, the distribution of the level of parental participation was just moderately skewed towards the right, hence the distribution fairly approximates a normal distribution (Brown, 2011). The distribution therefore showed that the data on the level of parental participation, the dependent variable, was suitable for analyzing its correlation with the independent variables in the study. The average level of each the three aspects of parental participation was found to be as shown in Table 27.

Table 27 *Summary of the level of parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation in education	**Average level of the participation on scale 1 to 5**
access-responsive participation	4.50
gender-responsive participation	4.12
quality-responsive participation	3.90
Overall participation	**4.15**

The findings show that the overall level of parental participation of the parents in primary education was 4.15, which is equivalent to a score of 79% on a scale of 0 to 100%. The level of access-responsive participation was the highest, 4.50, representing a score of 88% on a scale of 0

to 100%, and that of the quality-responsive participation was the lowest, 3.90, representing a score of 73% on a scale of 0 to 100%. This finding implies that parents seem to put more effort in ensuring that their children are in school and less effort in ensuring that their children get quality education. [According to the Framework for Action in achieving the education-related goals of the MDGs formulated by UNESCO at Dakar, access, gender parity and quality should not be viewed as separate education outcomes but as outcomes that complement one another (UNESCO, 2000). As such, provision of education is not expected to put emphasis on any of the outcomes at the expense of the others. Where some stakeholders in education, for example the parents in this study, seem to put selective emphasis on the outcomes then it is the responsibility of the education providers to address the situation.

4.5 Objective 1: Relationship between human capital and parental participation

The first objective of the study was to determine the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The first part of this section presents findings on the level of the different aspects of human capital in the study area. The second part presents findings on the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation, based on the hypothesis for the objective.

The level of human capital in the study area

A total of eight variables that were used to measure human capital in the study. These were education level, leadership, experience in parenting children undergoing primary education, availability for meetings, willingness to mobilize others, willingness to contribute ideas, literacy in Kiswahili and literacy in English. The experience of parenting children undergoing primary education was measured in terms of the number of children who have been taken through school by the parent. The availability of the parents were measured by the proportion of school meetings that they have attended. The willingness to mobilize others was measured as proportion of the number of times the parents tell each other to attend meetings at the school where their children learn. All the parents have useful ideas and the human capital related to this is the willingness to contribute the ideas to improve the school. The willingness was measured by the extent to which the parents gave ideas to improve the school. The levels of literacy of the parents in Kiswahili and English were chosen as variables of human capital since they are the two languages used for instruction in the primary schools in Kenya. The findings are presented in parts (i) to (vi) of this sub-section.

(i) Experience in parenting children undergoing primary education

To measure the amount of experience in parenting children undergoing primary education, the parents were asked to write down the number of their children who have completed primary school. Figure 8 shows the findings. It was found out that the number of children ranged from 0 to 7. The parents who had not parented a child through primary school formed the largest proportion (38%).

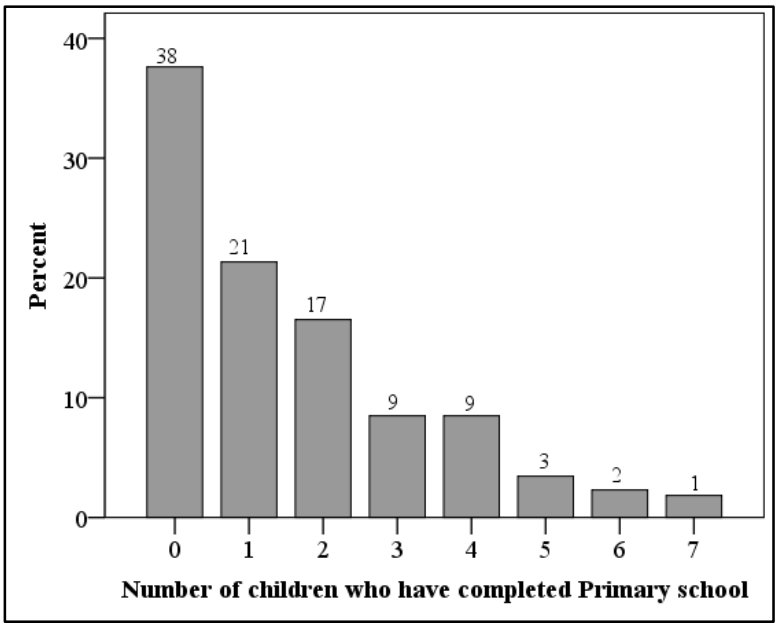

Figure 8 Number of children who have completed primary education

It is expected that the parents who have no experience would tap on the experience of others in the community. In this regard, experience in parenting is an important aspect of human capital in the community. The finding showed that 62% of the parents had at least one child who had completed primary school. This means that 62% of the parents had some experience in parenting from which those without experience can get advice. The interactions and sharing experiences amongst the members of a community is social capital. This finding then implies that the parents had significant human capital, in the form of experience in parenting primary school-going children, which they could share among themselves.

(ii) Education levels

The parents were required to indicate the highest educational level which they had attained. Figure 9 shows the findings on the profile of the human capital in terms of the education levels of the parents. The finding shows that 15% of the parents had only primary education. This is the group of parents who are barely literate and some of them have lost their literacy due to little application

of the literacy skills. The level of education, as a human capital, is important since some aspects of parental participation build on it.

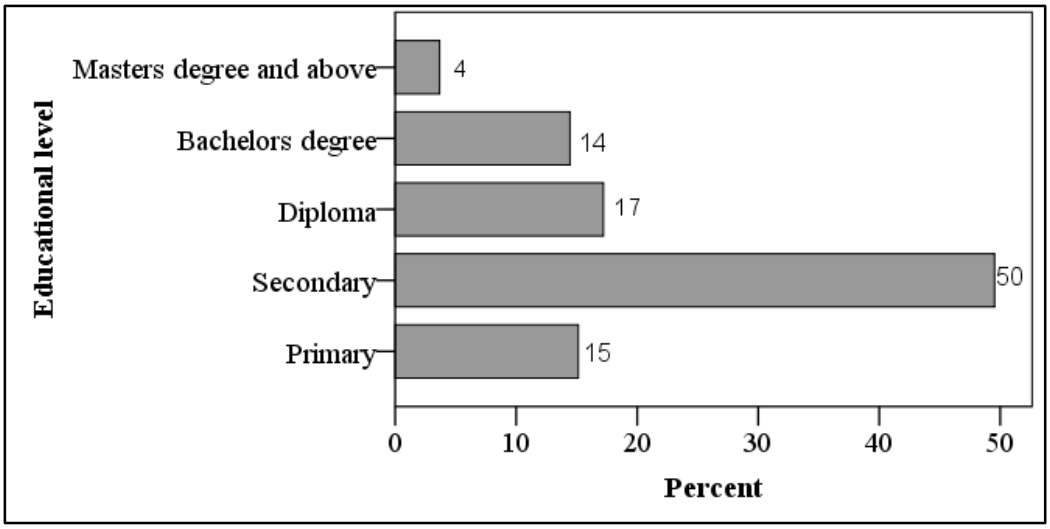

Figure 9 Education levels of the parents

Parental participation such as helping the children with homework and buying relevant books for the children, needs some sufficient education. For example, a parent with only primary education may not offer much help to a Standard Seven child compared to a parent who has at least secondary education. This finding is consistent with that of Blimpo, Evans and Lahire (2015) that some parents do not have the requisite level of education for them to effectively participate in the management of schools. In Kenya, the duties spelt out for the leadership positions in the Board of Management for primary schools require that the persons eligible for those positions have at least secondary level of education (Republic of Kenya, 2013b). It is therefore likely that 15 percent of the parents, that is, those who had only primary education, would not participate in the leadership positions. This finding is also similar to that in a study on parent and community involvement in education by Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014) that some parents have low level of education, which limited their participation in decision-making on the management of schools in which their children were learning.

(iii)Availability and willingness to mobilize others

To measure the extent to which the parents are available to participate in discussing issues on education together with others, they were asked to indicate how often they attend school meetings. Their willingness to mobilize others to also be available for the meetings was also measured by asking them to indicate how often they tell other parents to attend the meetings. Table 28 shows the findings on this availability and willingness to mobilize others.

Table 28 *Availability and willingness to mobilize others*

	Not at all	Less than half of the times	About half of the times	More than half of the times	Always	Total
Extent of attending school meetings for parents	3%	7%	17%	22%	51%	100%
Extent of telling other parents to also attend school meetings	9%	11%	11%	17%	52%	100%

The finding shows that just about half (51%) of the parents attend meetings always, implying that when the schools call meetings, they are assured of at least 50% attendance, on average. The findings also showed that about the same proportion (52%) of the parents mobilize others to also attend the meetings. These proportions present a slightly positive picture of the availability and willingness of the parents to participate in collectively discussing issues related to education of their children. This is because the findings shows that 90% of the parents attend at least half of the meetings. This finding is consistent with that of Helgøy and Homme (2017) that there was a challenge related to school meetings since not all of the parents participated in meetings. Helgøy and Homme also found out that it was the same group of parents who repeatedly attended the meetings.

Although the overall level of attendance of meetings was found to be above average, it was found that 10% of the parents either did not attend the meetings at all or attend less than half of the meetings. The finding is similar to what Awortwi (2012) found that some members of the community may not have a sufficient sense of belonging to the community, hence will not bother to participate in collective activities, such as the school meetings. However, the absenteeism at the meetings should not always be construed to mean lack of willingness to attend the meetings, since some parents may be genuinely absent due to unavoidable circumstances. As Awortwi notes, the timing and duration of certain activities may rule out people who could be at work or just tied up at home.

(iv) Extent of giving ideas to improve the schools

Every member of a community has some unique ideas which they can contribute for the collective well-being of the community, which in this study is primary education for the children.

To measure the extent to which the parents give their ideas, they were asked to indicate how often they give ideas to improve the schools. Table 29 shows the findings.

Table 29 *Extent to which parents give ideas to improve the schools*

	Not at all	**Very few times**	**Sometimes**	**Most of the times**	**Always**	**Total**
Extent of giving ideas to help improve the school	5%	8%	23%	32%	32%	100%

The findings in Table 29 showed that the majority (64%) gave their ideas to the schools either most of the times or always. The findings, however, showed that a significant proportion, 13%, of the parents either gave their ideas very few times or not at all. On probing the responses in the parents' questionnaires, two parents said that the administration of the schools had not given them a chance to give ideas, which they thought could be useful to the schools. This finding partly supports an observation in a study by Sharma, Burnette, Bhattacharya and Nath (2014) on parental participation in primary education in India that some parents are not interested in participating in discussions that are organized by the schools. The study observed that some parents are so much disinterested in sharing ideas such that they come for meetings to register and go away.

The 13% percent of the parents is, therefore, likely to have included those who just declined to give ideas, perhaps due to unwillingness, and those who had not been given chance to contribute ideas. What was found from the responses of the two parents is that some schools do not provide adequate opportunities for the parents to contribute their ideas. It would therefore be important for further research to establish reasons that make parents not give ideas for improving education in schools.

A variety of platforms can be used by schools for tapping the ideas from the community. School meetings, which was the target in this study, is just one of the platforms. From the findings shown in Table 29, the possibility that some of the parents who do not give their ideas do so because of their attitudes, as Kwon (2009) observes that human capital can be conceptualized as the attitude and behaviour that are embedded in an individual.

(v) Leadership ability

To measure the extent of the existence of leadership abilities in the study population, the parents were asked to indicate whether they had any leadership position in the community such as in self-help groups, schools, churches or mosques. To authenticate their responses they were also required

to write down the leadership position. Holding leadership positions was considered a good measure of leadership abilities since it gives people the experience of leadership. Leadership ability has been associated with the education level (Afridi, Anderson & Mundy, 2014). The study therefore explored the distribution of leadership positions across the education levels of the parents as shown in Table 30.

Table 30 *Education level and leadership ability of the parents*

		Education level					**Total**
		Primary	**Secondary**	**Secondary and Diploma**	**Bachelor degree**	**Masters degree and above**	
No leadership	Frequency	41	91	29	26	2	189
	Proportion	62%	42%	39%	41%	12%	43%
Has leadership	Frequency	25	125	46	37	14	247
	Proportion	38%	58%	61%	59%	88%	57%
Total	Frequency	66	216	75	63	16	436
	Proportion	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%

To test whether the distribution in Table 30 was statistically significant and not by chance, the chi-square test used. The distribution was found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 16.5$, df = 4, p = 0.002). The chi-square test shows that the distribution of the parents in terms of education level and leadership ability is not by chance and a similar distribution is expected to be obtained if the study is repeated for the same target population.

The study found out that 57% of the parents had leadership positions. The proportion of those in leadership positions was lowest among those at primary level of education, with only 38% of them in leadership. The proportion is highest among those at the level of Masters degree and above, with 88% of them in leadership. This finding is consistent with that of Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014) that the relatively more educated community members tend to take on the leadership positions and limit the representation and participation by a more inclusive group of community members in the leadership affairs of schools. The exclusion of the parents with lower levels of education from leadership positions is likely to lower the overall level of their participation in the education of their children.

The finding that 57% of the parents are in leadership positions show that there is a sizable pool of human capital amongst them in terms of leadership. The pool of people with leadership abilities in a community is, therefore, important for effective and efficient running of primary schools. The schools have to draw from this pool. It is a legal requirement in Kenya that the parents must participate in the leadership of the schools in which their children are learning, whether the school is public or private. For the public schools, the Basic Education Act of 2013 provides for the participation of the parents by stipulating that six of the parents be elected to be members of the Board of Management (BOM) (Republic of Kenya, 2013b). For private schools, the Act provides for the participation of the parents through the Parents and Teachers Association in every school. The BOM in the primary schools in Migori County therefore had a sizable pool of parents from which they can draw members with leadership abilities.

(vi) Literacy in Kiswahili and English

Kiswahili and English are the two languages of instruction in the upper primary education in Kenya. The literacy of the parents in the two languages was therefore an important human capital for participation in the education of their children. The parents were asked to indicate there levels of literacy in the two languages on a Likert scale of 1 to 5.

The study found out that the average literacy level of the parents in Kiswahili was 4.7 (93% on a scale of 0 to 100%) and 4.4 (85% on a scale of 0 to 100%) in English. This finding showed that the parents' level of literacy in Kiswahili was generally higher than in English. A possible reason for the literacy level for Kiswahili is higher than that of English is that is the dominant language of communication in Kenya, apart from being one of the languages of instruction in school.

The proportions of the parents in terms of their levels of literacy in Kiswahili and English was also explored. Figure 10 shows the findings.

