

**PATERNAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S EDUCATION: AN
IMPLICATION OF CHILDREN'S PERFORMANCE AT PRESCHOOL
IN GUCHA DISTRICT KENYA**

BY

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Declaration

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

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Mr. Elijah Ocharo and our children; David, Eddah, Sally, Lucy and Faith for their perseverance during my study.

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I thank God for seeing me through this research work; without him the work would have been impossible. The completion of this thesis would not have been possible without the assistance and cooperation of many people and institutions to which I am indebted. I am greatly indebted to Kenyatta University for sponsoring this study in an enabling and conducive learning environment. I thank DAAD for sponsoring this work by giving me the equipment grant that facilitated my data collection and analysis.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANOVA:	One way Analysis of Variance
BvLF:	Bernard van Leer Foundation
DAAD:	Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst (German Academic Exchange Service)
DICECE:	District Center for Early Childhood Education
GDDP:	Gucha District Development Plan
KCPE:	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE:	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KDHS:	Kenya Demographic Health Survey
KIE:	Kenya Institute of Education
NALS:	National Adult Literacy Survey
NACECE:	National Center for Early Childhood Education
NCOFF:	National Center On Fathers and Families
NHES:	National Household Education Survey
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

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Abstract

Extensive research exists on the importance of parental involvement in children's education, yet relatively few studies have examined the individual contributions that mothers and fathers make to their children's schooling. There is a great deal of interest however, in the role of fathers in children's lives. This interest stems from the fact that traditionally in Africa fathers were the hidden parent. They were assumed to be the breadwinners of their families, but of limited importance in non-financial aspects of children's well-being and development. The purpose of this study was to establish the level of fathers' involvement in their children's education in relation to children's performance at preschool with a special focus on the factors that influence this involvement. The study was carried out in Gucha District because of its continued poor performance in the KCPE exams. Two divisions were purposively selected, one to represent the urban set up, and the other to represent a rural set up. Sixteen preschools were purposively selected from the two divisions to represent the public and private and the rural and urban pre schools. A sample size of 160 preschool children was purposively selected from the 16 preschools due to their performance level in their preschool activities according to their teachers' assessment. Further, a sample size of 160 fathers to the selected children from the two divisions was given the questionnaire to fill on their involvement in their children's education. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized to prepare and organize data for analysis to test the significance levels between variables at 0.05. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient, ANOVA and Chi Square were utilized to establish whether there were any significant relationships or differences in means between variables. Findings revealed that fathers' involvement in their children's education was significantly related to children's performance at preschool where $r=0.19$ with a 'p' value of 0.029. There was a significant difference in means of father involvement between fathers of different academic levels where $f=25.149$ at 2 degrees of freedom with a 'p' value of 0.000. There was a significant difference in means of father involvement between fathers of different occupations where $f=6.291$ at 5 degrees of freedom with a 'p' value of 0.000. Fathers' involvement in their children's education was also significantly related to the type of school the child attended where $\chi^2=25.330$ at 2 degrees of freedom and a 'p' value of 0.000. Sex of the child and fathers' area of residence were not found to be significantly related to fathers' involvement in their children's education where $\chi^2=2.213$ at 2 degrees of freedom with a 'p' value of 0.392 and $\chi^2=1.444$ at 2 degrees of freedom with a 'p' value of 0.846 respectively. It was therefore concluded that, fathers' involvement in their children's education influence children's performance at preschool. Factors that were found to influence fathers' involvement included; fathers' academic level, their occupation and the type of preschool the child attended. It was recommended that there is need for school managers and administrators to find ways of introducing programmes to ensure that fathers closely monitor and participate in assisting their children with school work and attending school functions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Over the past 30 years, a great deal of research has attempted to identify, define and measure paternal involvement in childcare. This is not an easy task and has to take into account mothers' and fathers' commitments to other activities notably employment, the changing nature of childcare and how involvement can be defined (Adams & Trost 2005, Gadsden, 2007, Pleck, 1997). Most of the studies looking at the involvement of the father in the child's early life conducted in Europe and North America have shown that when fathers are a significant part of the child's life from birth, the children score higher on intelligence tests than children whose fathers are less involved (Darquise, Pomerleau & Malcuit 2006, Lamb, 2004, Engle & Breaux, 1994). A study in Barbados by Russell-Brown, Engle and Townsend (1994) established that children who had good ongoing relationships with their fathers appeared more likely to do better at school and to have fewer behavioural problems.

Fathers' interactions exert a powerful influence on every domain of their children's functioning beginning at infancy. Research has shown that fathers impact their children's social, emotional and cognitive development (Darquise, Pomerleau & Malcuit, 2006, Brazelton, 1992). The long-term effects of fathers' direct involvement with their children are

manifested through childhood and adolescence (Lamb, 2004). For children with a father figure those who describe greater father support have a stronger sense of social competence and fewer depressive symptoms (Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Furr, 1998).

Other studies have shown that shared activities between fathers and their children are independently associated with improved academic performance (Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Furr, 1998). These studies have been conducted in the western world but local research suggests that in some Kenyan communities, there is no direct involvement of fathers with their children, while in others fathers' involvement is confined to indirect support for childcare activities like providing financial support and that of an overseer (Koech, 2007, 2005, Gakuru & Koech, 1994, Gakuru, Koech & Nduati 1995, Ndani, 2008).

Palkovitz (2002, 1997) stated that by employing a broad definition of father involvement, three features are particularly striking. First, fathers can be involved with their children in fifteen general types of paternal involvement described in the theoretical framework. Second, there is a diverse array of potentially overlapping dimensions or aspects associated with the numerous ways fathers are either involved with their children or make contributions to their wellbeing (Palkovitz, 2002, 1997). Third, there are vast individual and sub cultural differences in how persons define and invest in these dimensions. Efforts to develop a theoretically meaningful

and tidy categorization scheme for the varied ways of paternal involvement are fraught with difficulties (Marsiglio & Day, 2007). The most rudimentary approach reveals that, men's experiences as fathers can be categorized within one of three overlapping domains of functioning: cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Palkovitz, 2002, 1997). When thinking of what fathers do with their children, one is able to place them within one of the three domains. What becomes apparent is that any behavioural expression that can be described as paternal involvement also contains cognitive and affective components.

Studies by (Lamb, 2004, Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Palkovitz, 2002, 1997) suggest that a father's ability to support his child's learning affects the child's engagement with books and schooling. Fathers who have limited schooling as well as low reading and writing abilities have difficulty participating in school related activities requiring high levels of literacy. However, these fathers have high hopes for their children and depend on programmes to ensure that their children will become competent learners. Coverman (1985), Gadsden (2007) and Gadsden et al. (1995) suggest that, more educated fathers tend to engage in childcare more readily and more often and to spend more time with children in education related activities such as reading.

Studies have examined the effects of employment on fathers' engagement with children (Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden & Hall, 1995, Gerson, 1993 and

Marsiglio, 1995). Some data suggest that both employed and unemployed men think of childrearing as women's work. Some have found that unemployed men spend more time with their children while others have found that joblessness does not increase fathers' involvement in childcare, implying that care giving is not simply a function of time available to the father but the quality of the activities (Jones, 1985, Marsiglio, 1995, Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden et al., 1995).

The entry of a large number of mothers into the labor force has contributed to a marked decline in the strict gender division of labor within a family to an arrangement where the roles of mothers and fathers overlap to a great extent (Furstenberg, 1988). Nowadays, fathers like mothers, have multiple roles: provider, protector, nurturer, companion, disciplinarian, teacher, and instiller of societal norms, to name just a few (Lamb, 2004, 1997, Marsiglio, 1993). In reality, however, most families do not divide all household and child rearing tasks equally between mothers and fathers, but rather work out their own acceptable divisions of labor within the family (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). In Brown's work in Jamaica she noted that men's role as providers was clear but if they were not able to fulfill this role they could find no other place in the family for themselves (Engle, 1994).

Research has indicated that fathers more often than mothers treat girls and boys differently (Parke, 2002a, 2002b, Power & Parke, 1982). These studies have been conducted in the western world and they have indicated

that gender of the child, fathers' beliefs on their role, their occupation and education level influences their involvement with children. Studies assessing factors that influence fathers' involvement especially with children's education at preschool level have not been documented in Kenya and more specifically among the Abagusii people. Swadener, Kabiru and Njenga (2000) and Kipkorir (1994) conducted studies on early childhood care and education focusing more on mothers, care givers and preschool teachers. Gakuru, Koech & Nduati (1995) and Gakuru and Koech (1994) documented fathers' indirect roles with children under three years old. The extent of fathers' direct involvement with preschool children and their academic performance has not been documented. This study therefore sought to fill this gap by carrying out this study in Gucha District.

According to the Gucha District Development Plan (GDDP) (2002-2008) there is unequal participation of women and men in socio-economic and political activities in Gucha district. The gender bias against women and the girl child in particular tends to be caused by disparities in accessibility to production resources, cultural beliefs and practices, literacy levels and disproportionate participation in decision making at both political and economic levels. In the agricultural sector, 80% of the farm workers are women but men spend 80% of the household income. The women and youth who plough the farms do not own land according to the Kisii customs. This has disadvantaged women in making decisions about their

children's wellbeing in general. Therefore there is need to find out whether men who dominate in decision making at all levels and who spend 80% of household income get involved in their children's education at preschool level.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Family involvement has been a key factor in early childhood education for more than three decades (Fantuzzo, Tighe & Childs, 2000). However, because early childhood educators tend to engage more with mothers than fathers, the study of fathers' involvement in children's development has been neglected (Fantuzzo, Tighe & Childs, 2000). This neglect could be attributed to the fact that, traditionally men were breadwinners for their families and provided security while women were responsible for care giving to their children and keeping the home. With modernization, urbanization and change of family structure, these traditions are changing and more women are employed and others are engaged in income generating activities to support their families (Swadener et al., 2000, Lamb, 2004).

Research from the west on paternal involvement has established that children who have involved fathers tend to perform better in school and they score higher on tests of thinking skills and brain development (Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Darquise et al., 2006, Radin, 1994, Biller 1993, Lamb, 2004 and Coverman, 1995). Research in Kenya has focused on the

influence of both parents' involvement/participation in school and children's educational and occupational aspirations (Ndani, 2008, Koech 2009, and Aswani, 1989). Research in early childhood education has focused on care and education of the under threes with reference to mothers, care givers and preschool teachers (Swadener et al., 2000 and Kipkorir, 1994). Waime (2007) in her study recommended for a study to be carried out on fathers' involvement since modernity may not require the father to be the supreme authority as was practiced traditionally. He should be perceived to play his rightful roles by his family that of active participant rather than a behind the scenes operator.