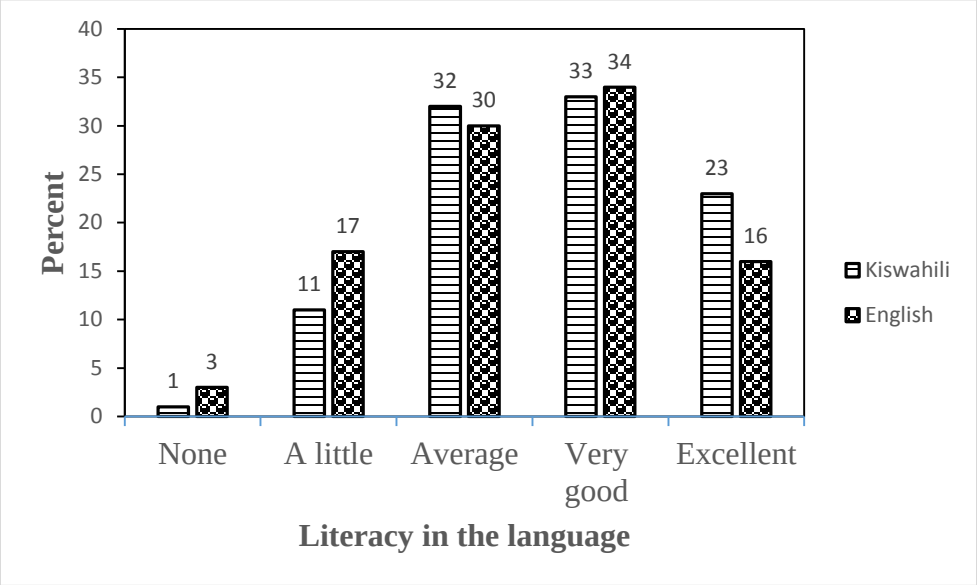

Figure 10 Literacy in English and Kiswahili

The results show that the literacy level of 88% of the parents in Kiswahili ranged from average to excellent, while for English, the proportion for the same range of literacy level was found to be lower (70%). The findings also showed that 12% of the parents had very low literacy level in Kiswahili and 30% of them have very low literacy in English. The finding that 30% of the parents have low literacy in English is similar to that of Miller and Elman (2013) in a study in Western Kenya that many parents were illiterate in English, making the parents to be reluctant in encouraging their children to speak in English. Miller and Elman found out that some teachers resorted to teaching in the local language hoping that this would improve learning but with little success.

The parents whose level of literacy in Kiswahili and English ranged from average to excellent had the adequate human capital, in terms of literacy, which would enable them participate in the education of their children. The proportion, 88% for Kiswahili and 70% for English, of the parents at this level of literacy was impressive. It is important to note that, in Kenya, the parents' literacy in English is more likely than Kiswahili to have an impact on the learning of their children. This is because English is the official language of instruction in the upper classes (Standard Four to Standard Eight) of primary education for all the subjects other than Kiswahili. English is also the language in which all subjects, except Kiswahili, are set in KCPE. Kiswahili is used as language of instruction only in some schools at the lower classes of primary education and learned as a subject throughout the primary education.

In summary, the lowest possible rating index for human capital from the parents questionnaire was 7 and the highest possible was 36. The average index for human capital of the parents was found to be 24. This represents 58% score on the scale of human capital in the study. The finding shows that the level of human capital of the parents in Migori County was just slightly above average.

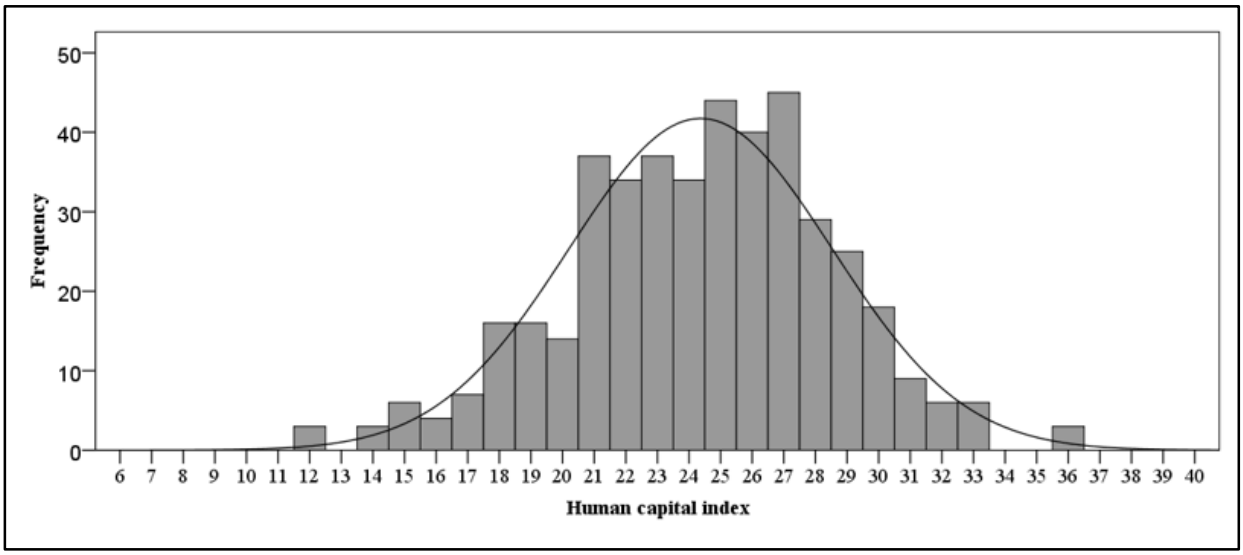

Figure 11 Distribution of the human capitals

The distribution curve of the human capital in the study area is slightly skewed towards the right (skewness = -.218, std. error = .117). Since the skewness was between 0 and -0.5, the distribution of the levels of human capital of the parents almost perfectly approximated a normal distribution (Brown, 2011).

The hypothesis $H_0$1

Based on the first objective, the study sought to test the following hypothesis.

H_o1: There is no statistically significant relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.

Table 31 shows the correlations between human capital and the aspects of parental participation, using the Spearman's coefficient of correlation, r_s.

Table 31 *Correlation between human capital and parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation	Correlation, r_s, with human capital
Access-responsive participation	.227**
Gender-responsive participation	.209**
Quality-responsive participation	.372**
Overall parental participation	**.396****

Key: ** significant at p < .01

The findings showed that the human capital had significant positive correlation with all the three aspects of parental participation. Among the three aspects of parental participation, quality-responsive participation had the strongest correlation (.372) with human capital. This implies that human capital has the largest contribution to quality-responsive participation. The study found a statistically significant correlation between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .396$, $p < .01$). The hypothesis was therefore rejected.

The finding is similar to that of three other studies. First, it is similar to what Jeynes (2005) found in a study in the United States that the extent of parental involvement in the education of their children is related to the socio-economic status of the parents. In that study, the aspects of the socio-economic status that compares to the human capital are the education level of the parents. The study by Jeynes included the occupation of the parents, which was not included in this study. The reason for excluding occupation in this study was the difficulty in attaching quantitative measures for the different occupations. The quantitative measures were essential in determining the levels of human capital of the parents. Second, the finding is similar to that of Carolan-Silva (2011) in a study on the parental participation in education in Paraguay. In the study, Carolan-Silva also focused on the education of the parents and found out that it is positively correlated with their participation in helping their children in the academic work. Carolan-Silva noted that parents are expected to become 'co-teachers' of their children. The capabilities of the parents to be effective co-teachers of their children depends on their human capital. Third, the finding of this study is also similar to that in a study done in Netherlands by Cabus and Ariës (2017), which found a positive relationship between the educational level of the parents and their participation in the learning of their children.

Some studies, however, do not support the positive correlation between human capital and parental participation observed in this study. In a study on the factors influencing participation in twenty nine African and Latin American communities, Awortwi (2012) found out that there is no significant relationship between parental education level, an aspect of human capital, and their participation in development activities such as education. Awortwi focused the participation on making quality decisions for development activities in the community.

The correlation between aspects of human capital and parental participation

The Exploratory Factor analysis grouped the variables used to measure human capital into three factors (Table 8), which were referred to aspects in this study. The three aspects of human capital from the Factor Analysis were; availability and willingness, education, and leadership.

The availability and willingness aspect of human capital was explored further, as shown in Table 32, to find out how the three variables that described it individually correlated with the level of parental participation.

Table 32 *Correlation between availability and willingness with parental participation*

Component of availability and willingness	**Access-responsive participation**	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Overall level of parental participation**
Attendance of meetings	.134**	.002	.130**	.103*
Telling other parents about meetings	.054	-.047	.106*	.019
Giving ideas to improve the school	.019	-.030	.146**	.054

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, ** significant at $p < .01$

Although the availability and willingness of parents was shown through the Factor Analysis that it had the strongest contribution to the human capital, the findings showed that its aspects had either weak positive correlations or no significant correlation with those of parental participation. The attendance of meetings by the parents had positive correlations with their access-responsive participation, quality-responsive participation and the overall participation. The attendance meetings, however, had no significant correlation with their gender-responsive participation. This finding may imply that the agenda of the meetings focused on issues of access and quality of education and focused very little, or not at all, on the gender issues. From the Migori County Development Plan 2013-2017, it is mainly the NGOs and CBOs that engage the members of the community on gender-related issues (Republic of Kenya. (2013a). The agenda at the parents meetings are likely dictated by the issues perceived by the school leadership to be the pressing ones.

In Kenya, the issues of focus at the school level are directed by those that are articulated by the national government as the priority issues. This finding are also supported in the observation by

Oketch and Ngware (2010) that issues that parents are most concerned about in the schooling of their children is academic performance and accessibility. Oketch and Ngware add that parents often transfer their children from schools which do not adequately address these two issues. It follows then that parents meetings would focus mainly on the access and quality issues of the education of their children. The access-related issues would likely include, for example, ensuring that all children are going to school, provision and improvement of classroom buildings, provision of desks and supply of electricity. The quality-related issues are likely to mainly focus on improving the academic performance of the school by engaging the parents in providing adequate learning materials and allowing the children enough time to study both at home and in school.

Telling others about meetings and giving ideas at school had significant positive correlations with quality-responsive participation only and insignificant correlation with the access-responsive, gender-responsive and overall participation. This implies that telling others about meetings and giving ideas have a positive impact on the quality of education.

The correlations between the components of the education aspect of human capital and the aspects participation were as shown in Table 33.

Table 33 *Correlation between education of parents and their level of participation*

Component of education of parents	**Access-responsive participation**	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Overall level of parental participation**
Education level	.300**	.431**	.477**	.661**
Literacy in Kiswahili	.108*	.102*	.183**	.191**
Literacy in English	.255**	.287**	.387**	.507**

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, ** significant at $p < .01$

The study found out that, among the aspects of education, the level of education of the parents had the strongest correlation with the level of the three aspects of parental participation. The education had the strongest correlation (.661) with parental participation, followed by literacy in English and literacy in Kiswahili had the lowest correlation with the level of participation. This finding shows that the usefulness of Kiswahili in parental participation was much less than that of English. The difference in usefulness could be attributed to the fact that, in Kenya, Kiswahili is taught as one subject only while English is taught as a subject and also used as the official language of instruction

all the other subjects. In the quality-responsive participation, the literacy in English enables the parents to help their children with homework in a larger number of subjects than when the parent is literate in Kiswahili only.

The correlation between the parental experience and leadership of the parents with their participation was also explored as shown in Table 34.

Table 34 *Correlation between experience and leadership of parents and their participation*

Parental Experience and leadership	**Access-responsive participation**	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Overall level of parental participation**
Number of children who had completed primary school	-.041	.063	-.025	-.007
Leadership position in the community	.071	.156**	.096*	.171**

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, ** significant at $p < .01$

The study found out that the experience of the parents in terms of the number of their children who had completed primary school had no significant correlation with any of the aspects of parental participation. This showed that the level of parental participation would not change with the experience gained from parenting more children through primary education. This finding is inconsistent with that of Rispoli and Sheridan (2017) and of Bower and Griffin (2011) that experience of parents in parenting varies with their age, which by extension means parenting more children.

Overall, the three aspects of human capital identified through the Factor Analysis were separately analysed for their correlation with the different aspects of parental participation and with the parental participation as a whole. Table 35 shows the findings of the analysis.

Table 35 *Correlation between aspects of human capital and parental participation*

Aspect of human capital	Access-responsive participation	Gender-responsive participation	Quality-responsive participation	Overall level of parental participation
Availability and willingness to contribute ideas (Factor 4)	.074	-.015	.154**	.076
Education of parent (Factor 5)	.290**	.343**	.439**	.576**
Experience (Factor 9)	-.009	.112*	.017	.058

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, ** significant at $p < .01$

The findings (Table 35) showed that the availability and willingness aspect of human capital had a positive correlation with only the quality-responsive participation ($r_s = .154$, $p < .01$). The experience aspect of human capital, which was found to have the least contribution to human capital, had positive correlation with gender-responsive participation only ($r_s = .112$, $p < .05$). The education aspect of human capital had positive correlation with all the aspects of parental participation. The education aspect also had a strong correlation ($r_s = .576$, $p < .01$) with the overall level of parental participation. This shows that the education of the parents, comprising their level of formal schooling and literacy in Kiswahili and English are more likely to influence the level of parental participation than the two other aspects of human capital.

The findings on the relationship between parents' education are consistent with those of Mahuro and Hungi (2016) that low literacy of the parents was associated with low participation in their children's schooling. The findings are also similar to that of Tylor and Yu (2009) that better educated parents offered direct support such as by helping with homework and that of Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) that children from better educated parents more often go to school and tend to drop out less. Ziersch, Osborne and Baum (2011) summarily note that there are strong consistent findings linking education level of parents with their involvement in community activities. What are likely to vary in these findings, therefore, are the strengths of the relationship between the education of the parents and the level of their participation. The findings on the relationship between education of parents and their participation, however, do not agree with those in some studies. For example, Vincent (2017) found out that it was common for parents with poor schooling to put very strong efforts to help their children succeed at school. This is likely to be so when such

parents, despite their low education, attach high value to education of the children. Rouse and Barrow (2006) also seem to concur with Vincent and found out that studies have not identified precisely how increases in parental education improve children's educational outcomes.

In summary, it can be noted that findings on the relationship between the aspects of human capital, especially education of parents, is still varied. The findings in this study may therefore contribute useful information in this regard.

4.6 Objective 2: Relationship between social capital and parental participation

The second objective of the study was to establish the relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. This section first presents the findings on the level of the different aspects of social capital. This is followed by the findings on the test of hypothesis $H_0 2$.

The level of social capital in the study area

Two aspects of social capital were identified through the Exploratory Factor Analysis (Table 8). The aspects were the inter-relationships and reciprocity. The interrelationships comprised of the amount of help and advice that the parents receive, on the education of their children, from various categories of people. Table 36 shows the levels of the components of the inter-relationships aspect of social capital.