Minimal research attention has been directed towards fathers' involvement and children's performance at Preschool and the factors that influence this involvement in Kenya. By establishing whether or not fathers get involved in their children's education, stake holders in education and early childhood development may find it necessary to advocate for programs that may equip fathers with knowledge and skills on their role in their children's learning and development. This is because their direct involvement with children may strengthen the children's educational foundation that would enhance good results in the child's education at higher levels of learning. By establishing the factors that influence paternal involvement, policy makers may find it necessary to make policies that would encourage programmes to sensitize fathers on the important role

they play in their children's education with an effort of strengthening the factors found to be significantly related to fathers' involvement.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish whether fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education relates to children's academic performance. Specifically, the study sought to explore the level of fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education and the factors that influence their involvement.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to:

1. Explore whether fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education relates to children's academic performance.
2. Determine whether there is a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement in their children's education between fathers of different academic levels
3. Establish whether there is a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement between fathers of different occupations.
4. Establish whether fathers' involvement in their children's education relates to what they believe to be their role in their pre school children's education.

5. Determine whether fathers' involvement in their children's education is related to sex of the child.
6. Establish whether fathers' involvement in their children's education is related to fathers' area of residence.
7. Determine whether fathers' involvement in their children's education is related to the type of preschool the child attends.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

This study tested the following research hypotheses:

H.1. There is a significant relationship between fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education and children's performance at preschool activities.

H.2. Fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education is significantly different in means between fathers of different academic level.

H.3. Fathers' involvement in their children's education is significantly different in means between fathers of different occupations.

H.4. Fathers' involvement in their children's education is significantly related to what they belief to be their role in their children's education.

H.5. Fathers' involvement in their children's education is significantly related to the sex of the child.

H.6. Fathers' involvement in their preschool children's education is significantly related to their area of residence.

H.7. Fathers' involvement in their children's education is significantly related to the type of school the child attends.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study provided useful information that may help scholars gauge the extent of fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education in Gusii. Efforts at promoting fathers' participation in this venture must be preceded by such base line data.

School administrators and teachers may make use of the findings to encourage fathers to get involved in their children's education right from preschool level by introducing activities where fathers can participate with their children. The activities may include ensuring that fathers sign their children's diary; that home work has been properly done by the child. The administrators could also organize for open days when fathers come to school for sports activities with their children.

Policy makers in the Ministry of Education may make use of the findings to make policies that would encourage programs that may enable fathers gain knowledge on the importance of their involvement in their children's education, with an aim of improving children's performance in school. The programs may include ensuring that the curriculum for adult education is reorganized to address fathers' literacy needs since, according to the

current gender policy in education (2007), the curriculum do address the literacy needs for women and youth out of school alone.

Child welfare organizations, non governmental organizations and the National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) may make use of this information to develop appropriate training curriculum and programmes for fathers that would equip them with knowledge and skills on the importance of their involvement with children.

Findings from this study have also added knowledge on fathers' involvement in their children's education in relation to children's school performance in a non-western context. The findings revealed that fathers who were involved in their children's education had children who performed well in preschool activities than children whose fathers were not involved.

1.7 Delimitation and Limitations

The study focused on fathers' involvement in their children's education and children's performance at preschool. It did not focus on both parents and single parents or on any other aspect of development, these can form a basis for other studies to be carried out. The study was limited to preschool children aged 5-6 years who had fathers and being prepared to join class one, since it was assumed that they could be able to read and write.

The study focused on two of the three domains of involvement according to Palkovitz namely cognitive and behavioural. The affective domain of involvement was not included since feelings and affection for children are not directly linked with children's academic. This could form a basis for another study where fathers' feelings and affection for their children could be investigated independently. The study focused on five of Palkovitz's aspects of parental involvement that were directly related to academic performance. These included communication, teaching, shared activities, monitoring and providing. The study was carried out in Gucha District Nyanza Province. Findings from this study may be generalized to the Abagusii people and any other community with similar characteristics and culture.

The study utilized a questionnaire for fathers to report on their involvement in their children's education. Other instruments like interviews and Focus Group Discussions were not utilized for this study since the researcher was more interested to know what fathers say they do with their children. Other researches can be carried out where other instruments can be utilized to collect data on father involvement.

Teacher's assessment was utilized to collect data on children's performance because it was not possible to come up with one uniform test for all the selected preschools because of their varied geographical backgrounds and language. Other studies can be conducted at a higher

level especially lower/upper primary where a uniform test can be prepared for children to undertake so as to measure it against their fathers' involvement.

The study was limited due to financial constraints in terms of transport needs, subsistence, stationary and typing. This constraint was counteracted by applying for a research grant from the university which was granted to facilitate data collection, analysis and processing. Another limitation of the study was the literacy levels of the subjects of the study whereby some fathers were not able to read and write. This limitation was overcome by translating the questionnaire into Ekegusii. For those who could not read completely they were eliminated from the study. Another limitation was that, some fathers to the selected children declined to participate in filling the questionnaire which led to the elimination of their children from the sample.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

It was assumed that if the fathers get involved with their children during their early years, the children would perform better in preschool and in later learning levels which would enhance their performance in the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education.

It was assumed that teachers would be in a better position to assess children's performance than giving a uniform test to children in the

selected preschools because of their varied backgrounds and language. It was also assumed that findings from research in the western world could be applicable to fathers and children in Gucha District.

1.9 Theoretical Frame Work

This study was guided by the insights of Palkovitz Model of Parental Involvement.

1.9.1 Parental Involvement Model Adopted from Palkovitz (1997)

According to Palkovitz, the core features of mothering including nurturance and protection are more universally recognized and much greater consensus exists about good mothers than about good fathers (Palkovitz, 2002, 1997). Men committed to being good fathers may perform in vastly different ways with the same performances, sometimes being viewed as successful or unsuccessful depending on the definitions held by those making the evaluations (Marsiglio & Day, 2007, Palkovitz, 1997). These facts confound efforts to examine fathers' involvement and to articulate the motivational factors related to it.

By drawing attention to the continua theme Palkovitz explains that thinking of parents as being either more or less involved in their children's lives in a global sense does little to advance the understanding of parental involvement, or how parents involvement affect children's well being and development. Instead, it is more meaningful to assess the specific ways

parents are involved with their children in terms of various co-occurring continua. The continua according to Palkovitz (2002, 1997) include, time invested, degree of involvement, observability, salience, directedness, proximity and appropriateness.

The most obvious continuum involves the amount of time parents invest in any particular form of parental involvement. Some parents for instance may spend little time playing with their children but their degree of involvement in this area may be quite high if they make important decisions about how their children's play time is structured. Other parents may spend a great deal of time doing certain things with or for their children but they may invest little of their heart and soul into these situations. They may simply be going through the motions of being involved (Palkovitz, 2002, 1997).

According to Palkovitz parents' thoughts about monitoring, planning, or worrying about their children's lives may not represent observable behaviours but may significantly influence how they interact with their children in different settings. Those parents who think at length about how they might help their children deal with personal problems or developmental issues are much more likely to be well prepared to be involved with their children in a positive manner than parents who respond to their children without such deliberation (Palkovitz, 2002, 1997).

Another continuum relates to the degree of saliency of the parental function. This continuum appears to be closely related to the degree of involvement continuum. In some instances tasks may be highly relevant to parents because they are aversive or pleased with them. Situations where parents are completely indifferent to some form of parental involvement represent one of the extreme poles of the saliency continuum.

Another continuum according to Palkovitz (2002, 1997) is the extent to which involvement is direct or indirect. Given the longstanding importance of the traditional male breadwinner role much of what fathers have done for their children can be viewed in this way. Resident fathers who work overtime to provide financially for their children are engaged in indirect forms of involvement. Likewise non-resident fathers who pay child support or monitor their children's lives through third parties are indirectly involved.

Specifically Palkovitz (1997) came up with fifteen general aspects of parental involvement and he described each of the aspects by identifying involvement activities for each. These are communication, teaching, monitoring, thought processes, errands, child related maintenance, shared interest, planning, shared activities, providing, affection, protection and supporting emotionally. According to Palkovitz (1997);

- Communication involves listening, talking, writing notes, calling on phone when away, expressing love, expressing concerns,

expressing forgiveness, expressing valuing, showing genuine interest in the child's friends, feelings, thoughts, and aspirations.

- Teaching incorporates advising, role modeling, problem solving, disciplining, commenting on the child's progress, teaching spiritual development, praying together, fostering independence, providing long term perspective, giving choices and respecting selections made, assisting in gaining new skills, scolding, giving chores, teaching about own and other cultures, answering questions and encouraging interests.
- Monitoring involves overseeing child's friendship, safety, whereabouts, health, grooming, schoolwork, checking on sleeping child, going to parent/teacher conferences, overseeing TV or movie watching and music listening, walking to and from places.
- Thought processes include worrying, planning, dreaming, hoping, evaluating, praying for and being there for the child.
- Errands incorporate picking up items for the child, making calls for, care giving, feeding, bathing, clothing, and reaching things for the child, caring for sick child, and tucking the child into bed.
- Child related maintenance include cleaning and repairing clothes and toys for the child, ironing, and cooking for the child.
- Shared interests involve providing the child instructions, reading together, being available for the child, attending events with the child spending time together, and allowing/encouraging the child to enter into leisure activities.

- Planning include making preparations for the child's birthdays, vacations, education, holidays and saving for future.
- Shared activities include exercising, shopping together, eating meals together, playing together, celebrating holidays, working together and dancing together.
- Providing incorporates financing, selecting and buying of books, clothes, food and medical care as well as education, safe transportation, needed documentation (birth certificates, social security, etc), developmentally appropriate toys or equipment, extra curricula activities and alternative care.
- Affection incorporates loving, hugging, kissing, cuddling, tickling, making eye contact, smiling, and genuine friendship with the child, showing patience, and praising the child.
- Protection includes arranging the environment for the child's safety, monitoring safety, providing bike helmets, and life jackets.
- Supporting emotionally include encouraging and developing interests in the child's activities.