Table 36 *Amount of help and advice received on the children's education*

Category of people	Amount of help and advice on education of children				
	Not at all	Very little	A little	Much	Very much
Family members (brothers, sisters, cousins)	13%	13%	12%	27%	35%
Relatives	16%	16%	20%	26%	22%
Friends	15%	12%	20%	29%	24%
Self-help groups	24%	11%	23%	22%	20%
Faith-based groups	18%	9%	12%	23%	38%
Average	17.2%	12.2%	17.4%	25.4%	27.8%

The findings showed that in giving ‘much’ or ‘very much’ help and advice on the education of children, the family members lead with 63%, followed by faith-based groups (61%), friends (53%), relatives (48%) and lastly, self-help groups (42%). The family members represented the least proportion (13%) and the self-help groups (SHGs) represented the largest proportion (24%) of those amongst them who don’t give help and advice. This implies that the informal interactions on the education of children were least in forums of SHGs and greatest amongst family members. On average, 17.2% of the members of the community do not give help or advice on the education of the children of others, assuming that all the relatives belong to the same community. Put in other words, 82.8% of the members of the community give at least some help and advice on education of the children. This aspect of social capital can be viewed from the perspective of the problems and challenges that parents encounter in regard to the education of their children. This finding showed that when parents encounter such problems or challenges then the most likely category of people they approach are the family members. This is an encouraging social capital since the family members are the closest to a person in need of help or advice.

The amount of help and advice given by each category of members of the community, as captured in the Likert scale, was analysed in order to get an overview (Figure 12) of the extent of this aspect of social capital possessed by the community.

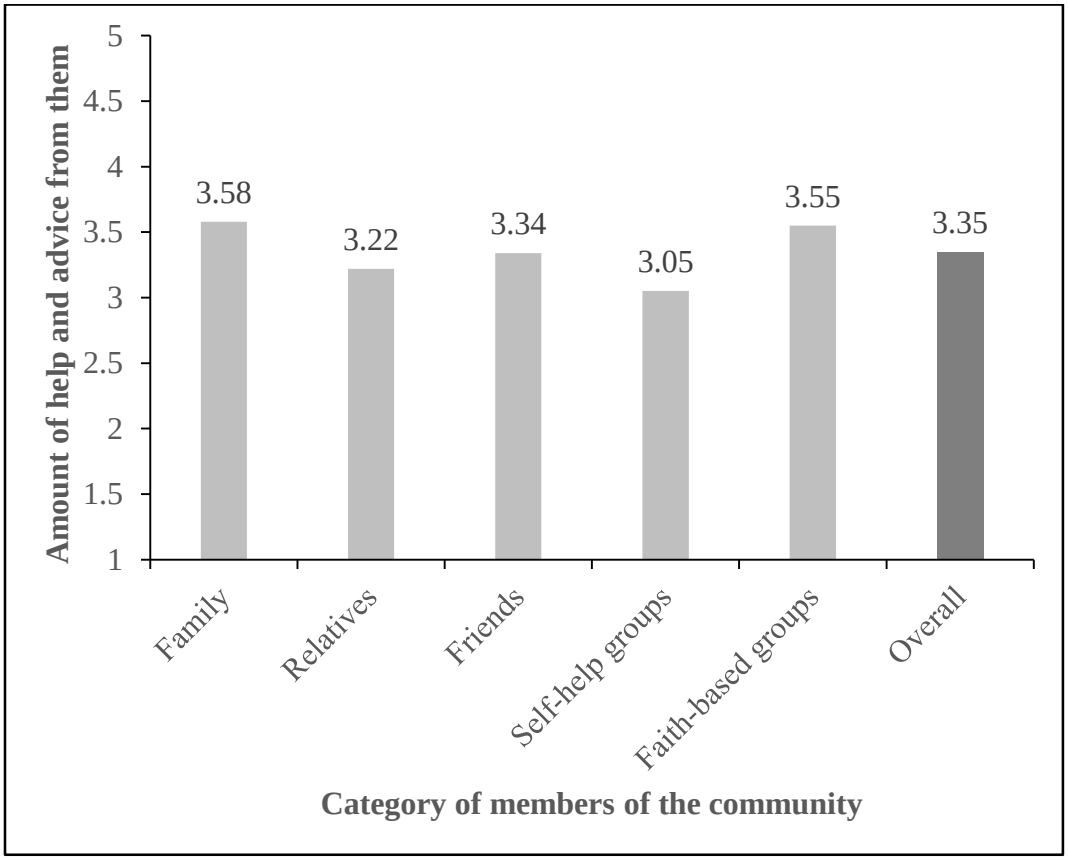

Figure 12 Amount of help from different categories of members of the community

The study also found out that the category of people that led in offering help and advice was the family (3.58), followed by faith-based groups (3.55), friends (3.34), relatives (3.05) and lastly, self-help groups (3.05). This finding, however should not be interpreted to mean that those who belong to SHGs offer little help and advice on education. Most of the members of the SHGs are also the friends or members of the religious groups. The most likely scenario is that the social interactions amongst members of a SHG focus on issues other than education of children. According to the guidelines by the Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Services (2015), the activities of SHGs are expected to be concerned with economic and social issues. The economic activities are usually on table-banking and the social activities are on welfare issues. It then follows that, as much as education matters are important to the members of SHGs, they are discussed in other social interactions. The overall mean of the amount of help and advice was 3.3, which shows that the amount of this aspect of social capital in the community was just slightly more than half.

For the reciprocity aspect of social capital, the parents were asked to indicate how frequently they give advice to the children of other people - their friends and relatives. The findings are shown in Table 37.

Table 37 *Advice given to children of other people*

Component of reciprocity	Frequency of the advice					Average on scale 1 to 5
	Very often	**Often**	**Rarely**	**Very rarely**	**Has not happened**	
Giving advice to children of relatives	3%	8%	14%	38%	37%	4.0
Giving advice to children of friends	2%	8%	18%	40%	32%	3.9
Average						**3.95**

The parents who often or very often give advice to children of relatives were considered to have high social capital. It was found that parents with high social capital were only 11% in the case of advice to children of relatives and only 10% in the case of advice to children of friends. The finding showed that the parents had varied levels of the reciprocity aspect of social capital. This finding is consistent with that of a qualitative study by Ferrara (2015) in United States on the importance of parental social capital to the education of their children. Ferrara found that parents had different 'wealth' of social capital and bringing together enabled them share useful experiences on their roles in educating their children. Such forums of sharing taps on the reciprocity aspect of the social capital. In the study, the parents noted that participation in the education of their children was an 'on the job' learning and hence the reciprocity was very useful to each of them.

Hayami (2009) refers to those people who have a high level of reciprocity as the 'social entrepreneurs'. In this study, 11% of the parents could be categorised as social entrepreneurs. The presence of people with a high level of reciprocity stimulates the growth of social capital in a community. This is because as they reciprocate the help and advice from others, they stimulate more help and advice, hence creating a multiplier effect in the social capital of the community. Reciprocity also implies trust (Stone, 2004), which is another important aspect of social capital. In the study, the measure of reciprocity was considered to be a sufficient indicator of trust among the parents.

The parents who indicated, as shown in Table 36, that they give advice very rarely or do not give it at all to children of relatives were considered to have low social capital. This group of parent was found to be 75% of the respondents, in the case of advice to children of relatives, and 72% in the case of advice to children of friends.

The findings in this study also revealed that there are parents who could be reasonably considered to have no contribution to the social capital in regard to the education of the children. These were the parents who indicated that they have not given advice to children of relatives or to those of friends. It was found that a sizable proportion, 37%, of the parents do not give any advice to children of the relatives and another sizable proportion, 32% do not give advice to children of their friends. From the study it was, however, not established whether the people who do not give advice to the children of relatives are the same ones who do not give advice to the children of friends. What is evident from the finding is that at least 32% of the people do not give any advice to the children of others. Abuya, Ngware, Mutisya and Nyariro (2016) observe that the upbringing of a child is a collective responsibility of the members of the community and should not be left to the parent alone. That collective responsibility needs to be inculcated in the members of the community so that each of them give advice to the children of others. Hayami (2009) observes that the nature of social capital is such that it benefits mainly the people embedded in the specific social relationships. This observation implies that among the parents of children in primary schools in Migori County, 32% do not contribute to the social capital in terms of giving advice to children of others. The level of non-contribution to the social capital consequently reduces the overall level of social capital in the community.

The overall level of social capital of the parents with children in primary schools in Migori County was determined by the average of the six variables that were used to measure the capital on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. Figure 13 shows the findings.

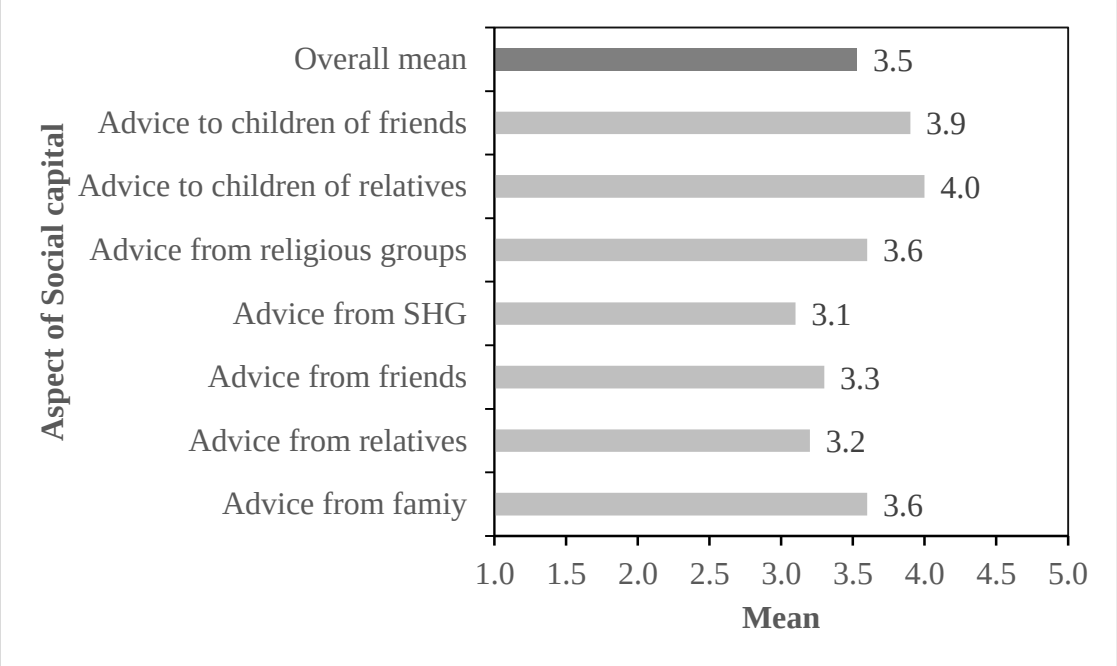

Figure 13 Level of the different aspects of social capital

The results show that the parents had the highest social capital in regard to advice to children of relatives (4.0) and had lowest social capital in regard to advice from members of the self-help groups. The overall mean for the level of social capital amongst the parents of children in primary school was found to be 3.5, which is equivalent to a score of 63%. This shows that the level of social capital of the parents was above average but falls short of being described as very good.

The scale used in the study to measure the level of social capital of the parents ranged from a score of 7 to 35. A parent with the lowest level of social capital was given a score of 7 and that with the highest level of social capital was given a score of 35. The scores were used to plot the distribution of the values for the level of social capital as shown in Figure 14.

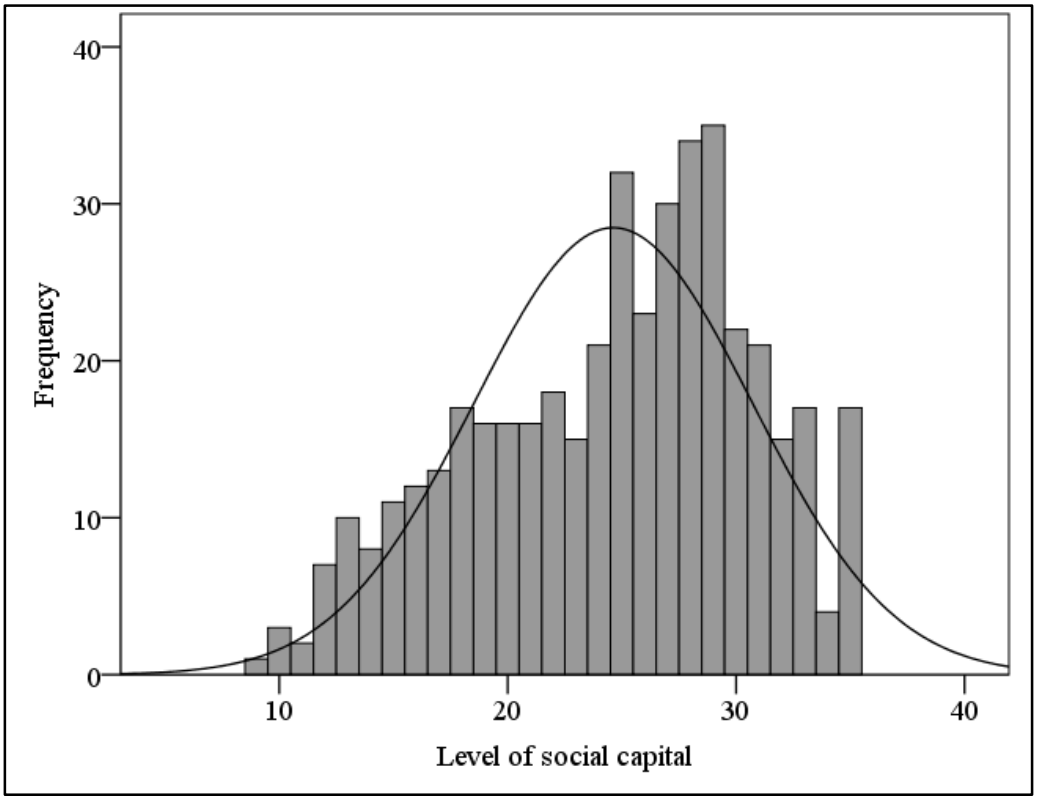

Figure 14 Distribution of the levels of social capital

The distribution curve of the social capital in the study area is slightly skewed towards the right (skewness = -.399, std. error = .117). Since the skewness of the curve is between -0.5 and 0, the curve is almost a perfect normal distribution.

Test of hypothesis $H_0$2

Based on the second objective, the study sought to test the following hypothesis.

$H_0$2: ***There is no statistically significant relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.***

Table 38 shows the correlations between human capital and the aspects of parental participation, using the Spearman's coefficient of correlation, r_s.

Table 38 *correlation between social capital and parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation	**Correlation, r_s, with social capital**
Access-responsive participation	.136**
Gender-responsive participation	.084
Quality-responsive participation	.256**
Overall parental participation	**.248****

Key: ** significant at $p < .01$

The finding showed that social capital had significant positive correlation with access-responsive participation and quality responsive participation, but no significant correlation with gender-responsive participation. Overall, the study found a statistically significant correlation between social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .248$, $p < .01$). The hypothesis was therefore rejected.

This finding is consistent with that of Israel and Beaulieu (2004) in a study across communities in America that investigated the role of social capital in keeping youth in school. In the study, Israel and Beaulieu noted the effect of what they termed 'interactive social capital' on reducing the dropout rates in schools. According to them, the parents' interactive social capital includes participatory actions such as nurturing activities and expressing high educational aspirations for the children. The interactive social capital is equivalent to what is referred to as the inter-relationships in this study. The finding is also consistent with that of Iyengar (2012) in a study on the relationship between social capital and participation in school activities in 14 villages in India. Findings from two villages covered in the study showed that there was a relationship between social capital and the participation of the parents in the education of their children. In the same study, however, Iyengar found out that there was no relationship between the social capital and participation in the remaining twelve villages. The study by Iyengar was therefore not conclusive about the relationship.

The finding is also similar to that of a study done in America by Perna and Marvin (2005), who found out that the parents' social capital is related to the likelihood of their children enrolling or not enrolling in college. In that study, Perna and Marvin conceptualized the social capital as the interactions with children in which the parents convey the norms and standards. That conceptualization is consistent with that in this study. For example, in this study, an aspect of social capital is the advice that children receive from both their parents and other members of the community. The advice is a channel through which the members of the community convey the norms and standards to the children. In terms of the access-responsive participation, these findings are similar to that of Perna and Marvin who observed that the chances of a child dropping out of school declined as the number of the child's friends' parents with whom a parent reported talking to increased.

The finding also agrees with that of Afridi, Anderson and Mundy (2014) that that there is a positive relationship between social capital and parental participation. Regarding the quality-responsive participation, the finding is consistent with those of Shaffer (2004) that social capital, in the form of belonging to a group, supports the parental participation aimed at improving the quality of education. The findings further agree with that of Israel, Beaulieu and Hartless (2005), who found out that when many residents are alienated, such as by limited interactions due to inequality, participation in the community declines. They particularly observed that high social capital can facilitate action and access to resources, such as education.

The findings, however, differ with that of a study in Ghana by Pryor (2005). In the study, Pryor found out that there is no relationship between social capital and participation in education, mainly because social capital is an ambiguous concept. The findings also differ with those of a study in India by Iyengar (2012) who also showed that there was no relationship between social capital and participation in education.

The correlation between aspects of social capital and parental participation

The relationship between social capital and parental participation was explored further by examining the correlation between their respective aspects. Table 39 shows the correlation between the two aspects of social capital and the three aspects of parental participation.

Table 39 *Correlation between aspects of social capital and of parental participation*

Aspect of social capital	Correlation			
	Access-responsive participation	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Level of overall parental participation**
Inter-relationships	.151**	.023	.215**	.184**
Reciprocity	-.007	.198**	.230**	.263**

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, **significant at $p < .01$

On the inter-relationship aspect of social capital, the study found out that it had significant positive correlation with access-responsive participation, quality-responsive participation and the overall participation, but no significant correlation with gender-responsive participation. Noting that the inter-relationships comprised the help and advice from other people, the finding implies that such help and advice had little to do with the gender issues in the education of the children.

On the reciprocity aspect, the study found out that it had a positive correlation with gender-responsive participation, quality-responsive participation and the overall participation, but no significant correlation with access-responsive participation. This implies that the help the parents gave to friends and relatives had little focus on issues concerning access to education.

As a whole all the two aspects of social capital were found to have a positive correlation with two aspects of parental participation. These correlations collectively contributed to the positive correlation ($r_s = .248$) between social capital and parental participation.

As demonstrated from the foregoing review, studies are not clearly conclusive on the relationship between social capital and parental participation in education. This study therefore may provide useful information in this regard. It is also important to point out that parental participation in the education of their children does not always yield the results desired by the parents but is sometimes surrounded with problems and challenges that may dampen the efforts in the participation. The social capital among the parents then plays an important role as a source of commendations, encouragement and advice, which sustain or increase the participation. This is one of the possible reasons why a positive correlation between social capital and parental participation exists, as was found in this study.

4.7 Objective 3: Relationship between cultural capital and parental participation

The third objective of the study was to examine the relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. This section presents the findings on the level of the different aspects of cultural capital of the parents followed by findings on the relationship between the cultural capital and level of parental participation.

The level of cultural capital in the study area

Cultural capital comprise of the attitudes and values (Green and Haines, 2008). To measure the attitude and values in the context of primary education, the parents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements shown in Table 40. Statements 1 to 3 in Table 40 represent a culture that is supportive to primary education. The extent to which a respondent agrees to the statements, therefore indicates the extent of cultural capital of the respondent. Statements 4 and 5 in the same table represent a culture that is not supportive to primary education. The extent to which a respondent disagrees with the statements, therefore, indicates the extent of cultural capital of the respondent.

Table 40 *Parents' attitude and value attached to education*

Statement	Attitude or value attached					Average on scale 1 to 5
	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	
1. Education of a child is important	1%	1%	1%	16%	81%	4.74
2. Educating a girl-child is important	3%	2%	1%	19%	75%	4.65
3. Educating a boy-child is important	2%	2%	4%	23%	69%	4.56
4. It is alright if child leaves primary school for employment (Child labour).	73%	11%	4%	4%	8%	4.38
5. It is alright if a girl leaves primary school for marriage (Early marriage).	86%	7%	3%	2%	2%	4.74
Overall						**4.61**

The finding in Table 40 shows that the proportion of the parents who either agreed or strongly agreed that education is important was 97% a child, irrespective of gender, 94% for a girl-child, and 92% for boy-child. This showed that at least 92% of the parents agree that education of a child is important, whether the child is a boy or a girl. A very high proportion of the parents attach value to the education of the children, which translates into a high level of cultural capital, according to this study. This finding is similar to that of Blimpo, Evans and Lahire (2015) who, in a study in Gambia, found that over 90% of the parents attach high value to the education of their children. Blimpo et al. (2015) observed that the parents want their children to study to the highest level and enter careers with high social esteem. The observation, according to them, indicate that these parents care about and value the education of their children. It is therefore clear that most parents recognize the importance of the education of their children.

The finding in Table 40 also shows that the proportion of the parents who either strongly disagreed or just disagreed was 84% for child labour and 93% for early marriage. This meant that 84% of parents did not support child labour and 93% did not support early marriages. The finding showed a high level of cultural capital in terms of attitudes toward child labour and early marriages. However, it should be noted that 12% of the parents still support (agree with) child labour. This is a significant proportion for an undesirable practice. The proportion most likely include parents who have employed children under the age of 18 years or have released their children to be employed. The finding showed that, despite the existence of laws that prohibit child labour and early marriages (CKadvoates, 2014), they are still practiced.

This finding that a higher proportion of parents do not support child labour compared to those who support it, is similar that of another study in Kenya by Munene and Ruto (2010). In the study, Munene and Ruto found out that many people do not approve of child labour, hence those who practice it is carried out within the private residences with little publicity. The parents who are culprits of child labour would normally not be expected to admit that they have released their children for employment to earn money or have employed children. In this study, therefore, a proxy indicator was used to detect the existence of child labour. The parents were just required to indicate the level of their approval of child labour, which was the proxy indicator.

Concerning early marriages, only 4% of the parents support it, which meant that they either agreed or strongly agreed that it is alright to practice it. The percentage is small but the finding showed that such people are there in the community. The proportion represent the parents who have facilitated early marriage or have not done that but just see nothing wrong with it.

On the Likert scale, the level of cultural capital that support parental participation in primary education in the study area was high at an overall mean of 4.61, which is equivalent to a score of 72% on a scale of 0 to 100%. The finding showed that there is still a sizable proportion (28%) of the parents whose cultural practices do not support parental participation in primary education. This finding is similar to that of another study in Kenya by Sifuna (2005) that there is still some relatively deep-seated conservatism in some communities, which make them generally regard schooling with deep suspicion since, according to them, it makes their children abandon their cultural practices. The finding is also similar to that of Wiebe (2011) that some people could not participate adequately in development activities in the community because, in their cultural thinking, certain development projects are associated with other societies, especially the developed countries which sponsor such projects. In the context of education, such people would associate formal education with the alien cultures and hence not take it seriously. Wiebe goes ahead to use

the diffusion of innovation model by Rogers (2006) to illustrate the role of cultural capital in participation. The pioneers of the model suggest that in a given population 13.5% are very early adopters, 34% are early adopters, 34% are late adopters and 16% are very late adopters. In this context, 28% of the parents in this study could be considered as the late adopters of the necessary cultural changes.

The scale for measuring the level of cultural capital in the study ranged from an index of 5 to 25. A parent with the lowest level of cultural capital was assigned 5 and that with the highest level was assigned 25. Figure 15 shows the distribution of the levels of the cultural capital of the parents.

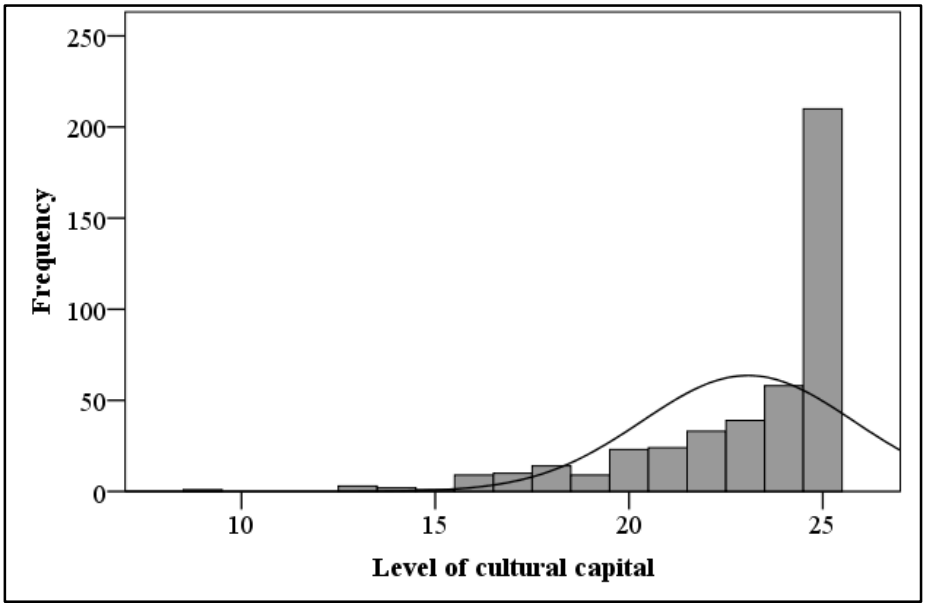

Figure 15 Distribution of the levels of cultural capital

The distribution curve for the level of cultural capital of the parents was found to be highly positively skewed (skewness = -1.702, std. error = .117). This showed that the levels of cultural capital of most of the parents were highly concentrated towards the highest level in the scale used. This finding also showed that, despite some parents having a culture that does not support participation in education, the majority have a high level of the desired culture for participation in education.

Test of hypothesis $H_0$3

Based on the third objective, the study sought to test the following hypothesis.

H_o3: There is no statistically significant relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in education.

Table 41 shows the correlations between human capital and the aspects of parental participation, using the Spearman's correlation coefficient, r_s.

Table 41 *Correlation between cultural capital and parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation	Correlation, r_s, with cultural capital
Access-responsive participation	.174**
Gender-responsive participation	.293**
Quality-responsive participation	.234**
Overall parental participation	**.362****

Key: ** significant at $p < .01$

The finding showed that all the three aspects of parental participation had significant positive correlation with cultural capital. Gender-responsive participation had the greatest correlation (.293) with cultural capital. The finding implied that the cultural norms, beliefs and practices had a higher influence on the gender issues in the education of their children, compared to issues of access and quality. Overall, the study found a statistically significant correlation between cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .362$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis $H_0$3 was therefore rejected.

The finding is similar to that in a study in Guatemala by Wiebe (2011) to find out the determinants of participation in community projects which showed that cultural capital is one of the major determinants of the participation. Although the participation in the study by Wiebe covered a wide range of community development activities it has a lot of parallel with parental participation in education. The finding is also similar to that of Erdreich and Golden (2017) that cultural capital shapes the perceptions and practices of parental participation in the schooling of children. This implies that the extent to which the parents adopt the idea of participation in education of their children depends significantly on their cultural capital. Erdreich and Golden add that the cultural capitals in a community shapes the upbringing of children in the whole community. Parental participation in education is one of the important ways of upbringing children.

Correlation between aspects of cultural capital and those of parental participation

Two aspects of cultural capital were identified using the Exploratory Factor Analysis. Table 42 shows the correlation between the two aspects and the three aspects of parental participation.

Table 42 *Correlation between aspects of cultural capital and those of parental participation*

Aspect of cultural capital	Correlation with:			
	Access-responsive participation	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Level of parental participation**
Value attached to education of children	.107*	.184**	.268**	.300**
Attitude towards interruption of child's schooling	.183**	.337**	.154**	.324**

Key: *significant at $p < .05$, **significant at $p < .01$

The study found out that both aspects of cultural capital had significant positive correlation with all the three aspects of parental participation. The correlation between the attitude of the parents towards interruption of children's schooling and the gender-responsive participation had the strongest correlation among the aspects. This finding showed that the better the attitude of the parents in this regard, the less they would support the interruption of either a boy's or a girl's schooling. This finding is similar to that of Akyeampong (2009) that attitudes towards child labour exert a strong influence on decisions of parents, which eventually influence their participation in the schooling of their children. Akyeampong particularly found out that in situations where the household relied on labour intensive livelihoods for survival, the demand for child labour interfered with the schooling of children.

The finding is supported by the public concerns identified in the Migori County Development Plan 2013-2018 (Republic of Kenya. (2013a). According to the Development Plan, one of the cultural practices that negatively affected primary education in the county was the interruption of children's schooling through child labour and early marriages. This finding showed that the cultural practice

has a significant potential of negatively affecting the schooling of children. It was, however, outside the scope of this study to determine the extent to which the schooling of children are interrupted in Migori Count due to such cultural practices.

The value to which parents attach to education had the strongest correlation (.298) with quality-responsive participation than on the access-responsive and gender-responsive participation. This finding is supported by that of Munene and Ruto (2010) in their study on the child labour and access to education in Kenya. Munene and Ruto found out that access to education was relatively lower for children whose parents had not appreciated the value of schooling. The finding is also supported by Wiebe (2011) that cultural variables, such as value attached to education, have influence on who participates in community projects.

The Exploratory Factor Analysis also showed that value that the parents attached to the education of their children had the third strongest contribution to the community capitals, among the nine groups shown in Table 8. This finding supports the observation in a research article by Marschall (2004) that culture has a strong influence on the other capitals. This finding also implies that the value which the parents attach to education has a strong influence on, for example, how they socially interact with others on education matters and how much financial capital they commit to education of their children. The relatively strong correlation (.300) for the value attached to education implies that it also had significant contribution to the correlation between other community capitals and parental participation.

4.8 Objective 4: Relationship between financial capital and parental participation

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. This section first presents the finding on the level of financial capital of the parents in the study area. This is followed by the findings on the hypothesis based on the fourth objective.