The current study adopted Palkovitz's model of parental involvement because it highlights the different ways parents get involved with their children. The model was modified so that it would suit the participants of the study because the model focused on the general aspects of parents' involvement and for children of different ages from infancy to adolescence. The model was also used for parents and children from a

totally different geographical and cultural background from the ones in the present study. For that reason, the researcher selected the aspects of involvement that were directly linked to the child's education which is the main focus of the present study. These aspects include: communication, teaching, shared activities, providing and monitoring as described in the definition of terms section.

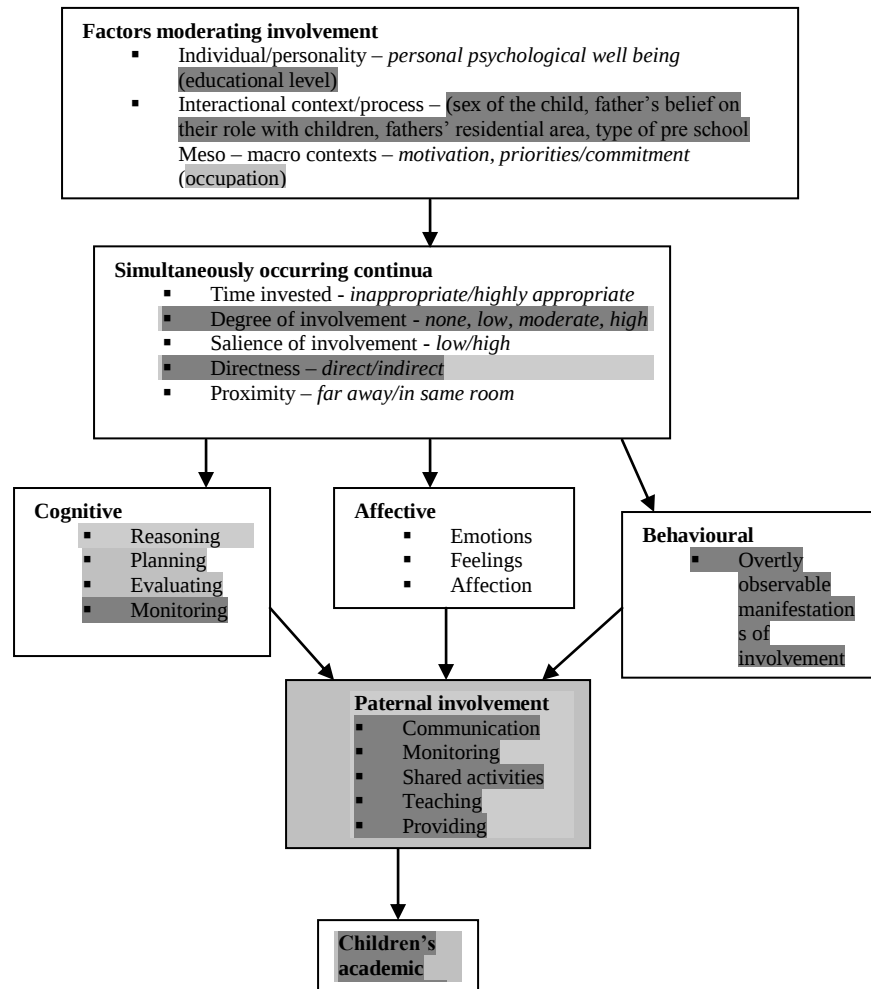
1.10 Conceptual Framework

There are three levels of variables involved in the child's performance at preschool according to Palkovitz's Model of Parental Involvement. These are the contextual factors that moderate parental involvement including; individual/personality that refers to the psychological well being of an individual. The interactional context/process, that refers to subjective experience/evaluation by the individual and the meso-macro context that refers to the motivation and priorities/commitment of the individual.

The contextual factors influence how involvement occurs in terms of time invested the degree of involvement, observability, salience, directness, and proximity. Involvement is manifested in three domains namely; cognitive that involves reasoning, planning, evaluating and monitoring. The affective domain includes emotions, feelings and affection. Finally the behavioural domain incorporates the overtly observable manifestations of involvement.

The contextual moderating factors influence the process variable, which is paternal involvement characterized by communication, teaching, monitoring, providing and shared activities. The process variable subsequently influences children's academic performance at preschool as shown in Figure 1.0.shaded.

Figure 1.0 Paternal Involvement and Children's School Performance
(Adapted from Palkovitz, 1997)



Key

The shaded represents what was studied while the ones not shaded represent what was not studied.

1.10 Operational Definition of Terms

Academic level:	The highest level of education the father attained eg. Primary, secondary, college or University degree.
Beliefs:	Whether fathers think that they have a role to play in their children's education based on communication, teaching, providing, monitoring and doing shared activities.
Child's performance:	The child's total score in the pre school activities according to their teachers' assessment. The activities include, Mathematic, Language, Science, Environmental, Art and craft and Music and movement.
Communication:	Entailed involvement activities like, listening to the child, talking to the child, calling the child on phone when away, praising the child when he/she performs well.
High involvement:	A father was considered highly involved if he scored a summed up score of between 66-78.
Low involvement:	A father was considered lowly involved if he scored between 27-45.
Moderate involvement:	A father was considered moderately involved if he scored 46-65.
Monitoring:	Entailed activities like, ensuring that the child does his/her schoolwork, attending parent teacher

	meetings, talking to the teacher about the child's progress, ensuring safety of the child while at home and finding out about the child's friends.
Occupation:	The nature of work fathers do to earn a living including; not working, small scale farmer, clerical, teaching, business and managing.
Paternal involvement:	Refers to the wide range of activities fathers engage in while interacting with their children, which is communicating with the child, doing shared activities, providing for the child, monitoring and teaching the child.
Preschool child:	Refers to a child aged 5-6 years and in a preschool class being Prepared to join class one
Providing:	Refers to the activities like, selecting and purchasing books, purchasing uniform for the child, paying child's fees and buying the child a present when he performs well in school.
Shared activities:	Incorporated activities like, doing school work together, going to church together, eating together, playing together and making play materials together.
Teaching:	Incorporated activities like, giving advice to the child, disciplining the child, commenting on the child's progress, answering the child's questions,

teaching spiritual development and teaching the
child how to read.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the review of literature and studies that have been carried out on paternal involvement and children's performance at school. In particular the chapter focuses on: paternal involvement, children's performance and the factors influencing paternal involvement including, fathers' academic level, their occupation, fathers' belief on their role with children, sex of the child, fathers' area of residence and the type of pre school the child attends.

2.1 Paternal Involvement

The phrases paternal involvement and father involvement will be used interchangeably to capture the wide range of things fathers do with or for their children. Fathers' involvement with their children includes a diverse array of potentially overlapping dimensions. Vast individual and sub cultural differences exist among persons, definitions and willingness or ability to invest in these dimensions (Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden & Bowman, 1999). Father involvement has been associated with the promotion of healthy child development. Important paternal behaviours have been identified to include the quality of time a father spends with a child, physical and emotional presence, father's warmth, his masculinity, father's expectation of the child, and father's attitude and behavioural sensitivity towards the child (Waime, 2007). These paternal behaviours are related to

the development of the following characteristics in the child, adaptive and problem solving abilities, cognitive abilities, social competencies and capacity for attachment, empathy, self control, moral sensitivity and higher sociability and compliance (Waime, 2007).

Gadsden and Bowman (1999) established that children's development of early literacy begins at birth and relies on a range of environmental stimuli. Fathers can ensure that their children are exposed to the best environmental stimuli by participating at home and in early childhood education settings which are often children's first significant experiences through which their children can develop cognitive abilities. They can tell stories, read and select books with their children and learn how to use appropriate visual and cognitive cues. Early childhood educators can introduce fathers to approaches that provide opportunities for children to scribble and write, learn new vocabulary, identify letters and important words such as their names and utilize relevant print within and outside the household. They can also encourage fathers to talk with their children which are a critical but often-underrated parent child activity (Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden & Ray, 2003, Gadsden & Bowman, 1999).

Palkovitz (1997) expanded conceptualization of parental involvement, which should be appealing to researchers and policy makers who become more sensitive to the ways parents affect their children's development and well being. In addition to his expanded interpretation of the ways parents

can be involved with their children and his interest in the specific domains in which involvement operates; Palkovitz (1997) explores how parental involvement can be understood by considering a series of simultaneously occurring continua described in the theoretical frame work.

A study using a nationally representative sample of children showed that children whose fathers showed little emotional involvement were more likely to have experienced poverty than children whose fathers were emotionally involved with their children (Harris, Furstenberg & Marmer, 1996). Whether the outcome variable is cognitive development, sex-role development, or psychosocial development, children are better off when their relationship with their father is close and warm (Lamb, 2004, 1986). Children with fathers at home tend to do better in school, are less prone to depression and are more successful in relationships. Children from one parent families achieve less and get into trouble more than children from two parent families (National Association of Elementary School Principals and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1980).

For wholesome psychological development, authorities agree that children need to engage in shared activities with both parents (Waime, 2007). Such shared activities are believed to enhance connectedness and bonding between children and their parents and are associated with the promotion of the psychological well being of the family as a whole. Bean and Roller (2005) posit that parent child shared activities are enabled if there is

communication, understanding, availability, respect, trust and love in the family. Fathers who engage in shared activities with their children enhance their social and emotional development. Engagement in such shared activities requires availability on the part of both the parents and the children (Bean & Roller, 2005). The shared activities could include spending time together engaging in activities like, playing games, engaging in educational activities, watching television, and eating together, reading books or helping with practical issues (Bean & Roller, 2005). The time parents share with their children has been shown to influence academic achievement and mental health (Waime, 2007).

2.2 Fathers' Involvement and Children's Performance at School

Radin (1981) noted that the more actively involved and interested a father is in his child's care and education, the more intellectually developed the child is. This is because when the father is involved he tends to provide better economic support for the child. Children with better economic support have access to more educational resources and have better opportunities to learn. Fathers spend a good deal of time with school age children helping them with studies. This level of commitment has an impact on children's academic success (Tamis-Le Monda & Cabrera, 2002a, 2002b).

Radin (1981) established that four and five year old boys scored higher in mathematics tests when fathers encouraged skills like counting and

reading. It was also revealed that the level of a father's involvement in his child's academic studies predicted success later in life. Biller (1993), Parke (2004) and Lamb (2004) established that the influence fathers have on their children's intellectual development is not limited specifically to helping with schoolwork. Fathers can have a positive influence on their children's thinking skills by participating in social activities and sports as well. A study by Biller (1993) found that children whose fathers encouraged them in sports and fitness activities were more successful in school and their careers later in life.