The level of financial capital of the parents

There were a total of six variables that were used to measure the level of financial capital of the parents. Two of the variables were designed to measure the financial capital in terms of the household monthly expenditure on miscellaneous goods and personal expenditure on airtime. Four of the variables captured some key assets that the parents were expected to possess. The assets were television, electricity connection in their homes, tapped water in their homes and the possession of a motor vehicle. The six variables were considered as suitable proxy indicators of financial capital. On the general expenditure, the parents were required to write down the approximate amount of money they spend on items such as food, electricity bills and kerosene.

Preliminary analysis of the data in the study indicated that the levels of financial capital parents in terms of expenditure could be captured in six levels of income as shown in Figure 16, where the lowest level comprised expenditures less than Kenya shillings (Ksh) 5,000 and the highest level comprised expenditures from Ksh 25,000 and above.

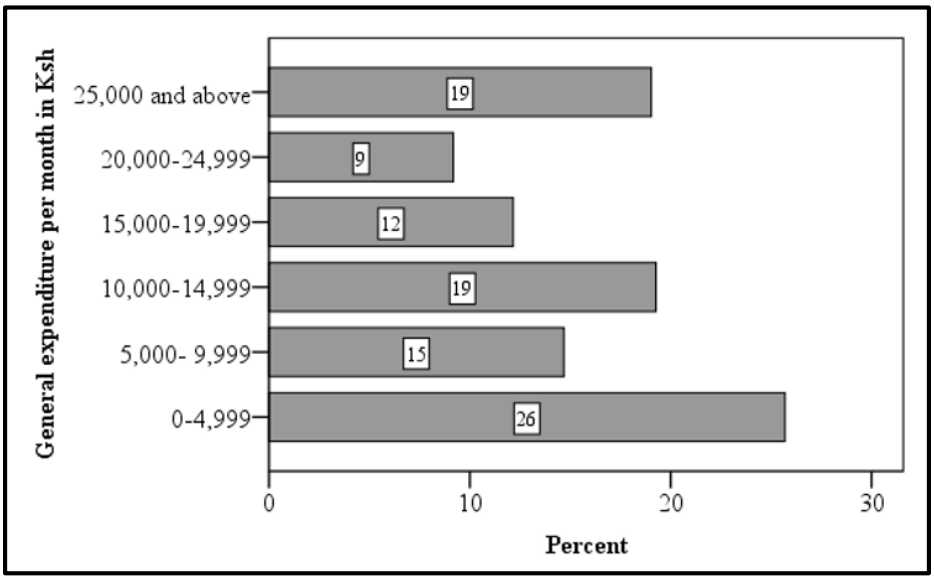

Figure 16 Monthly expenditure of the parents on selected items

The six levels of financial capital shown in Figure 16 were also considered to comprise the lower and upper levels. Those parents whose expenditures were less than Ksh 15,000 were categorized in the lower level of financial capital and those whose monthly expenditures were Ksh 15, 000 or more were categorized in the upper level of financial capital. With this categorization, it was found that the majority (60%) of the parents were in the lower level and only 40% in the upper level of financial capital. This finding implies that the parents' financial capital on the key items (food, electricity bills and kerosene) was generally low. The provision for food, for example, impacts on the punctuality and attendance of the children. Out of the 12 headteachers that responded to their questionnaire, 3 of them cited lack of timely and proper meals as the main cause of lateness of students reporting to school. The low level of household expenditure in food is therefore likely to negatively affect the education of the children in terms of access. As Yu and Hannum (2007) observed in their study, children of poor parents are particularly vulnerable to risks of poor nutrition, which may curtail poor children's capacity to perform well at school. Expenditure on electricity and kerosene were considered important to this study because they are the sources of light which children need for their homework. Due to the varying socio-economic status, some households use electricity for lighting their homes and others use kerosene lamps. Low expenditure in electricity and kerosene is likely to affect learning at home.

Another indicator used in the study for measuring financial capital was the expenditure on airtime. This indicator was considered useful since the community capitals are so related that the airtime can be used to build the social capital in terms of the convenience of interactions with other people. Use of airtime is also important for the communication between the parents and the teachers. Figure 17 shows the findings on the daily expenditure of the parents on airtime.

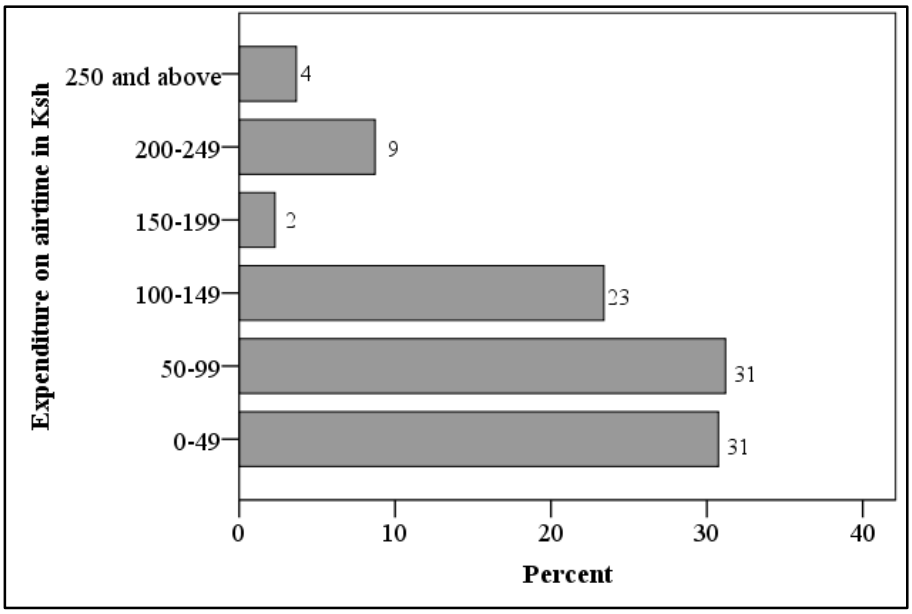

Figure 17 Daily expenditure of the parents on airtime

Table 43 shows the possession of certain assets by the parents. Majority (67%) of the households had television. This shows that the majority of the households provide the children with an important source of information in the current digital age. Again, the majority (69%) of the households had electricity connection. This shows that most of the households provided conducive environment, in terms of lighting, for the children to study at home.

Table 43 *Possession of selected household assets*

Asset	**No**	**Yes**	**Total**
Television	33%	67%	100%
Electricity connection	31%	69%	100%
Water connection	76%	29%	100%
Motor vehicle	83%	17%	100%

The status of the households in terms of water connection show that the majority, 76% do not have connection to tap water. Water is an important good in a household and those who don't have tapped water have to look for it from others sources such as the rivers, wells and even from neighbours or even buy it. The members of the households that do not have tapped water will spend more time looking for it than those with tapped water. Out of the 12 headteachers, 5 of them indicated that the household chores were the reasons behind the lateness of the children in reporting to school and 3 of them cited it as the reason for absenteeism of the children from school. Looking for water is likely to be one of the house chores especially in the arid areas, such as Nyatike Sub-county in Migori County. The status of the households in terms of owning motor vehicles show that the majority (87%) of the households do not own motor vehicles. Vehicles are important assets for mobility of the members of the households and a good indicator of financial capital.

In summary, the six variables for measuring the level of financial capital constituted a scale, ranging from a minimum of 2 to a maximum of 16. As measured in this scale, the average level of financial capital was 7, which is equivalent to 36% on a scale of 0 – 100%. Figure 18 shows the distribution of the financial capital among the parents. The distribution curve for the financial capital of the parents is skewed towards the left (skewness = .46, std. error = .117). The average level and the distribution of financial capital showed that the majority of the parents are in the lower level of financial capital.

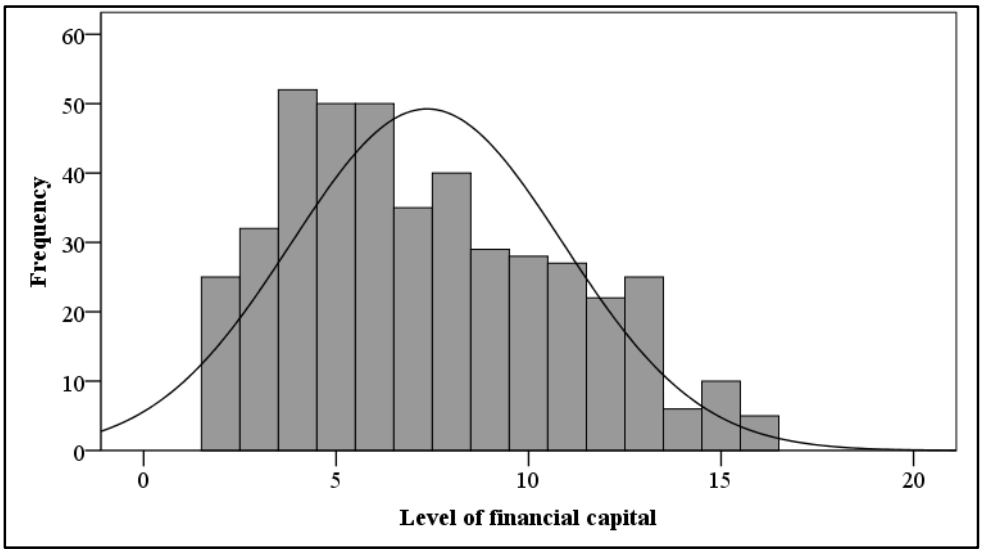

Figure 18 Distribution of the financial capital among the parents

Test of Hypothesis $H_0$4

Based on the fourth objective, the study sought to test the following hypothesis.

$H_0$4: ***There is no statistically significant relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education.***

Table 44 shows the correlations between human capital and the aspects of parental participation, using the Spearman's correlation coefficient, r_s.

Table 44 *Correlation between financial capital and parental participation*

Aspect of parental participation	**Correlation, r_s, with financial capital**
Access-responsive participation	.182**
Gender-responsive participation	.186**
Quality-responsive participation	.234**
Overall parental participation	**.317****

Key: ** significant at $p < .01$

The finding in showed that financial capital had significant positive correlation with all the three aspects of parental participation. Financial capital had the strongest correlation (.234) with quality-responsive participation relative to the other two aspects of parental participation. The finding showed that the financial capital of parents had more impact on the quality of their children's education compared to access and gender aspects of the education. A possible reason for stronger correlation could be that financial capital enables parents to buy learning materials for their children.

Overall, the study found a statistically significant correlation between financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .307$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis $H_0$4 was therefore rejected.

On the access-responsive participation, the finding is supported by that of a study by Israel and Beaulieu (2004) on the role of parents' financial capital in access to education. Israel and Beaulieu found out that the greater the economic resources present in a home, the better the school completion rates of students. Although Israel and Beaulieu did not explicitly state parental participation in that study, the completion rates usually have some parental input. The finding is also financial capital is supported by that of a study done by Munene and Ruto (2010) in Kenya. Munene and Ruto found out that participation in access to education is related to economic context in which the educational institutions are located. The economic context is essentially the financial

capital of the parents. The finding is further supported by that of Akyeampong (2009) in Ghana that there were more repetition and delay in enrolment of children from the poorer households, on average, than those from richer households.

The finding on the correlation between financial capital and access-responsive participation is, however, not consistent with that of a study in Kenya by Lewin (2005). In the study, Lewin found out that there were no differences in enrolment upto the mid-primary level in terms of financial status of parents but above that level, the differences emerged. Lewin's observation seem to imply that there is more demand on financial capital for children in upper than in the lower primary. The more demand on financial capital could be as result of the increased demand on the clothing and supplementary learning materials. For example, the pupils in the upper primary need more text books for revision since they are preparing for KCPE. Parents with low financial capital therefore provided less learning materials than those with higher financial capital. Since this study targeted the parents of pupils in the upper primary, the finding is still consistent with that of Lewin.

The finding on the correlation between financial capital and access-responsive participation is also not consistent that of Huisman, Rani and Smits (2010) who found out there is no relationship between financial capital and parental participation, especially in terms of enrolment of their children. In the study, Huisman et al. (2010) found out that the number of children in private fee-paying schools from households below the poverty line were approximately same as the number from richer households. Their explanation to this finding was that education is a major development-enhancing tool and was seen by both the poor and the rich households as essential to people's chances in life.

On the gender-responsive participation, the finding in this study showed that the level of financial capital is positively related to the amount of actions and attitudes that do favour any of the gender. The finding implies that the parents with low financial capital would tend to also have low gender-responsive actions, which would translate into favours directed to a particular gender. On the converse, the finding implies that parents with high financial capital had a high gender responsive actions, translating into equal treatment of boys and girls. This finding, however, does not specify which gender is favoured by the parents with low financial capital. The parents with low financial capital are usually faced with making choices on which gender to support with the limited financial resources (Chowdhury, Nath & Choudhury, 2006; Akyeampong, 2009). Chowdhury, Nath and Choudhury (2003) and Akyeampong (2009) found out that when the parents had limited resources and had to make a choice on which child to enroll, the tendency had been to favour boys who were believed to generate more returns in investment than girls. With increased financial capital,

according to the finding in this study, the need for such choices diminish since there was adequate financial resources to cater for both gender.

In regard to quality-responsive participation, the finding is consistent with that of a study done by Jeynes (2005), which sought to assess the effects of parental involvement on the academic achievement of African American 12th grade youth. Jeynes found a high correlation between the economic status, financial capital, and parental participation in the education of their children. The finding is also consistent with that of a study by Israel and Beaulieu (2004) on the role of parents' financial capital in access to education. Israel and Beaulieu found out that the greater the economic resources present in a home, the better the academic performance of students. The finding in this study was indicative that financial capital of parents translate into the support to the education of their children such as buying learning materials for them. It is also indicative of the ability to providing the children's nutritional needs, which is important for learning. As Yu and Hannum (2007) observe, the household nutritional environment positively predicts academic performance.

This finding on the correlation between quality-responsive participation and financial capital, however, is inconsistent with that of Cabus and Ariës (2017) in a study on the effects of parental involvement on student performance in Dutch education. Cabus and Ariës found out that the level of parental participation is the same for those in the low economic status and those in the higher economic status in some sections of the Dutch population.

Correlation between aspects of financial capital and those of parental participation

The Exploratory Factor Analysis sorted the variables used in the study to measure financial capital into two aspects. One of the aspects was household assets and the other was the household expenditure. Table 45 shows the correlation between selected household assets and the three aspects of parental participation.