Barth and Parke (1992) established that when fathers are supportive to their children, the children have fewer problems at school such as excessive absence or poor exam results. Even when fathers provide only limited attention, warmth and affection and are not around all the time, their children benefit from their influence in terms of adjusting to new experiences, having stable emotions and knowing how to get along with others.

A longitudinal study of 584 children from intact families indicated that children whose fathers were highly involved with them attained higher levels of education and economic self sufficiency than children whose fathers were not highly involved (Harris, Furstenberg, & Marmer, 1996). Harris et al. (1996) also established that a high level of involvement and improved father child relations throughout adolescence were associated

with lower levels of delinquency and better psychological well being. A survey of over 20000 parents found that when fathers are involved in their children's education including attending school meetings and volunteering at school, children were more likely to get 'A's, enjoy school, and participate in extra curricula activities and less likely to have repeated a grade (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997).

A study using a national probability sample of 1250 fathers showed that children whose fathers shared meals, spent leisure time with them, or helped them with reading or home work did significantly better academically than those children whose fathers did not (Parke 2004, Cooksey & Fondell, 1996). Goldstein (1982) using a nationally representative sample of over 6300 teenagers found that for the white children in the sample, father involvement was associated with better quantitative and verbal skills, intellectual functioning and overall academic achievement.

Waime (2007) in her study with selected secondary schools in Nairobi established that more fathers than mothers help their children with homework. Swadener et al. (2000) in their study carried out in Narok, Samburu, Kericho, Kiambu, Embu, Machakos, Kisumu and Nairobi, established that some Kenyan fathers get involved in their children's education by serving in pre school committees, participating in putting up pre schools, providing building materials and labour. Ndani (2008)

conducted a study on community participation and preschool Microsystems in Thika district. These studies however never focused on the Kenyan fathers' direct involvement in their children's education and how these children perform at preschool.

Aswani (1989) established that parental involvement was positively related to children's educational aspirations. Children who indicated that their parents were involved in their academic and showed concern over their future careers aspired to university education than the group of children who indicated low parental involvement in their school welfare. The study however fails to indicate the extent of each parent's involvement in relation to children's academic performance. This study therefore sought to establish whether the Abagusii fathers' get involved in their children's education as research from the west tend to show.

2.3 Factors Influencing Paternal Involvement

Existing studies have identified a number of factors that are associated with parental involvement, many of which are also associated with how children do in school. Among these are a child's grade (or age), family structure, parental education and socioeconomic status, and maternal employment. Studies find that parental involvement in schools tends to decrease as children move from elementary to middle to high school (Epstein, 1990). The decrease may be due to parents believing that involvement is not as important as children grow older. It may also be due

to children and youth exerting their independence or discouraging the involvement of their parents, or to schools offering fewer opportunities for parents to become involved as children become older (Stevenson & Baker, 1987). Two-parent families tend to be more involved than single-parent families. The difference may be due partly to differences in socioeconomic status, but also because there is an extra parent available to become involved (Scott-Jones, 1984). More highly educated parents and parents with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to be involved in their children's schooling than less educated parents and parents with lower socioeconomic status (Zill & Nord, 1994; Stevenson & Baker, 1987). It is possible that less educated parents feel more intimidated by the school setting or that they have had bad experiences with school that make them reluctant to become involved.

In addition to the above demographic factors, parental involvement in children's education is higher if parents are confident that they can be of assistance to the child, if they believe that the child is capable of doing well in school, and if they have high educational aspirations for the child (Parke, 2004, Lamb, 2004, Eccles & Harold, 1996). School policies and teacher practices also have a strong influence on the level of parental involvement in children's education (Ndani, 2008, Eccles & Harold, 1996, Epstein, 1990). Parental involvement also varies by other characteristics of the schools; for example, it tends to be higher in smaller as opposed to

larger schools and in private as opposed to public schools (Ndani, 2008, Zill & Nord, 1994).

Using the factors described above, the current study examined the factors that were associated with fathers' involvement in their children's education and the influence of that involvement on pre school children's performance. The factors that were investigated in the study included; fathers' academic level, fathers' occupation, fathers' belief on their role in their children's education, sex of the child, fathers' area of residence and the type of preschool the child attended.

2.3.1 Fathers' Academic Level

Although mother's education historically has been used as the primary predictor of children's achievement, educational research is increasingly examining the effect of father child interaction on children's early learning, particularly among fathers with low incomes (Gadsden, 2007, Lamb, 2004, Gadsden, Brooks, & Jackson, 1997). In a study of 50 low income African American fathers participating in fatherhood programs, Gadsden et al. (1997) examined fathers' beliefs regarding the valuing, uses and problems of literacy learning for themselves and in relation to their children's early schooling. Fathers' accounts suggested that many fathers felt challenged by the expectations attached to parenting roles, a challenge that was exacerbated by their own limited formal literacy capacities and their desire to support their children's early literacy development.

In addition, fathers' beliefs about their children's educational success and future possibilities were ambivalent often contraindicated their practices and sometimes were at odds with their self-perceptions of facilitating children's literacy achievement. Studies suggest that a father's ability to support his child's learning affects the child's engagement with books and schooling. Fathers who have limited schooling as well as low reading and writing abilities have difficulty participating in school related activities requiring high levels of literacy. However, these fathers have high hopes for their children and depend on programmes to ensure that their children will become competent learners.

Research suggests that even when fathers have limited schooling, their involvement in children's schools and school lives is a powerful factor in children's academic achievement. Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997) analyzed data from the 1996 National Household Education Survey (NHES) to compare the involvement of nonresident and married fathers in school activities of kindergarten to 12th-grade students. Married and nonresident fathers' involvement in four types of school activities during the school year were examined—attending a general school meeting, attending a class or school event, attending a parent-teacher conference, and volunteering in school work. Involvement was defined as low if fathers did none or one of the four activities during the school year, moderate if they did two activities and high if they did three or four

activities. Fathers in two-parent families and nonresident fathers who were moderately or highly involved in their children's school had children who were significantly more likely than children with less involved fathers to receive mostly high marks, enjoy school, and never repeat a grade.

Research that examines the extent to which fathers are involved with their children's schools (Nord, Brimhall, & West, 1997) has generally shown that fathers are less involved than mothers in all types of school activities. In particular, Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997) found that fathers with less than a high school education were much less likely to be involved in their children's schools than fathers with higher levels of education. Although nonresident fathers were found to be substantially less involved with their children's school than fathers residing with their children, Nord et al. (1997) indicated that the involvement of nonresidential fathers was in no way trivial.

Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) examined whether the motivational resources (e.g., self-regulation, perceived competence, and control understanding) of 300 11 to 14 year-old children mediate between three types of paternal involvement (e.g., behavior with regard to school, the child's perception of the parent's affective and personal availability, and exposure of the child to intellectual and cognitive activities) and school performance (e.g., grades). They reported that for fathers with two of the involvement factors (behavior and intellectual/cultural activities) both

uniquely influenced perceived competence and indirectly influenced school performance. In another study of Head Start children, Fagan and Iglesias (1999) used a nonequivalent control group design to assess whether participation in a Head Start based father involvement intervention influenced child outcomes (e.g., early academic readiness in reading and mathematics, social skills, and problem behaviors). The intervention involved adapting traditional Head Start parent involvement activities (e.g., volunteering, weekly Fathers' Day programs, father sensitivity training with staff, monthly support groups for fathers, and father-child recreational activities). Three levels of father participation (e.g., low, adequate, and high) were measured. Fagan and Iglesias report a positive association between high-level participation in a father involvement project and change in children's mathematics readiness scores.

According to Fraser (1973) (cited in Ndani, 2008) parents who are intelligent and educated provide a child with a favourable environment and are likely to get involved in their children's school work. Highly educated parents expect to be involved in educational matters. Such parents are concerned that their children may be unprepared for the future (Heldebrand, 1981). These parents make more demands for their children yet they may be so busy in their business or professional lives that very little time is given to school matters. This suggests that although parents may be willing to participate, their actual level of involvement may be

low. The study however did not investigate fathers' participation/involvement with their children.

Aswani (1989) established that father's educational level influenced children's educational aspirations. Children whose fathers had attained high standards of education showed relatively higher educational aspirations than their colleagues whose fathers had not received any formal education or had just attained a maximum of primary education level. Seventy five percent of the children whose fathers had attained post secondary education aspired to attain University education while those whose fathers attained only primary or none, only 13% aspired to attain university education. The study did not indicate whether the results implied that when fathers are more educated they get more involved with their children's education. Koech (2009) established that there was a significant difference in the parent involvement scores among parents of different academic levels in parenting, learning at home, communications and decision making. The study however did not focus on fathers alone on their involvement in their children's education. The present study intended to establish whether fathers' academic level influence their involvement in their children's education.

The Ministry of Education introduced a gender policy in 2007 which has provisions for providing adult and continuing education offering opportunities to learners outside the formal system. The policy aims at

providing such learners with opportunities for education and training and acquisition of life skills. Adult and continuing education has added benefit because literate parents value the education of their children. The Ministry of Education gender policy in education (2007) stated that Kenya achieved a literacy level of 61.5%. But according to the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) 7.8 million adults were illiterate. Enrolment rates for women had remained above 70% of the total enrolment. In addition women constitute the majority (58%) of illiterate adult Kenyans. The major challenge in adult education is increasing enrolment of men and out of school youth. Further evidence shows that the adult education curriculum does not meet functional literacy needs of both men and women (Ministry of Education Gender Policy, 2007).

The objective of the gender policy in education was to increase participation of illiterate adults especially women and out of school youth in gender equitable basic literacy and continuing adult education programmes. To achieve this objective the ministry would strengthen structures, institutions and departments such as universities and the adult education department in the Ministry of Gender, Culture and Social Services to enable them discharge their functions effectively. To implement the policy the Ministry would employ various strategies including increasing male learners and youth participation in adult and continuing education (Ministry of Education Gender Policy, 2007). Although the Gender Policy in Education is well meaning for both men

and women, it is more advocating for women literacy and youth than for men. This is also evidenced above where the adult curriculum is not catering for men's literacy needs. Therefore it was found necessary to find out the education levels of fathers who participated in this study and whether it had any effect in their involvement in their children's education.

2.3.2 Fathers' Occupation

Several studies have examined the effects of employment on fathers' engagement with children (Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden & Hall, 1995, Gerson, 1993 and Marsiglio, 1995). Some data suggest that both employed and unemployed men think of childrearing as women's work. Some have found that unemployed men spend more time with their children while others have found that joblessness did not increase fathers' involvement in childcare, implying that care giving is not simply a function of time available to the father but the quality of the activities (Marsiglio & Day 2007, Marsiglio, 1995, Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden et.al., 1995, Jones, 1985,). Not only being employed but also the nature and quality of a man's employment affect the type and level of interaction a man has with his children. Fathers who work in work sites where they have little or no autonomy or who work long hours are more irritable and more likely to be authoritarian and conflictive in their relationships with their children (BvLF, 2004). Various other researchers in the US and Australia are finding that being employed fewer hours or having a less demanding job

allows some men probably more middle class men to be more available for their children (BvLF, 2004).

A number of other studies have shown that men at least begin to increase their family work when their wives are employed, while the extent to which fathers participate in childcare is generally thought to reflect how much they participate in general household responsibilities (Coverman, 1985). Some research suggests that men avoid housework while increasing their participation in childcare (Coverman, 1985, Gadsden, 2007, Gadsden et.al., 1995 and Marsiglio, 1991).

According to LeVine et al. (1996) traditionally the Abagusii lives were organised around three priorities: food production, military defense and child bearing. Food production was achieved through the shifting cultivation of indigenous millets and the raising of cattle for milk, while goats and sheep were reared for meat. Local defense was necessary in the absence of a central authority to protect them against cattle raids and other military actions requiring all able bodied men to be prepared for a spear fight and the young warriors to act as a militia. Bearing of children was necessary to maintain both food production and defense.

Traditionally in Gusii, men were responsible for defense, governance and animal husbandry while women were responsible for food processing and the rearing of children. Children were born into and grew up in a physical

environment rich in the norms models that would guide them throughout the life course (LeVine et al., 1996). Silberschemidt (1999) established that the Abagusii fathers who were traditionally breadwinners through hunting, animal rearing and farming, some are employed in white color jobs others worked as casual labourers on tea plantations while the majority were found in rural doing small scale farming due to overpopulation and land scarcity. The present study sought to establish whether the nature of work the Abagusii fathers do has an effect on their involvement with their children as research above tend to suggest.

2.3.3 Fathers' Belief on Their Role with Their Children

For many years, the father's role in parenting has been ignored in child rearing research. However, this trend is changing and men's lives in general and fathering in particular have started to receive increased attention from scholars (Waime, 2007). Men's family roles have resisted change in most settings. Fatherhood remains narrowly defined as providing, protecting and sometimes disciplining. Nurturing is simply not defined as manly. Many men who take on domestic chores or care giving still feel they are doing women's work or helping out the wife of necessity and gain little positive self identity or purpose in exercising these skills (BvLF, 2004).

In Western Europe, North America, some parts of Latin America and the Caribbean, qualitative descriptions of men expressing and experiencing

confusion over their roles and identities as men and fathers were accumulating (BvLF, 2004). As women take on new roles outside the home in ways that generally expand their skills and sense of self, most men have been much slower to take on new roles within the household, and many speak and behave defensively about women moving into or taking over traditional male spheres. When men take on household roles, these roles are not generally socially valued for or by men perhaps with the exception of involved fathers in some parts of Western Europe (BvLF, 2004).

BvLF (2004) states that quantitative and qualitative reports indicate that some men are devoting more time to domestic tasks and child care, either by choice or as a response to new demands on women's time. There are also men who as a result of divorce or separation are fighting for custody or more equitable time-sharing with their children (BvLF, 2004). To a lesser extent some men in various parts of the world are also beginning to question traditional trends that pull them away from their families. They are reflecting on their roles as fathers and the meaning their children hold for them. These men remain minorities in most if not all societies but these emerging social trends are nonetheless significant (BvLF, 2004). Daily, more and more men are being faced with pressures that call for these reflections even if they are not yet ready to embrace the challenges.

According to the Population Council (2001) the proportion of the time fathers spend in the direct care of their children is significantly increasing in many regions for a variety of reasons. Although there are tremendous variations across regions and among men in any given region, studies from diverse settings found that on average fathers contribute about one third to one fourth as much time to direct child care than do women (Population Council, 2001). Men's involvement in domestic and child care responsibilities appears to increase in relation to changes and temporary challenges within the house hold.

Research in the US with two parent house holds found that a father's participation in care giving is more likely to increase in relation to the number of hours the mother works outside the home and to the number of children in the family (NCOFF, 2002). Authors in Latin America and the Caribbean also report that men are even if reluctantly responding to new domestic demands. While these changes should not necessarily be construed as deliberate or the spontaneous desire of men for an equitable share of domestic burdens, they do offer insights into factors and trends that encourage new behaviour (NCOFF, 2002).

The role of fathers in children's lives varies over time and across cultures (Lamb, 2004, Lamb, 1997). During the colonial period, fathers were the primary parent and had ultimate say in matters of the child; in the rare case of divorce, the law awarded custody to the father (Demos, 1986). As the

primary parent, fathers had multiple roles: provider, moral overseer, disciplinarian, companion, and teacher, to name a few. Although mothers were responsible for the day-to-day care of children, especially young children, they were assumed to be too emotional and too indulgent to properly raise children (Demos, 1986). The advent of urbanization and industrialization in the 19th century redefined the roles of mothers and fathers. The role of fathers became predominantly that of "provider," while the role of mothers expanded in some respects and narrowed in others. Mothers became the parent with a primary responsibility for children, including their moral development, and for ensuring the smooth operation of the household (Demos, 1986). As "homemaker" she became increasingly isolated from life outside the family. The contributions that she had previously made to the economic well-being of the family through such activities as assisting in the raising of crops, weaving, and the production of household goods decreased (Scott & Tilly, 1975). This pattern survived through much of this century and was particularly evident during the 1950s (Cherlin, 1992).

In recent decades, shifts in society are transforming the roles of fathers and mothers. Important forces in altering the roles have been the increasing labor force participation of mothers, including mothers with young children, and the high levels of divorce and non marital childbearing (Demos, 1986). The entry of a large number of mothers into the labor force has contributed to a marked decline in the strict gender division of

labor within a family to an arrangement where the roles of mothers and fathers overlap to a great extent (Furstenberg, 1988). The term "co-parents" is often used to describe the situation where mothers and fathers share equally the responsibilities of maintaining a family. In reality, however, most families do not divide all household and child rearing tasks equally between mothers and fathers, but rather work out their own acceptable divisions of labor within the family (Pleck & Pleck, 1997). More often than not, this division of labor falls along traditional lines with mothers assuming more responsibility for raising the children and fathers taking primary responsibility for providing for the economic well-being of the family (Lamb, 1997, Parke, 2004, 1995, Becker, 1981). This division of labor may be due in large part to the fact that men continue to earn more than women in the labor force. It may also be due in part, to societal pressures to conform to expected roles. Society in many ways dictates the roles that mothers play and has clear expectations about the appropriate behavior of mothers. Societal expectations of how fathers are supposed to behave, beyond being a good provider, are not as clear (Parke, 2004, 1995) and thus the pressure to behave in specific ways is not as strong.

In looking at cross-cultural studies in terms of the fathers role in the lives of children it can be concluded that the more cooperation and communication required of men and women in their daily activities the more they are likely to be jointly involved in child care. The more separate men's and women's roles and tasks are, the more prescribed men's roles

are in relation to children and generally the more limited men's roles are in terms of care giving (Bruce, 1994). There are many variables that determine the kind of roles that fathers have in relation to children. The description of power and authority is important in terms of a father's relationship with his family. In many cultures men are the decision-makers in terms of what happens both within the family and as the family interacts with the world (Bruce, 1994).

Engle (1994) states that historically power comes from the fact that men have been the major providers for the family. In many cases this authority has been given to them as a result of the dominant religious beliefs and if men have difficulties fulfilling the bread-winning role and women increase their capacity to support the family financially, men's authority role is undermined. This sometimes leaves them at a loss in terms of how they should relate to family members.

According to Bruce (1994) the structure of a family who is present how the household is organized and expectations of males and females in that setup contribute to a definition of how men relate to children. Traditional families with an extended family system in which there are grandmothers, aunts, and other wives available to help care for children, the father's role was limited and prescribed. However, as families become more nuclear in composition, care-giving roles traditionally taken on by others may fall on

the father. Zeith (1993) reported on what happened to some families in Nigeria as they moved from the traditional extended family culture to the modern nuclear family configuration. In essence the move to urban living and the nuclear family meant that fathers had to change their roles. Some became more involved in the lives of their children while others withdrew. If there had been more support for fathers in the transition, perhaps more of them would have been comfortable in increasing their involvement with their children.

Many of the African cultures can be seen as in a time of transition, a shift from a society that relied primarily on traditional wisdom to one which begins to adopt alternative beliefs and practices. This transition is as a result of changes that impact family life including changes in the traditional functions of the family, changes in the family structure as well as changes in the nature of women's work, men's roles and the migration patterns (Evans, 1994 cited in Koech, 2007). Koech (2007) states that, these structural changes in the family are resulting in increased number of young children who have limited or no contact with their fathers and grandparents. Fathers and grandparents are increasingly marginalized from active day-to-day family participation. Consequently the values of the mother rather than the father are being transmitted to the children and young boys have few significant role models to imitate and the children are having fewer opportunities for the rich stimulation of fathers. Since the Kenyan family structure is also changing from extended to nuclear

families, this study sought to establish what fathers' belief to be their role in their children's education.

2.3.4 Sex of the Child

Child characteristics such as sex may influence fathers' involvement with their children (Doherty, 1998). In their study Power and Parke (1982) discovered that fathers displayed differential treatment of boys and girls. They also observed that fathers of boys were more directive and provided more physical stimulation. Fathers may perceive boys as being less fragile than girls and thus more able to participate in physically active play. It may also be that boys are more interested in and respond more positively to physical activities.

Although systematic research has not been conducted in the west, it is clear that in educational policies there is no concern to actively engage fathers in their children's education. The policies, structure and training of staff tend more to operate as barriers to fathers having an active involvement. Yet the active engagement of fathers with their children's education has the potential to improve educational outcomes for both daughters and sons (BvLF, 2004). In the case of daughters, this could lead to great value being placed on their education leading to improved educational outcomes for women. The concept of fathers as home educators of both boys and girls is emphasized in some contexts with encouragement to fathers to read to their children specifically at bedtime.