Table 45 *Correlation between selected household assets and parental participation*

Household asset	Correlation with: Access-responsive participation	Gender-responsive participation	Quality-responsive participation	Overall level of parental participation
Television	.170**	.092	.251**	.286**
Electricity connection	.175**	.078	.228**	.245**
Water connection	.108*	.029	.154**	.164**
Motor vehicle	.190**	.099*	.129**	.212**

Key: *significant at p < .05, **significant at p < .01

The findings in Table 45 shows that the possession of television and electricity supply had a higher correlation with the level of parental participation than the possession of a vehicle and water connection. This implies that the possession of these items is related to high parental participation and lack of them to low parental participation. In particular, the possession of the two items were found to be positively correlated with access-responsive participation and quality-responsive participation. It was further noted in the finding that the possession of television and electricity supply had a much higher correlation with the quality-responsive participation than with access-responsive participation. The finding implies that the possession of these two items are related to better learning at home for the children. Television is then likely to be an important source of information for the learning and electricity connection is important for providing lighting for doing homework and studies at night. Electricity is also important in powering the television and other appliances that are useful in the learning at home.

The possession of a motor-vehicle was found to be correlated with all the three aspects of participation, unlike the other assets that were correlated with only two aspects of parental participation. This showed that the possession of a vehicle was outstandingly important in parental participation. This finding is similar to that of Dostie and Jayaraman (2006) that the number of bicycles owned by the household encouraged school enrollment. Assets like motor-vehicles and bicycles provide means of transport that increases mobility for parents to participate in school activities.

Table 46 shows the correlations between two types of expenditure and the aspects of parental participation.

Table 46 *Correlation between two types of expenditure and parental participation.*

Type of expenditure	Correlation with:			
	Access-responsive participation	**Gender-responsive participation**	**Quality-responsive participation**	**Overall level of parental participation**
Expenditure on general items	.156**	.238**	.182**	.300**
Expenditure on airtime	.065	.104*	.130**	.157**

Key: *significant at p < .05, **significant at p < .01

It was found that the expenditure on general items (such as food and fuels) had significant positive correlation with all the aspects of parental participation. The expenditure on airtime had lower correlations with the aspects of parental participation compared to those of the expenditure on general items. Its correlation with the overall parental participation was also much lower compared to that of expenditure on general items. A possible reason for the lower correlation could be that it was not a suitable variable in the study for measuring financial capital.

Lastly, the findings on the correlations between the two aspects of financial capital, expenditure and assets, and the level of parental participation were as shown in Table 47.

Table 47 *Correlations between the aspects of financial capital with parental participation*

Aspect of financial capital	Access-responsive participation	Gender-responsive participation	Quality-responsive participation	Overall level of parental participation
Expenditure	.130**	.183**	.178**	.253**
Assets	.194**	.104*	.257**	.277**

Key: *significant at p < .05, **significant at p < .01

The findings showed that the two aspects of financial capital both had positive correlation with the level of all the three aspects of parental participation. This showed that both the assets and expenditure are important for the parental participation in education of their children.

On the overall level of parental participation, it was found that the aspect of financial capital comprising the assets had a stronger correlation ($r_s = .277$, $p < .01$) than the aspect comprising the expenditures ($r_s = .253$, $p < .01$). This confirmed the finding through Factor Analysis that the variables that described the assets had a stronger contribution to financial capital than those that described the expenditure. The findings that all the aspects of financial capital had a positive correlation with parental participation is supported by that of Zierrsch, Osorne and Baum (2011) that higher incomes and assets have been associated with higher levels of involvement in community activities. The finding is also supported by that of Tylor and Yu (2009) that low financial capital lowers participation since it tends to foster a general attitude of hopelessness and low self-efficacy. Tylor and Yu found out that when there is a high concentration of students from low-income families, attitudes that are anti-school and disruptive tend to be high.

4.9 Summary of the community capitals and correlations with parental participation

The scale used for measuring human capital ranged from 7 to 36, for social capital ranged from 7 to 35, for cultural capital ranged from 5 to 25 and for financial capital ranged from 2 to 16. The scale for the four community therefore ranged from 21 to 112. In this scale, the average level of community capital was found to be 79, which corresponds to a level of 64% in a scale of 0 to 100%. The distribution of the levels of community capitals as captured from the parents is shown in Figure 19.

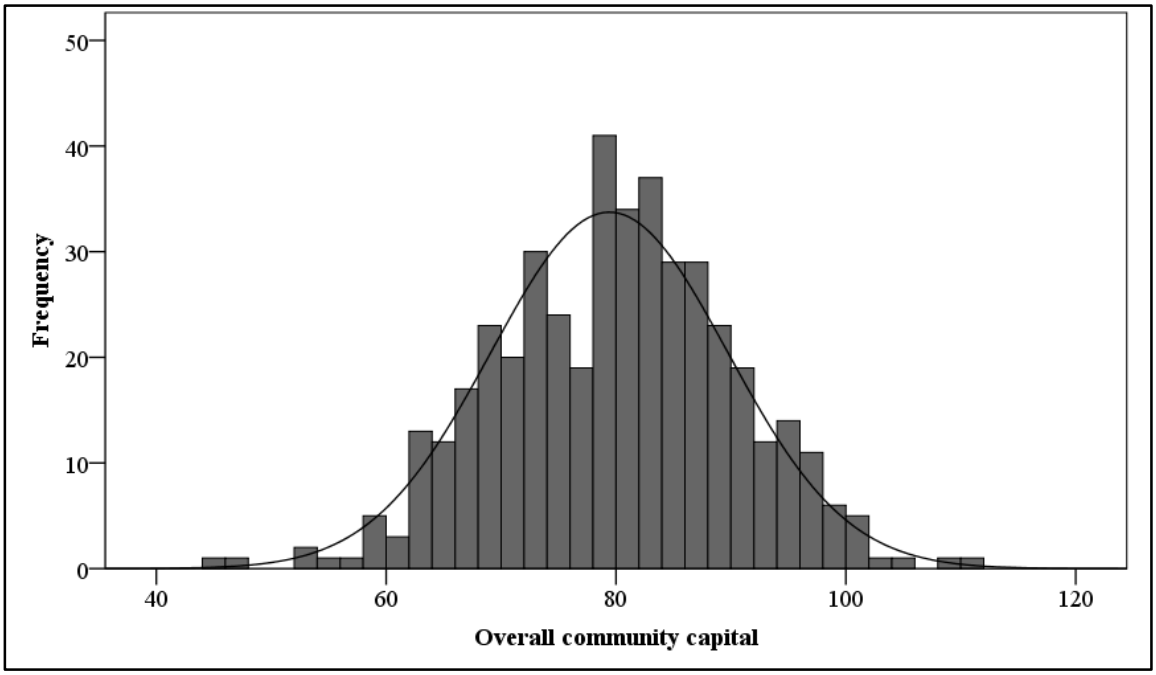

Figure 19 Distribution of the community capital amongst the parents

The distribution curve of the level of the four capitals was found to be slightly skewed towards the right (skewness = -.107, std. error = .117). Since the skewness is between -0.5 and 0, the curve approximates a normal distribution almost perfectly. The finding showed that the parents sampled for the study adequately represented the target population, in which the levels of the four capitals is expected to be normally distributed. Table 48 shows a summary of the findings on the distribution of the four capitals, their averages on a scale of 0 to 100% and their correlations with the level of parental participation.

Table 48 *Summary of the distribution, averages and correlations of the community capitals*

Aspect of community capital	**Skewness of distribution curve**	**Average level of the capital on scale of 0-100%**	**Correlation with level of parental participation**
Human capital	Slightly to the right	59%	.406**
Social capital	Slightly to the right	64%	.248**
Cultural capital	Highly to the right	90%	.395**
Financial capital	Slightly to the right	36%	.307**
Overall	**Slightly to the right**	**64%**	

Key: **significant at $p < .01$

The study found out that out for the four capitals of the parents, the level of cultural capital was the highest (90%), followed by social capital (64%), human capital (59%) and financial was the lowest (36%). In terms of the correlations, human capital was found to have the highest correlation ($r_s = .396$) with the level of parental participation, followed by cultural capital ($r_s = .362$), financial capital (rs = .317) and social capital (rs = .248).

From the findings it would appear that human capital is the most important in parental participation and social capital the least. It should, however, be noted that the community capitals are so complementary to one another that the strength of correlation in one is as a result of the contribution from the others. The complementary nature of the community capitals has been pointed out in a number of studies. Kintz and Brown (2012) note that community capitals are interlinked hence there is need for more integrated view of looking at the capitals. In a study on human capital, Melike, Melda, Seçkin, and Elçin (2005) noted that it depended very much on

financial capital in the target population. Kwon (2009) also noted that it was challenging to measure human capital without considering other capitals such as financial and social. In another study, Eames (2012) illustrated the complementary nature of the cultural, social and financial capitals. Stone (20014 observed that financial capital was very dependent on the social capital and human capital, especially in the form of education. Abenakyo, Sanginga, Njuki, Kaaria and Delve (2007) also noted that social capital can influence and be influenced by the other capitals.

In a study focusing on financial capital, Rouse and Barrow (2006) encountered challenges arising from ignoring the contribution of social capital. They observed that a key concern should not just be how financial capital affects education but whether the behaviours resulting out of the financial capital affect education. In the context of this study, their observation implies that the correlation between financial capital and parental participation may be low, not because of financial capital per se but due to the low social capital arising from it. For example, a child from a household with high financial capital may have a low attendance in school, not because of the financial capital, but due to skipping the school to spend the money in social interactions that interfere with their education. In a study by Tylor and Yu (2009) it turned out that, although financial capital was a very good predictor of educational achievement, the family social background and the effect of school peers (social capital), considered together with economic status (financial capital) was a better predictor. From the highlights in the foregoing studies, it can be noted that the level of correlation between one community capital and parental participation comprises some contribution from the other capitals, as illustrated in the conceptual framework (Figure 1).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, based on the objectives of the study, followed by recommendations based on the findings.

5.1 Summary of the research findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. Spearman's correlation coefficient, r_s, was used to determine the strength of the relationship in a two-tailed test with a threshold level of statistical significance at $\alpha = .05$. To achieve the purpose, four objectives were employed in the study. This section therefore presents a summary of the findings based on the four objectives.

Human capital and the level of parental participation

The first objective of the study was to determine the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The level of human capital among the parents was found to be slightly above average, at a rating of 59% out of 100% on the scale used in the study for measuring human capital. A statistically significant correlation was found between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .396$, $p < .01$).

Three aspects of human capital were identified through Exploratory Factor Analysis of the data collected in the study. The aspects were availability and willingness, education and experience. Of the three aspects, education level was the only one with a significant correlation ($r_s = .576$, $p < .01$) with the level parental participation. This was a strong positive correlation (Fan & Chen, 2004).

The availability and willingness of the parents consisted of attendance of meetings, telling other parents about meetings and giving ideas to improve school. The finding shows that just about half (51%) of the parents attended meetings always and 52% of them mobilize others to also attend the meetings. Majority (64%) of the parents gave their ideas to the schools either most of the times or always. A significant proportion, 13%, of the parents either gave their ideas very few times or not at all.

The education of the parents was measured in terms of the education level, literacy in Kiswahili and in English. A level of education beyond primary was considered adequate for participation in leadership and helping children with homework. The study established that 15% of the parents had only primary education. The literacy levels in Kiswahili for 88% of the parents ranged from

average to excellent and in English, the proportion for the same range of literacy level was found to be lower (70%). Viewed from another perspective, this meant that 12% of the parents had very low literacy level in Kiswahili and a higher proportion, 30%, of them had very low literacy in English.

The experience of the parents was measured in terms of their experience in parenting children through primary school and leadership in the community. The study found out that 62% of the parents had at least some experience in parenting at least one child through primary school. The remaining 38% still had children, or at least one child, in primary school. It was found that 57% of the parents had leadership positions. The proportion of those in leadership positions was lowest among those at primary level of education, with only 38 percent of them in leadership.

Social capital and the level of parental participation

The second objective of the study was to establish the relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The level of social capital among the parents was found to be well above average, at a rating of 63% out of 100% on the scale used in the study for measuring social capital. A statistically significant correlation was found between social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .248$, $p < .01$). The aspect of social capital that contributed most ($r_s = .279$, $p < .01$) to the correlation was reciprocity, which meant the advice given to children of other people.

Two aspects of social capital, inter-relationships and reciprocity, were identified through the Factor Analysis. Both of the aspects had a significant positive correlation with the level of parental participation. The correlation with reciprocity was higher ($r_s = .263$) than the correlation with the interelationhips ($r_s = .184$).

The inter-relationships comprised getting help from family members, relatives, friends, self-help groups and faith-based groups on the education of the children. The study estalished that in giving 'much' or 'very much' help and advice on the education of children, the family members lead with 63%, followed by faith-based groups (61%), friends (53%), relatives (48%) and lastly, self-help groups (42%).

The reciprocity aspect of social capital consisted of giving help or advice to children of relatives and those of friends. In the study, the parents who give help or advice often or very often to the children of others were categorized as those with high social capital. The study established that the parents with high social capital in regard to giving help or advice were 11% in the case of advice children of relatives and 10% in the case of advice to children of friends. The study also

established that 83% of the members of the community give at least some help and advice on education of the children. On the converse, this showed that 17% of the parents do not give help or advice on the education of the children of others.

Cultural capital and the level of parental participation

The third objective of the study was to examine the relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The level of cultural capital among the parents was found to be very high, at a rating of 90% out of 100% on the scale used in the study for measuring cultural capital. The finding showed that there is still a sizable proportion, 10%, of the parents whose cultural practices do not support parental participation in primary education. A statistically significant correlation was found between cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .362$, $p < .01$).

Two aspects of cultural capital were identified by the Factor Analysis on the data. The aspects were the value which the parents attach to the education of their children and their attitude towards interrupting the schooling of children through child labour and early marriages. Both aspects of the cultural capital had significant positive correlation with the level of parental participation. The attitude of the parents towards interrupting the schooling of the children had a slightly higher correlation ($r_s = .324$, $p < .01$) than the value attached to education of children ($r_s = .300$, $p < .01$). This meant that the attitude of the parents towards interruption of children schooling was more likely to affect their participation than the value they attach to education of the children.

On the value to which parents attached to the education of children, the findings showed that at least 92% of them agreed that education of a child is important, whether the child is a boy or a girl. In regard to the attitude toward interrupting the schooling of children, the study found out that 84% of the parents did not support (disagree with) child labour and 93% do not support early marriage. Although this was a very impressive level of that aspect of cultural capital, the study also found out that a significant proportion, 12 % of the parents still supported interruption of children schooling by child labour and 4% still support early marriages.

Financial capital and the level of parental participation

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The level of financial capital among the parents was found to be much below average, at a rating of 34% out of 100% on the scale used in the study for measuring financial capital. A statistically significant correlation

was found between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education ($r_s = .317$, $p < .01$).

Two aspects, the household assets and expenditure, were identified through the Factor Analysis. Both of the aspects had a statistically positive correlation with the level of parental participation. The household assets, however, had a stronger correlation ($r_s = .277$, $p < .01$) with the parental participation compared to the household expenditure ($r_s = .253$, $p < .01$).