Buchanan and Flouri (2001) found that English children (both boys and girls) whose fathers read regularly to them had better academic outcomes and the experience also seemed to foster emotional security aid relaxation and act as a vital means of transmitting shared values from one generation to the next. The resources also found that the higher a father's level of education, the more likely he was to be closely involved with his children (Buchanan & Flouri, 2001).

In their research, Landerholm and Scriven (1981) discovered that at 9 months, fathers of boys were more vocal but at 15 months fathers of boys and girls had similar rates of vocalizations. Fathers' differential treatment by gender is greater in play than in care giving activities (Levy-shiff, 1990). When both boys and girls are reared with engaged fathers they demonstrate a greater ability to take initiatives and evidence self control (Pruett 1987).

Gakuru and Koech (1995) in their study established that the values parents held for their children had a gender bias. The expected contributions of female children were valued lower by parents in Machakos than those of male children. The relative costs of sending a girl to secondary school were considered greater than for sending a boy. The study did not indicate whether the values parents held for their children influenced how they got involved with them while they were young. Waime (2007) established that

more fathers tend to engage in discussions with their adolescent sons than with their adolescent daughters. The study focused on adolescent children but did not focus on young children and the involvement of their fathers in their education.

According to Adams and Trost (2005), the presupposition in the postcolonial Kenya has been that boys will receive more formal education than girls. They stated that a minority of Kenyan mothers prefer to educate their daughters so that they will not forget their families. This is because daughters will assist younger siblings and old parents while educated sons become urban and forget their family. But the majority still favours education for males. This study does not reveal whether fathers prefer educating their sons or daughters like mothers do or whether they get involved at all.

The 1994 Kenya Demographic Health Survey (KDHS) reported that there was little difference by gender in the percentage of 6-15 years old in school, but for the 16-20 year olds, the percentages were 52.2 for boys and 35.6 for girls (KDHS 1994). Although the survey indicates that there was little difference in percentage for the 6-15 year olds in school, it fails to indicate whether this difference was as a result of parental involvement in sending their children to school without bias or not.

Aswani (1989) established that fathers' level of education was significantly related to both male and female pupil's educational aspirations, although fathers' level of education seemed to be more related to female pupils' educational aspirations than to male pupils' educational aspirations. The study fails to explain whether this differential in educational aspirations between male and female pupils was as a result of fathers getting more involved with their girls than boys. The present study sought to establish the pattern of the Abagusii fathers' involvement in their pre-school children's education. Do they have gender bias when it comes to their involvement with their children?

2.3.5 Fathers' Residential Area

A study that aimed at depicting a picture of Greek fathers concerning their involvement in family and child centered tasks over the first year of a child's life was conducted in Greece. Results revealed that participation of Greek fathers in family and childcare activities before the birth of the child and during the first year of life were associated with community type that is rural or urban (Katerina, 2001). Evidence that fathers from rural areas with low academic achievements and occupational status were less likely to contribute to childcare practices than fathers living in urban areas with high educational and occupational status (Katerina, 2001).

Fathers from urban areas who were committed to family activities reported that the tasks they were involved in were mainly the woman's

responsibility. The majority of them noted that they had to assist in childcare when their wives were out at work or ill and emphasized that they were doing things, which were not their own responsibility. Fathers from urban regions spend more time on preparation for the homecoming of the child and mother than men living in rural areas (Katerina, 2001).

According to Katerina (2001), community difference in fathering roles does not necessarily suggest that the involvement of urban fathers in the family is satisfactory or equal to that of mothers. The result indicates that more men in cities are engaged in play and daily child care tasks. The study focused on fathers and children under one year but did not focus on fathers and preschoolers.

Ndani (2008) established that there was a significant difference in the level of participation at preschool between rural and urban communities. In relation to the association between the level of participation and rural locations, rural communities were found to participate more than the urban ones. Parents in urban seemed to pay high fees and leave most of the areas of participation particularly volunteering and decision making to management. This study however did not consider fathers' participation in preschool although they formed part of the rural and urban communities. The current study endeavored to establish whether there was any significant difference in fathers' involvement in their children's education between rural and urban fathers.

Teklemariam (1996) suggested that schools in rural or urban settings might be a determining factor to the type of relations existing between the school and the community members. Lelmann (1973) observed a difference in rural and urban women's willingness to spend time with their children and provide them with an adequate language environment. Rural women were found to be more willing to do so. The study did not investigate fathers' participation in relation to rural and urban setting.

2.3.6 Type of School Child Attended

Research has established that, parents have an option of becoming more involved if public schools under perform. They can spend more time helping their children in the home, they can also provide the school with more resources, or they can complain directly in a bid to improve quality what Hirschman (1970) termed as voice. This voice channel applying pressure on school providers provides an alternative to existing private schools. Once parental pressure and competition are allowed to influence school conduct, the productivity impact of greater competition depends on whether parental pressure is reinforced or undermined by greater competition.

Parental involvement in children's education is higher if parents are confident that they can be of assistance to the child, if they believe that the child is capable of doing well in school, and if they have high educational

aspirations for the child (Eccles and Harold, 1996). School policies and teacher practices also have a strong influence on the level of parental involvement in children's education (Ndani, 2008, Epstein, 1990). Parental involvement also varies by other characteristics of the schools; for example, it tends to be higher in smaller as opposed to larger schools and in private as opposed to public schools

Existing research has found that school factors exert a strong influence on parental involvement in their children's education (Ndani, 2008, Eccles & Harold, 1996, Epstein & Dauber, 1991). Important school factors include whether the school is a public or private, the size of the school, the school environment or climate, school policies and practices, and teacher attitudes and practices (Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Coleman & Hoffer, 1987).

Ndani (2008) established that there was a significant difference in the level of participation in the preschool activities among the communities in the various preschool sponsorships. She noted that highest participation of parents was in private schools where respondents with higher academic qualifications took their children. In private schools the most common mode of participation was communication, as most private schools required that parents make comments and sign in their children's home work books daily. One to one conferences between the teacher and parents suggesting places for field trips, accompanying children in trips and end of term discussions on children's performance comprised the other activities

in private schools. Public schools in addition to attending meetings parents were sometimes involved in deciding on matters related to provision of learning materials, fees to be paid, construction of facilities and their maintenance (Ndani, 2008). Koech (2009) established that there was no significant difference in means of parental involvement in public and private schools.

Fathers and mothers in both two-parent and in single-parent families are more likely to be highly involved if their children attend private as opposed to public schools. Private schools often make parental involvement a requirement, and thus, part of the higher involvement may be due to school policies. Coleman and others have argued that private schools, particularly private religiously affiliated schools, have greater amounts of social capital due to the greater sense of community present in these schools (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987). Parents may be more willing to become involved when they know and are friendly with other parents in the school. One reason for expecting that school size may be an important influence on parental involvement is that it may be easier to establish ties with administrators, teachers, and other parents when schools are not very large. If that is the case, parents may feel more comfortable and more welcomed by smaller schools. High involvement by fathers and mothers in two-parent families is greater in smaller as opposed to larger schools.

2.4 Summary

This chapter has discussed the literature reviewed for the present study which has revealed that paternal involvement facilitates children's performance at school. Thus, children who have involved fathers tend to perform better at school and score higher on intelligence tests which is an implication of the brain development. Literature reveals that when fathers are involved they tend to provide better economic support to their children. It was also noted that various factors influence paternal involvement, which include; fathers' academic level, their occupation, their belief on their role in children, sex of the child and fathers' geographical region. This study therefore sought to establish whether paternal involvement facilitates children's performance at preschool among the Abagusii fathers and children as research tend to suggest.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study employed the ex post facto research design since the researcher could not directly manipulate the independent variables of the study because their manifestations had already happened. The design was also chosen because the study sought to establish the existence of relationships among variables under investigation. Best and Kahn (1992) stated that ex post facto research design is used to analyze past events or already existing conditions to study causation when it is impracticable or unethical to arrange occurrences. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) stated that ex post facto design is useful when trying to describe patterns of relationships between variables that cannot be manipulated. Since fathers would not be manipulated to get involved in their children's education at preschool level, the design was found to be convenient for this study.

3.2 Variables of the Study

The independent variables of this study included:

1. Father's involvement in their children's education at preschool: A score of the composite frequency of involvement activities adopted from Palkovitz (1997) on communication, teaching, monitoring, shared activities and providing was computed.

2. Fathers' belief on their role in their preschool children's education:
A composite score of fathers' belief on their role in their children's education was computed based on communication, providing, monitoring, shared activities and teaching.
3. Fathers' occupation: Categorical data depicting the nature of work fathers do: not working, small scale farming, teaching, clerical, businessman and managerial.
4. Fathers' academic level: Categorical data depicting the highest academic level fathers attained including; primary, secondary, college and degree.
5. Sex of the child: Categorical data depicting sex of the child as male or female.
6. Area of residence for the sampled fathers: Categorical data depicting where fathers live, whether rural or urban.
7. Type of preschool the sampled children attend: Categorical data depicting type of preschool as public or private.

The dependent variable of the study was children's performance at preschool: The child's performance was measured by the total score in the six preschool activities according to the teachers' assessment using the end term test for second term 2008.

3.3 Location of the Study

This research was carried out in Gucha District of Nyanza Province Kenya. Gucha is one of the twelve Districts of Nyanza Province, which

shares common borders with Kisii Central District to the north, Migori District to the west and Trans-mara District to the south. Gucha District consists of seven Divisions, thirty locations and seventy-eight sublocations. Almost exclusively, the Bantu speaking Abagusii people populate Gucha District. The District covers an area of 660.8 square kilometers.

According to the Gucha District Development Plan (2002-2008) the district is hilly with most areas above 1,800m above sea level. The district has a highland equatorial climate. It receives an average of 1,500mm of rainfall annually with the long rains between March and June, while the short rains are received from September to November. There are no natural forests and vegetation since they have been cleared to pave way for cultivation. Most parts of the district have red volcanic soils which are deep and rich in organic matter. The rest of the district has clay soils which are poorly drained especially in swamps and valleys. The high lands are good for agricultural activities which include both food and cash crops and dairy farming. Coffee and tea farming is intensively practiced in the lowlands. Sugar cane farming is common in the lowlands, while the clay soils in these areas are suitable for brick making. Ogembo, Kenyeny, Nyamache, Nyacheki and Sameta are tea and coffee zones. Etago is maize and sugar cane zone while Nyamarambe is a soap stone zone. Dairy cattle and food crops especially maize does well in all divisions.

The district was projected to have had a population of 491,704 people by the year 2002. Kenyena division had the highest population with 101,564 people. This represented 20% of the total population. The population density for the district was 759 persons per kilometer square. It was estimated that 57% of the district's population were classified as absolutely poor based on poverty line of Ksh. 1,239 per adult equivalent. Majority of these are women and the youth. The poor include the landless, peasant farmers, female headed households especially widows, child headed households, casual workers physically disabled, people living with HIV/AIDS and orphans (GDDP, 2002-2008).

Most households in the district depend on agriculture as the main source of livelihood. However agriculture faces a number of constraints which, unless removed will continue to work against poverty reduction efforts. Some of these include the high incidences of HIV/AIDS which has led to the loss of life and depletion and diversion of badly needed family incomes, un-economical subdivision of land due to the high population pressure, low agricultural productivity, unaffordable input prices that discourage farmers from investing in agriculture and unstable cash crop prices. This situation is further exacerbated by landlessness among women and youth, and mismanagement and near collapse of cooperative societies especially coffee and pyrethrum and poor agricultural produce marketing.

The low level of human resource development is one of the causes of poverty in the district. For most people, the cost of education is too high therefore the level of literacy is quite low. This coupled with the fact that further education and training are hampered by the limited number of institutions and low quality of education acquired from them, means that the population particularly the labour force is not well equipped to compete effectively in the local job market and therefore the ability to secure remunerative jobs or other income generating opportunities (GDDP, 2002-2008).

In education Gucha District has both public and private schools. The boy child is given preference to the girl child especially in payment of school fees particularly if the parent/guardian is unable to afford fees for both sexes. At home the girl child tends to do most of the household chores and has less time for homework. Women are also disproportionately represented in school management committees. When a girl drops out of school due to pregnancy, the boy who is responsible for the pregnancy is allowed to continue (GDDP, 2002-2008). It is against this background information that Gucha was selected for this study.

Given the fact that in Gucha men are the land owners and they control 80% of the household income and participate more in decision making in economical and political levels, it was found necessary to find out if they get involved in their children's education directly.

3.4 Target Population

Gucha District has a population of 484 public and private preschools attached to primary schools with a population of approximately 19360 preschool children. It has a population of 84076 households headed by males (GDDP, 2002-2008).

The study targeted preschool children aged 5-6 years from two divisions of Gucha District Ogembo and Kenyenyia to represent the various geographical set ups of the district. Ogembo Division covers the town head quarters of Gucha while Kenyenyia represent the rural set up. The 5-6 year olds were selected for the study because they were being prepared to join class one and therefore were able to read and write. Fathers to these children also formed the population of the study.

3.5 Sampling Technique

Gucha District was purposively selected from the five districts populated by the Abagusii people of Nyanza Province with whom the researcher was familiar with their culture and language. Two divisions were purposively selected, Ogembo division to represent the urban set up and Kenyenyia division to represent the rural set up.

Kombo & Tromp (2006) states that in purposive sampling method the researcher purposively target a group of people believed to be reliable for

the study. The researcher never knows if the sample is representative of the population. The power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for in-depth analysis related to the central issues being studied. Therefore Gucha District was selected due to its poor performance in the KCPE exams, gender bias against women in decision making in economic and political issues where women till and plough the land but men spend 80% of the household income (GDDP, 2002-2008).

Kenyena Division was purposively selected to represent the rural set up because it is the largest division with the largest population of 101,564 constituting 20% of the total population in the entire district. Unlike the other six divisions it does not have a town council. Ogembo Division was purposively selected because it houses the district headquarters of Gucha and the division also has a town council.

Preschools were selected through stratified random sampling using the two divisions of Gucha District as the strata with public and private preschools from rural and urban areas. Creswell (2005) state that in stratified sampling, researchers divide (stratify) the population on some specific characteristics and then using simple random sampling, sample from each sub group of the population. This guarantees that the sample will include specific characteristics that the researcher wants included in the sample. Creswell further explains that stratification ensures that the stratum desired

will be represented in the sample in proportion to that existence in the population (Creswell, 2005).

Type of preschool public or private and area of residence rural or urban were considered to be a good stratum from which children and fathers could be selected to represent the population of fathers and preschool children in Gucha District. Lindgren (1981) observes that in taking a random sample, there is a good chance of producing a sample that represented the population in every characteristic. Dowdy (1983) noted that a random sample will be the best to represent the entire population when it is not feasible in terms of time and cost to study the entire population.

Table 3.1. shows the sampling frame of the preschools for the two divisions of Gucha District according to their category.

Table 3.1 Sampling Frame of Preschools

Division	Public	Selected	Private	Selected	Total	Total number selected
Ogembo (urban)	49	4	33	4	82	8
Kenyenya (rural)	59	4	21	4	80	8
Total	108	8	54	8	162	16

Table 3.1. indicates that Ogembo Division had 49 public and 33 private preschools while Kenyenya had 59 public and 21 private preschools. Out of a total of 162 preschools in the two divisions, 16 preschools were

selected for this study where 4 preschools were selected from each category named above.

Stratified random sampling was done to select preschool children with high and low performance in their preschool activities according to their teachers' assessment to form the strata. According to the teachers' assessment children who scored 299 marks and below were considered low performers while children who scored 300 marks and above were considered high performers. Purposive sampling was done to select the sample of children from the strata picking the top five and the bottom five as shown in Table 3.2 below.

Ten children from each of the selected schools were sampled based on their performance level in their preschool activities. The ten children consisted of the top five and the bottom five. Table 3.2 presents a sampling frame for children and fathers who participated in the study

Table 3.2 Sampling Frame for Children and Fathers

Division	Name of school	Category	No: of children in pre unit	No; of fathers	No: children selected	Selected fathers
Ogembo	Golden Academy	Private	25	25	10	10
	St.Clement Memorial Academy	Private	25	25	10	10
	Charkens Academy	Private	30	30	10	10
	Omobera S.D.A Primary	Private	36	36	10	10
	Machongo DOK Primary	Public	40	40	10	10
	Kebere Primary	Public	35	35	10	10
	Tendere primary	Public	40	40	10	10
	Kerongorori primary	Public	39	39	10	10
Kenyenya	Mt.Sinai Academy	Private	25	25	10	10
	Kenyenya Junior Academy	Private	28	28	10	10
	St.Elizabeth Academy	Private	30	30	10	10
	Elite Ademy	Private	28	28	10	10
	Kenyenya Primary	Public	40	40	10	10
	Bombaba D.O.K Primary	Public	40	40	10	10
	Riribe DEB Primary	Public	37	37	10	10
	Samba Ac	Public	38	38	10	10
Total			536	536	160	160

Table 3.2 indicate that Ogembo and Kenyenya Divisions had 536 preschool children in the selected schools and 160 children were sampled for the study. Fathers of the selected children were given the questionnaire to fill.

3.5.1 Sample Size

A sample size of 16 preschools was selected through stratified random sampling from the two divisions of Gucha District, eight represented the private preschools in both urban and rural set ups and eight represented the public preschools in both urban and rural set ups as shown in Table 3.1. The private and public preschools were selected to represent the different categories of preschools in Gucha District.

A sample size of 160 preschool children aged 5-6 years were selected from the 16 preschools that is 10 children from each preschool top 5 and bottom 5. Fathers of the selected children also formed a sample for the study that was given a questionnaire to fill on their involvement with their children. Fathers, who did not turn up to fill the questionnaire on the day they were invited to school, were contacted on phone to find out when they could be available or if it was possible to be visited at home. Some gave the alternative day and time when they could come but others were not willing to participate at all. Because of that their children were dropped from the sample so that only children whose fathers were available to fill the questionnaire at their convenience formed the sample of the study. In that regard 28 children were dropped since their fathers were not willing to participate in the study. The fathers who were dropped were from the two divisions and from the different preschools. Therefore the researcher ended up having a sample size of 132 children and 132 fathers participating in the study.

3.6 Construction of Research Instruments

The study utilized a questionnaire to gather personal information of fathers, their involvement level with their children, their occupation, their academic level, their believe on their role in children's education, their area of residence, type of preschool the child attended and sex of the child. Teachers' assessments were used to assess children's performance at preschool activities. These were: Mathematics, Language, Art and craft, Environmental, Science, Music and movement. This was because it was realized that there could be no uniform performance test that could apply to children in public/private and those in rural/urban preschools.

The researcher constructed the questionnaire for fathers using Palkovitz's model of parental involvement, but modified it to suit the subjects of this study. The researcher also collaborated with preschool teachers from both public and private preschools situated both in urban and rural areas to establish the best way children's performance could be assessed using the preschool syllabus. The teachers agreed that coming up with a uniform test for children in the above named categories was impossible but instead each preschool teacher to assess children's performance using the end term exam for second term on the six preschool activities mentioned earlier.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

An adapted questionnaire from Palkovitz (1997) used to measure parental involvement was modified and used to collect information from fathers on their involvement in their children's education in terms of communication, teaching, monitoring, providing and doing shared activities. The questionnaire had three sections designed to acquire information on the different variables of the study. Section A of the questionnaire gathered demographic information about fathers' academic level, occupation, area of residence, type of preschool the child attended and sex of the child. Section B of the questionnaire had 26 self report items which gathered information on fathers' involvement in their children's education. Section C had 26 self report items that gathered information on fathers' belief on their role in their preschool children's education. Because some fathers were not literate in English the questionnaire was in two versions one written in English and the other translated in Ekegusii.

Furstenburg (1995) stated that the people most commonly used to collect information for investigating parental involvement are the parents themselves. In this regard, the present study gathered information about paternal involvement from fathers who filled the questionnaire about their involvement in their children's education.

3.6.1.1 Scoring of the questionnaire

Demographic information was coded as follows: academic level included categories such as, 1 (Primary), 2 (secondary), 3 (college) and 4 (university degree). Fathers' occupation incorporated categories such as, 1 (not working), 2 (small-scale farming), 3 (teaching), 4 (clerical), 5 (businessman) and 6 (managerial). Sex of the child was categorized as 1 (male) and 2 (female). Area of residence was categorized as 1 (rural) and 2 (urban). Type of preschool the child attended was categorized as 1 (public) and 2 (private).