The household assets captured in the study were television, electricity connection, water connection and a motor vehicle. All the assets had a significant positive correlation with the level of parental participation, whereby possession of a television had the highest correlation ($r_s = .286$), followed by connection to electricity ($r_s = .245$), possession of a motor vehicle ($r_s = .212$) and connection to water ($r_s = .164$).

Two categories of expenditures captured in the study were those on general items, such as food and fuels, and on airtime. Both categories had a significant positive correlation with parental participation, in which the expenditure on general items had a much higher correlation ($r_s = .300$) than the expenditure on airtime ($r_s = .157$).

Summary of correlations between the selected community capitals and parental participation

Of the four selected community capitals, human capital had the highest correlation ($r_s = .396$) with the level of parental participation, followed by cultural capital ($r_s = .362$), financial capital ($r_s = .317$) and social capital ($r_s = .248$).

From the relative strengths of the correlations, it would appear that human capital was the most important in parental participation and social capital the least. However, the community capitals are so complementary to one another that the strength of correlation in one is as a result of the contribution from the others. The strengths of the correlations are not be viewed in isolation but as comprising some contribution from the other capitals.

5.2 Conclusions

Public concerns that have been expressed to the County Government of Migori suggest that parental participation are among the causes of the relatively low standards of primary education in the county. This study was motivated by the need to contribute information that might be useful in improving parental participation, hence the standard of education in Migori. Parental participation occurs within the contexts situated in a community, which is endowed with its unique capitals. The purpose of the study, therefore, was to investigate the relationship between selected community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The selected capitals were; human capital, cultural capital, social capital and financial capital. The parental participation was conceptualized to comprise their responsiveness in terms of access, gender and quality dimensions of education. The study was guided by four objectives.

The first objective was to determine the relationship between human capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The study found out that there was a positive correlation between human capital and the level of parental participation. The findings in the study showed that the education of the parents had the strongest contribution to the human capital. This implies prioritizing the improvement of the education of the parents may be useful in improving their human capital.

The second objective was to establish the relationship between the social capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The study found out that there was a positive correlation between social capital and the level of parental participation. The social capital among the parents plays an important role as a source of commendations, encouragement and advice, which sustain or increase the participation. Reciprocating the commendations, encouragement and advice was found to be the strongest aspect of social capital. The level of social capital in a community therefore depends, to a large extent on the level to which each of its members practices reciprocity.

In the third objective, the study sought to examine the relationship between the cultural capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The study found out that there was a positive correlation between cultural capital and the level of parental participation. The level of cultural capital among the parents was rated at 90% on a scale of 100%, which was impressively high. In the contributions to the Migori County Development Plan for the period 2013-2018, there were public concerns that cultural practices that supported child labour and early marriages contributed to low standards of education in the county. The study found out that 16%

of the parents supported child labour and 7% supported early marriage, giving some credence to the public concerns.

The fourth objective was to determine the relationship between the financial capital and the level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County. The study found out that there was a positive correlation between financial capital and the level of parental participation. This meant that the lower the financial capital, the lower was the parental participation. The study found out that the level of financial capital (36%) was trailing that of cultural capital (90%, social capital (64%) and human capital (59%). The relatively low financial capital could contribute to low parental participation and, hence, to low level of education in the county.

One limitation of the study that should be acknowledged is that it was not practically possible to include all the aspects of the four community capitals identified in the various literature that were reviewed. This is because the inclusion of all the identified aspects would translate into a very long questionnaire for the parents, which would likely result into a high rate of partial response. The study therefore included a limited number of aspects of each of four the community capitals that were considered key to the investigation.

Overall, the study empirically established that there was a positive correlation between all the four community capitals and the level of parental participation in primary education. Although the findings in this study are consistent with some prior studies, they were also inconsistent with some others. This means that there is still need for more research in this area.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, interpretations and discussions, this section presents recommendations for policy, practice and further research.

Recommendations for policy and practice

Level of literacy in the languages that children use in the school is a very important human capital in the community. It is advisable that the education sector should strengthen the adult and continuing education with special emphasis on improving literacy in the languages for those parents with low literacy in the languages. This is because, according to the findings in this study, the leadership positions are heavily dominated by those whose education levels are above primary.

Ideas of parents form a very useful human capital that should be adequately tapped by the schools. If the management of schools provide a number of channels through which all parents can

contribute their ideas, it can lead to improvement in education of the children. The study established that 13% of the parents had not given any ideas to improve the schools in which their children learn. This could be because such parents had not been given chance to contribute ideas. On probing, two of the parents said that the schools in which their children were attending had not provided any opportunities for them to contribute their ideas.

Formal and informal social interactions are very important in the improvement of education. it would therefore be useful to the improvement of parental participation if the public administration, such the sub-county commissioners, county commissioners and education officers build the capacities of the leaders of community-based groups and organizations so that they can use their forums to discuss issues on the improvement of education.

Attitudes that support or condone early marriages and child labour still exist in Migori County, although to a small extent. Public administration should strengthen vigilance in the community to eradicate the early marriages and child labour. The government and other development actors such as NGOs should also mount sensitizations aimed at eradicating the practices.

Financial capital is important to the participation of the parents in the education of their children. It may be useful if the national and the county governments enhance efforts to uplift the financial status of the people, for example by empowering them identify and engage in viable income-generating activities.

Recommendations for further research

The content of the discussions at the parents' meetings in schools is very important to the education of the children. However, some of the findings in this study shows that such discussions do not focus adequately on some important issues on the education outcomes. For example, it was indicative in the study that the attendance of the meetings had no relationship with gender-responsive participation. Further research should therefore be done to establish the content of such discussions with a view to enriching them.

Parental participation is indisputably important in the education of children. To this end, further research need to be done to ascertain how the parents would like to be engaged in the education of the children. Such research should also ascertain how the teachers and the school management engage or would like to engage the parents in the education of their children.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire for parents of pupils in Standard 7 in Migori County

The purpose of this questionnaire is get information on how you take part in supporting education in the school where you child learns. The information will be helpful in improving the learning in the school and also in other schools. The information you give will be treated with confidentiality, so do not write your name in the questionnaire.
This questionnaire contains short items numbered 1 to 49. The item is a question or a statement.

If a space is provided after the question by a line like this _____, write down your response in the space.
If the question or statement has labels [1], [2], [3], [4], [5] written after it, then indicate your response by ticking (√) on <u>ONLY ONE</u> of the labels.

Welcome.

Section One: Demographic information

Please indicate

1. your gender: [1] female [2] male
2. your age: _____ years.
3. your occupation: _____

Section Two: Some of your other attributes

4. How many of your children have completed primary school? _____
5. The highest education level that you have attained is
   [1] Primary
   [2] Secondary
   [3] Secondary with Diploma
   [4] Bachelors degree
   [5] Masters degree and above

6. How often do you attend the **meetings** for parents at the Primary school where your child is?

[1] Not at all	[2] less than half of the times	[3] about half of the times	[4] more than half of the times	[5] Always

7. How often do you tell other parents to also attend meetings at the Primary school?

[1] I don't tell them	[2] I tell them less than half of the times	[3] I tell them about half of the times	[4] I tell them more than half of the times	[5] I tell them always

8. How often do you give ideas to help improve the school?

[1] I have **not** done that	[2] I do that very few times	[3] I do that sometimes	[4] I do that most of the times	[5] I do that always

9. Do you hold a leadership position in your community, e.g. in a self-help group, school, church, or mosque? [1] No [2]Yes

   If yes, write the position _____

Section Three: Your interactions with other people or groups of people:

For each of the following groups of people in Number 10 to 14, indicate the amount of **help and advice on education** of your children you receive from them?

	[1] Not at all	[2] Very little	[3] A little	[4] Much	[5] Very much
10. Family members (brothers, sisters, cousins)	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
11. Relatives	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
12. Friends	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
13. self-help/ women/Welfare groups	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
14. Church/Islamic groups	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

In items 15 to 17, please indicate how frequently you do it.

	[5] Very often	[4] Often	[3] Rarely	[2] Very rarely	[1] Has not happened
15. You give advice on education to children of your relatives	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]
16. You give advice on education to children of your friends	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]
17. You get invitation to a school to talk to the pupils	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Section Four: Different ways on how people view education of children

Please state your view on each of the statements numbered 18 to 22 in one of the boxes in front of the statement.

	[1] Strongly	[2] Disagree	[3] Not sure	[4] Agree	[5] Strongly

	Disagree				agree
18. Education of your children is helpful to you	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
19. Educating a girl is helpful to her parents	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
20. Educating a boy is helpful to his parents	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
21. It is alright if any of your children leaves school to be employed and earn some money.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
22. It is alright if a girl leaves primary school to be married.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

For each of the languages numbered 23 and 24 please indicate how good you are in speaking it.

	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
	Not able to speak it	Can speak it a little	Average in speaking it	Very good in speaking it	Excellent in speaking it
23. Kiswahili	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
24. English	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

Section Five: Some of your expenditures and assets

For each of the following items numbered 26 and 28, please indicate the approximate amount of money you spend on it.

	Amount in Ksh. (approximately).
25. **MONTHLY** expenditure of your family on things such as food, electricity bills, kerosene, petrol, etc.)	
26. **DAILY** expenditure on airtime of your mobile phone	

In the items numbers 27 to 30, put tick (√) against the item that you possess, and put an (X) against the item that you do not possess.

	Item
27.	Television

28. Electricity in the house
29. Tapped water in the house
30. A vehicle

Section Six: Enrolment and attendance of your children in school

31. Please write down the class and age any of your child in the primary school
    Class: _____ Age: _____ years

32. How often does your child miss going to school to help you do some work at home?
    [1] Very often [2] often [3] rarely [4] very rarely [5] It does not happen

33. How much would like your child to complete primary education?
    [1] Very little [2] Little [3] not sure [4] much [5] Very much

34. How much would **like** your child to proceed to secondary school after completing primary education?
    [1] Very little [2] Little [3] not sure [4] much [5] Very much

35. How often has your child reported late to school because of helping in some work at home?
    [1] Very often [2] often [3] rarely [4] very rarely [5] It has not happened

Section Seven: Your opinion on gender

Please state your opinion on each of the statements numbered 36 to 42

	[1] Strongly disagree	[2] Disagree	[3] Not sure	[4] Agree	[5] Strongly agree
36. Ensuring that a girl proceeds to secondary education is as important as ensuring that a boy proceeds to secondary education	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
37. Ensuring that a girl proceeds to secondary education is **more** important than ensuring that a boy proceeds to secondary education	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

38. Ensuring that a girl proceeds to secondary education is **less** important than ensuring that a boy proceeds to secondary education	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
39. It is alright if a girl does not complete primary school to get married or look for a job	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
40. It is alright if a boy does not complete primary school to get married or look for a job	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
41. Girls can lead good life even if they do not do well in school	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
42. Boys can lead good life even if they do not do well in school	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

Section Eight: What you do for learning of your child

For the statements numbered 43 to 49 please indicate how each of them applies to you.

	Not at all	Very rarely	Rarely	Often	Very Often
	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
43. You check the homework of your child given by the teachers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
44. You help your child when he/she has difficulties in the homework	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
45. You discuss with the teachers on how they can help your child improve in his/her performance	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
46. You buy books which you think your child needs without being told by teachers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
47. You buy books which your child asks you to buy for him/her	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
48. You encourage your child to work hard in class	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
49. You advise children of other people to work hard in class	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

---------- End of the questionnaire ……

Thank you for availing time to respond to the questionnaire.

Appendix II: Questionnaire for headteachers of primary schools in Migori County

The purpose of this questionnaire is get information on the level of the participation of the parents of children in your school. The information will be helpful in improving the learning in the school and also in other schools. The information you give will be treated with confidentiality, so do not write your name in the questionnaire.

This questionnaire contains items numbered 1 to7. The item is a question or a statement.

If the question or statement has labels [1], [2], [3], [4], [5] written after it, then indicate your response by ticking (√) on **only one** of the labels.

If a space is provided after the question by a line as shown below, write down your response in the space.

_____.

Welcome.

Section One: Access

The parents are expected to ensure that their children come to school in time and regularly.

1. What do you think makes some children to often come to school late? Give **two** reasons.

_____

_____

2. What do you think are the causes of absenteeism among children in your school? Give **two** causes.

_____

_____

Section Two: Gender

3. Which of the gender, girls or boys, are generally valued more by the community in terms of education?

[1] Boys	[2] Girls

Please give a reason for your choice in number 3 above

_____

_____

4. Which of the gender, girls or boys, have a higher dropout rate in the primary school?

[1]Boys	[2] Girls

Reason _____

_____

_____

Section Three: Quality of learning

Please rate the extent to which of the statements numbered 5 to 7 are generally true about the parents of the children in your school.

	[1] Never	[2] Rarely	[3] Not sure	[4] Often	[5] Very often
5. The parents help their children when they have difficulties in the homework.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
6. The parents discuss with the teachers how their children can be helped to improve in the performance.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
7. The parents buy books which they think their children need without being told by teachers.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

---------- End of the questionnaire ……

Thank you for availing time to respond to the questionnaire.

Appendix III: Document analysis guide for primary schools in Migori County

The purpose of this guide is to collect data that will be used to determine the number of children who are in the school at the expected age and the gender of the children. The data will also be used to determine the extent to which the children are supported in terms of learning materials. The data will be filled by the researcher from relevant documents in the school. .

School code _____

Section One: Gender

1. Gender in terms of enrolment to primary education

Class	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**Overall**
No. of girls (G)									
No. of boys (B)									
Ratio of G/B									

2. Gender in terms of quality of learning

No. with at least 250 marks in KCPE	2014	2015	2016	Average
Girls (G				
Boys (B)				
Ratio G/B				

3. Gender in terms of age of enrolment

	Std 1		Std 7	
	Total no.	Average age	Total no.	Average age
Girls				
Boys				
Overall				

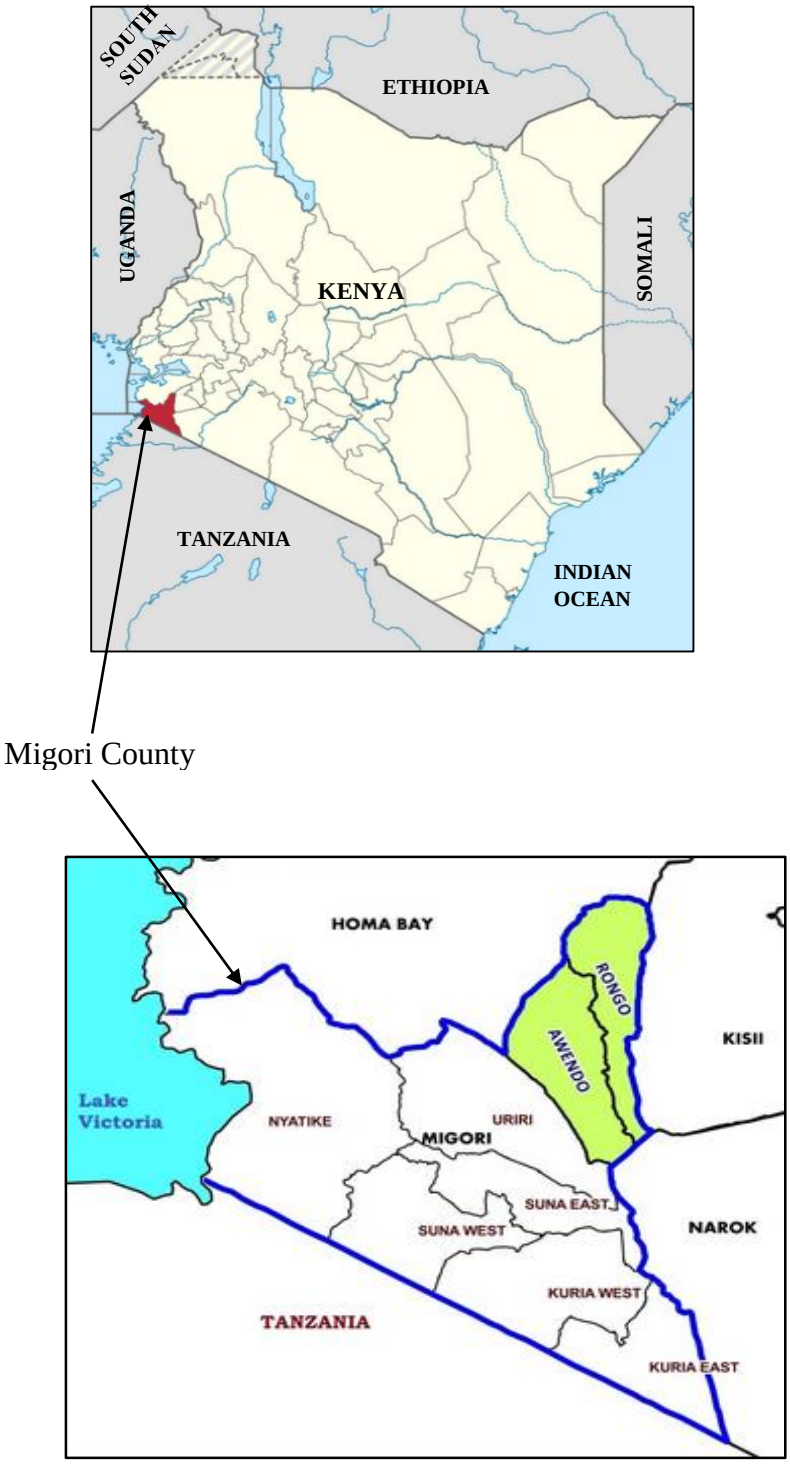
Section Two: Quality

4. Mean KCPE grade of school past 3 years:

   2016: _____ 2015: _____ 2014: _____

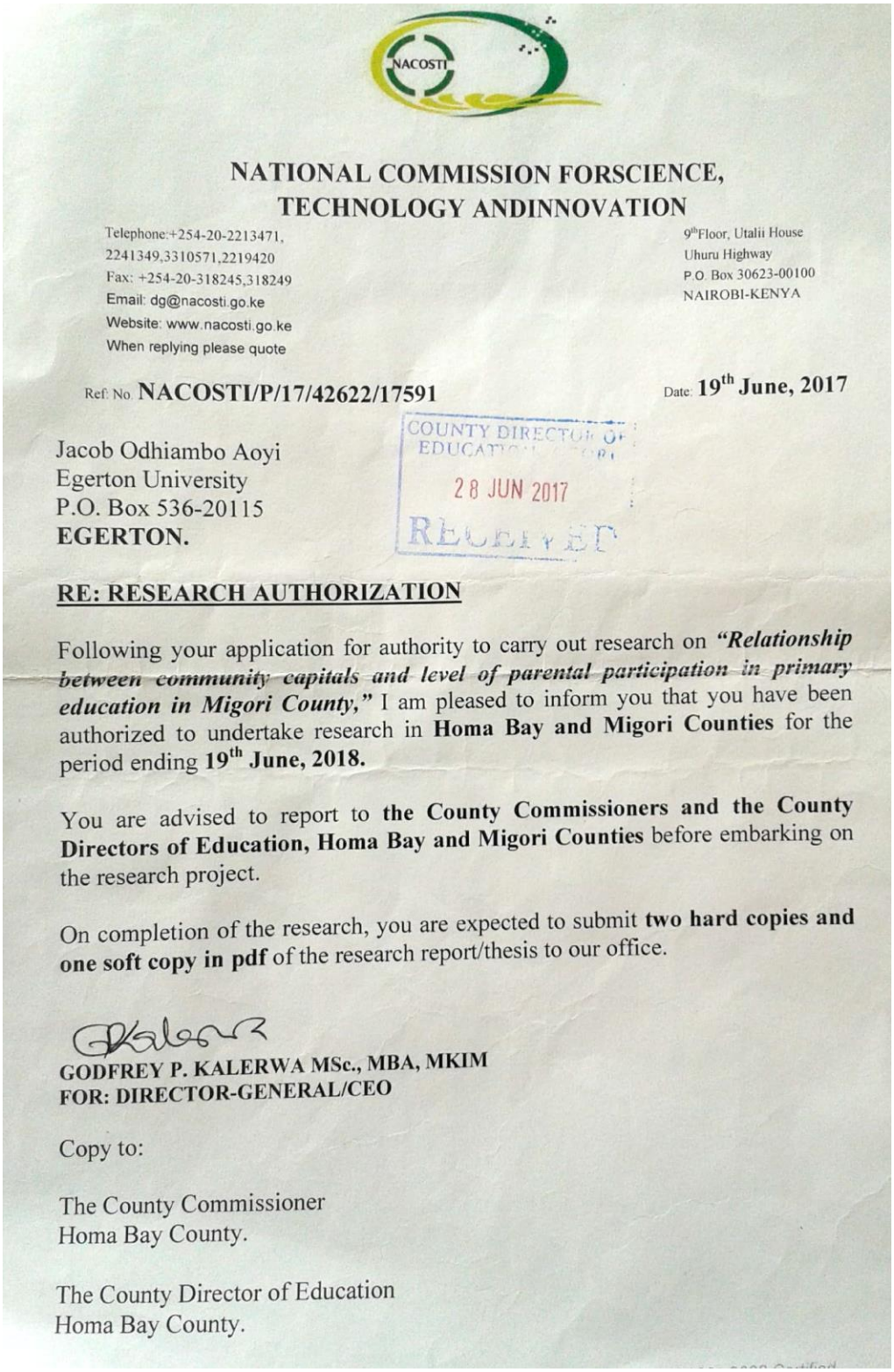
5. No. of pupils in Class 7 _____
6. No. of pupils in class seven with books bought by parents without being told by teachers _____. Percentage: _____
7. No. of pupils with books bought by parents after recommendation by teacher _____ Percentage: _____

Appendix IV: Location and map of Migori County, Kenya



Source: Adapted from Republic of Kenya (2013a). *Migori county development plan 2013-2018.*

Appendix V: Research Authorization by NACOSTI



NATIONAL COMMISSION FORSCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY ANDINNOVATION

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2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No. **NACOSTI/P/17/42622/17591**

Date: **19th June, 2017**

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi
Egerton University
P.O. Box 536-20115
EGERTON.

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
28 JUN 2017
RECEIVED

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Relationship between community capitals and level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County,"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Homa Bay and Migori Counties** for the period ending **19th June, 2018.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, Homa Bay and Migori Counties** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

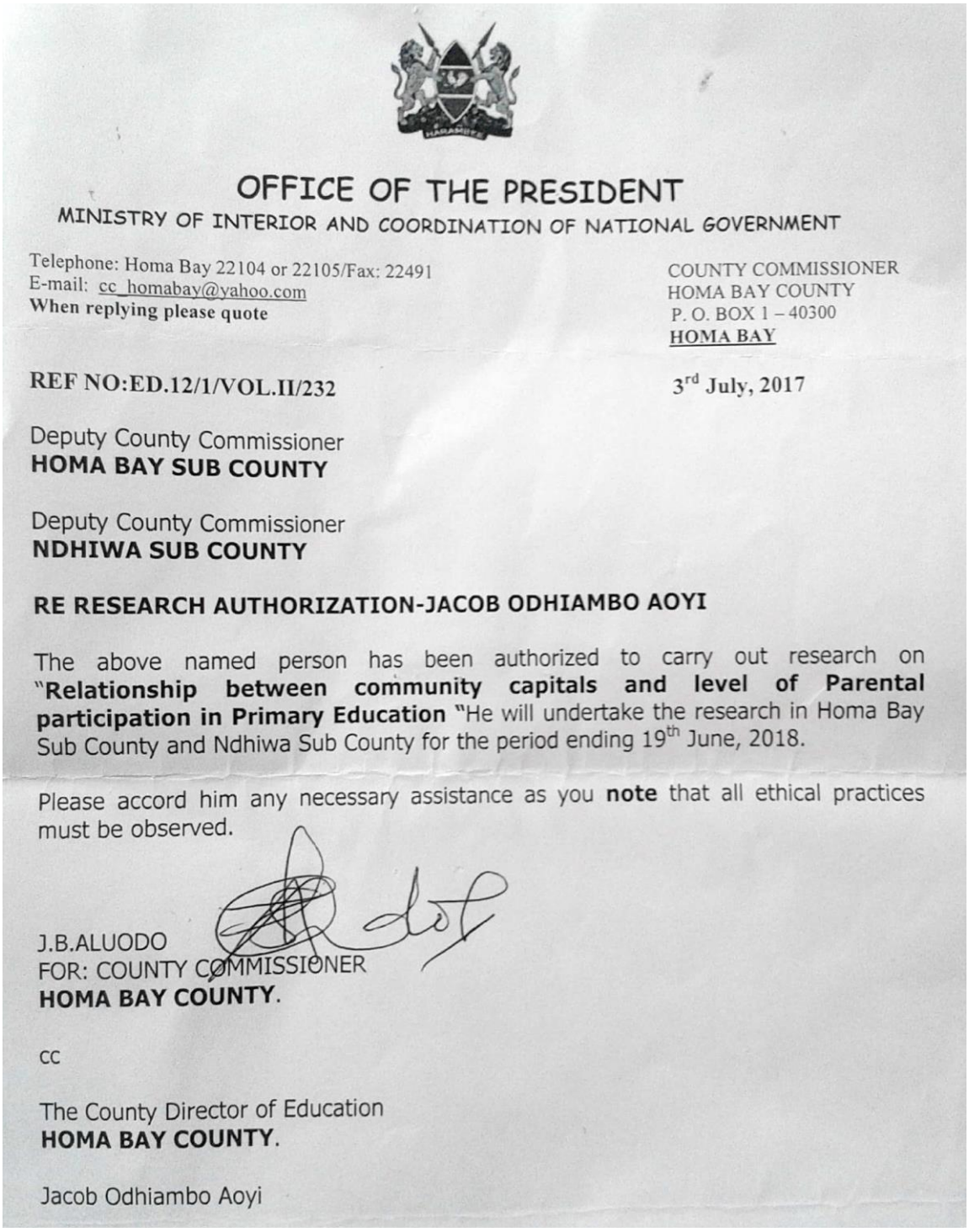
GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Homa Bay County.

The County Director of Education
Homa Bay County.

Appendix VI: Research Authorization by County Commissioner, Homa Bay



OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Telephone: Homa Bay 22104 or 22105/Fax: 22491
E-mail: cc_homabay@yahoo.com
When replying please quote

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
HOMA BAY COUNTY
P. O. BOX 1 – 40300
HOMA BAY

REF NO:ED.12/1/VOL.II/232

3rd July, 2017

Deputy County Commissioner
HOMA BAY SUB COUNTY

Deputy County Commissioner
NDHIWA SUB COUNTY

RE RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION-JACOB ODHIAMBO AOYI

The above named person has been authorized to carry out research on "**Relationship between community capitals and level of Parental participation in Primary Education** "He will undertake the research in Homa Bay Sub County and Ndhiwa Sub County for the period ending 19th June, 2018.

Please accord him any necessary assistance as you **note** that all ethical practices must be observed.

J.B.ALUODO
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
HOMA BAY COUNTY.

cc

The County Director of Education
HOMA BAY COUNTY.

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi

Appendix VII: Research Authorization by County Director of Education, Homa Bay

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

STATE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Telegrams: "SCHOOLING" Homa Bay
Telephone + 254722767574
When replying please quote
cdehomabay@gmail.com

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
HOMA BAY COUNTY
P.O BOX 710
HOMA BAY
DATE: 3RD JULY, 2017

REF: MOEST/CDE/HBC/ADM/VOL.I/182

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi
Egerton University
P.o Box 536- 20115
EGERTON.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION.

In response to the letter from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation dated 19th June, 2017 giving you authority to carry out the research on ***"Relationship between community capitals and level of parental participation in primary education in Homa Bay County"*** I hereby give you permission to carry out the research in **Homa Bay County,** for the period ending **19th June, 2018.**

On completion of the research , you are expected to submit two hard copies and one soft copy of the research report/thesis to our office.

MILLICENT M. NYABUNGA
FOR: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
HOMA BAY

CC

1. **County Commissioner**
   Homa Bay

Appendix VIII: Research Authorization by County Commissioner, Migori

THE PRESIDENCY

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Fax No.:(059) 20511
Tel.: 059-42076
Email: migoridc2010@yahoo.com
When replying please quote

DEPUTY COUNTY COMMISSIONER
SUNA EAST SUB COUNTY
P.O. BOX 2-40400,
SUNA MIGORI

Réf : ED.12/19VOL.I/274

Date: 5th July, 2017

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi
Egerton university
P.O Box 536-20115
EGERTON

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi NACOSTI/P/17/42622/17591 a student at Egerton University has been authorized to carry out research on ***"Relationship between community capitals and level of parental participation in primary* education in *Migori County*"** for the period ending 19th June 2018.

Accord him necessary assistance.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
P.O BOX 2 – 40400
SUNA – MIGORI
MIGORI COUNTY

PETER G. MUTU
FOR: DEPUTY COUNTY COMMISSIONER
SUNA EAST SUB COUNTY

CC
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
MIGORI COUNTY

Appendix IX: Research Authorization by County Director of Education, Migori

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
State Department of Education

Telephone: **(059) 20420**
Fax: 05920420
Email: cdemigoricounty@gmail.com
When replying please quote

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
MIGORI COUNTY,
P.O. Box 466-40400
SUNA – MIGORI

REF: MIG/CDE/ADM/1/VOL.III(144)

DATE: 28th June, 2017

Jacob Odhiambo Aoyi
Egerton University
P. O. Box 536 – 20115
EGERTON

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORISATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Relationship between community capitals and level of parental participation in primary education in Migori County,"***. I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in *Migori County* for the period ending **19th June, 2018.**

On completion of the research you are expected to submit **one hard copy and a soft copy** of the research report/thesis to this office.

Thank you.

LUKA CHEBET
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
MIGORI COUNTY