The Likert three-point scale was used to measure information on fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education with responses ranging from 1 (not at all) to 3 (always). The same scale was employed to measure information on fathers' belief on their role in their pre school children's education with responses ranging from 1 (disagree) to 3 (strongly agree). According to Creswell (2005), interval scales provide continuous response options to questions with assumed equal distances between options. These scales may have three, four or more response options. The Likert scale, strongly agree to strongly disagree illustrates a scale with theoretically equal interval among responses (Creswell, 2005). The researcher selected the likert three point scale to collect data for this study.

Summed scores of each father were calculated to indicate the level of involvement in his pre school child's education. If a father scored a cumulative score of 26 in the 26 items it meant that he was not involved at all in his child's education. If he scored a cumulative score of 27–45 he was lowly involved in his child's education. If he scored a cumulative score of 46-65 he was moderately involved. If he scored 66-78 then it meant that he was highly involved in his child's education. The same scale was used for fathers' belief on their role in their children's education.

Creswell (2005) state that, responses to all questions in the Likert Scale may be summed up because individual items may not completely capture a participant's perspective. Summed scores are the scores of an individual added over several questions that measure the same variable (Creswell, 2005).

3.6.2 Achievement Test

Teachers' assessment on preschool children's performance was used to determine high and low performing children. The assessment measured what children had learned in pre unit and their level of performance in the six activity areas namely Mathematics, Language, Science, Art and Craft, Environmental and Music and Movement. According to Creswell (2005) the achievement test is a test where the individual's grade is a measure of how well he/she did in comparison with a large group of test takers. According to the teacher's assessment, the total minimum mark scored

was 70 and the maximum mark scored was 595 for the 132 children selected for this study. The mean score was 384.09 marks. Based on this, children who scored 384 marks and below were considered low performers while those who scored 385 marks and above were considered high performers. Overall there were 62 (47%) low performing and 70 (53%) high performing children in the study.

The tests that were used for children's assessment were constructed by the teachers of specific schools reflecting on what the children had covered in their preschools at the end of second term using the preschool syllabus for pre unit. To ensure that the tests were comparable, the researcher explained the teachers that they were to construct the test based on what they had covered up second term in all the six activity areas.

3.6.2.1 Scoring of the Achievement Test

Once the end term exam for second term 2008 was done, the teachers marked and ranked the scores from the highest to the lowest performing children. Each preschool activity was marked out of 100 marks, which gave a total mark of 600 for the six pre school activities. The scores were used to select the children for the study who were ranked as either high or low performing depending on the total marks they scored in the six pre school activities tested.

3.7 Pilot Study

The instruments were pre-tested in 4 preschools, which were drawn from the population of the study but were not included in the actual research sample. Twenty fathers whose children were learning in the preschools were given a questionnaire to fill. The purpose of piloting was to test the appropriateness of the items to the subjects with the objective of improving them and to enhance the validity and reliability of the instruments.

3.8 Validity of the Instruments

In order to test validity, items were analyzed to check for content validity where the researcher with the help of experts in early childhood went through each item and the responses given to establish whether the items were generating the required information. Items that were not adequate in terms of generating the required information were dropped and others suggested that would be appropriate in generating the information. Creswell (2005) state that researchers evaluate content validity by going to a panel of experts and have them identify whether the questions are valid. According to Creswell validity means that the individual's scores from an instrument make sense, are meaningful and enable the researcher to draw good conclusions from the sample being studied to the population.

Best and Khan (1992) state that a test is valid if it measures what it claims to measure. Mugenda and Mugenda (1998) describe validity of a research

instrument as the degree to which it measures what is intended by the researcher. This is a judgment made better by a team of professionals or experts in the particular field.

3.9 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability of the instrument was tested during the piloting stage. Test retest methods were used to test reliability of the instrument where 20 fathers from the population of the study were given the questionnaire on fathers' involvement to fill but were not included in the sample. The questionnaire was again given to the same fathers after one month. The composite scores on fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education and their beliefs were computed for each father for the two sets. The scores were correlated using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient. Findings indicated that there was a strong positive correlation between the two sets of scores where $r = 0.853$ with a significance value of 0.019 as shown on table3.3. Therefore the instrument was found to be reliable for data collection for this study.

Table 3.3 Test Retest Reliability

Correlations			
	Instrument used to measure	total score1	Total score 2
total score1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.836*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.019

Creswell (2005) state that test retest reliability procedure examines the extent to which scores from one sample are stable over time from one test

administration to another. To determine this form of reliability, the researcher administers the test at two different times to the same participants at a sufficient time interval. If the scores are reliable, they will relate/correlate at a positive reasonably high level such as 0.6 (Creswell, 2005). Best and Khan (1992) state that, an instrument is reliable to the extent that it measures what it is measuring consistently.

3.10 Data Gathering Procedures

A research permit to conduct the study was obtained from the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Education. Further permission was sought from the District Education Office Gucha district by giving him a copy of the letter from the permanent secretary ministry of education. Appointment with head teachers to the preschools that were selected was sought to be briefed on the research that would be conducted in their preschools. Once the head teachers gave their consent, the preschool teachers were contacted and briefed by the head teachers about the intended study and were asked to cooperate with the researcher.

Data was collected in two stages:

- First, the researcher met with preschool teachers from different preschools in the month of June 2008 and discussed with them about the data she required from preschool children. The teachers suggested that they would present information about preschool children's performance using second term's end term exam which was agreed upon by all teachers to the selected schools. After the

exam was given to children and marked by the teachers at the end of second term the researcher met with teachers individually who presented results of the exam. From the results the researcher with the help of each teacher was able to select pre school children who were high performers and those who were low performers according to teachers' assessment depending on the total mark the child scored in the six pre school activities. The preschool activities that were examined included; Mathematics, Language, Art and craft, Environmental, Science and Music and movement. Each activity was marked out of 100 marks. The highest mark a child scored in the test was 595 while the lowest child scored 70 marks with a mean score of 391.23 for the selected pre school children. The researcher with the help of the preschool teachers selected the top five and the bottom five from each of the selected preschools.

- Once the children for the study were identified, the researcher organized to meet with each head teacher of the selected preschool in the month of September to request him/her to invite fathers to the selected children to come to preschool where they could be given questionnaires by the researcher to fill and collected the same day. The head teachers for specific schools organized and invited fathers through their children to come to school on a specified date. When fathers came to school the head teachers briefed them why they had come. Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire, the

researcher also explained to them the purpose of their coming and sought their consent to participate in the study. Those who had a problem to read the questionnaire in English were provided with the questionnaire translated in Ekegusii. Different pre schools were visited on different days for this purpose. Where some fathers for the selected children never turned up to school to fill the questionnaire, appointment to meet the father was organized in form of writing a letter by the head teacher or calling on phone requesting him to come to school at his convenience to meet with the researcher. The head teacher of a particular school could let the researcher know through the phone when the father was coming to school so that she could be available to collect data from the individual fathers. Once data was collected, coding and scoring took place and then the data was analyzed.

3.11 Methods of Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized to prepare and organize data for analysis. Data analysis consisted of both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive analysis consisted of the calculation of various measures of central tendency involving means, frequencies and standard deviations. Inferential statistical analysis involved testing statistical hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was utilized to test hypotheses one and four since the purpose was to establish whether there was a significant correlation between fathers' involvement in children's education in relation to children's performance at preschool and fathers' belief in their role with children. Kothari (2006) states that, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient method is used for measuring the relationship between two variables. The two variables are casually related which means that one is independent and the other one is dependent. Hypotheses two and three were tested using ANOVA to explore whether there were differences in means of fathers' involvement in their children's education between fathers of different academic levels and occupations. Post Hoc analysis was computed to establish which groups of fathers were significantly different in involvement in their children's education in terms of education level and occupation. Kothari (2006) state that, analysis of variance enables the researcher to test for the significance of the difference between more than two sample means.

Chi – square was utilized to test hypotheses five, six and seven to determine whether fathers' involvement in their children's education significantly related to sex of the child, area of residence and type of preschool the child attended. Ming'ala (2002) states that the Chi-square test tabulates a variable into categories and computes a Chi-square statistic. This goodness of fit compares the observed and expected frequencies in each category to test either that, all categories contain the

same proportion of values or that each category contains a user specified proportion of values.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Each individual's right to privacy was respected and cherished during and after research. The respondents were not required to write their names on the questionnaires. They were also assured that the information they gave was to be treated confidentially. The ethical consideration involved explaining to the head teachers, preschool teachers and fathers the purpose and method of data collection. This was to enable the researcher obtain their informed consent before collecting data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. First it highlights the demographic information and then results together with discussion of the results in relation to other studies carried out on paternal involvement.

4.1 Presentation of Results and Discussions

Data will be presented in two sections. Demographic characteristics of fathers will be presented first, followed by descriptive results for each objective and then discussion of the findings by hypotheses.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Fathers

In this study, 160 fathers were sampled to participate whose preschool children had been selected due to their performance at the preschool activities. Out of the 160 fathers sampled, 132 accepted to participate while 28 did not. The demographic information that was required from fathers who participated in the study included fathers' academic level, their occupation, gender of their child at preschool, their area of residence and the type of preschool the child attended. Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 present the findings on the above demographic information on fathers.

4.2.1 Fathers' Academic Level

Fathers were asked to state their academic level ranging from primary, secondary, college and university degree. Table 4.1 presents findings on fathers' academic level.

Table 4.1 Fathers' Academic Level

Academic level	Frequency	Percent
Primary	12	9.1
secondary	76	57.6
college	37	28.0
university degree	7	5.3
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.1 indicates that there were 12 (9.1%) fathers who had attained primary education, 76 (57.6%) had attained secondary education, 37 (28%) had gone through college and 7 (5.3%) had a university degree. Table 4.1 shows that majority of the fathers who participated in this study had secondary level of education 58 % followed by those who had trained in college 28 %. Fathers with primary level of education consisted 9 % while those with university degree consisted 5 %. Based on this finding it can be concluded that very few fathers in Gucha district make it to university while a few drop out of school after primary education.

4.2.2 Fathers' Occupation

On occupation fathers were asked to indicate the kind of job they did to earn a living. They were to indicate whether they were not working, small

scale farmers, teaching, clerk, businessmen and managers. Table 4.2 presents demographic findings on fathers' occupation.

Table 4.2 Fathers' Occupation

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
not working	31	23.5
small scale farming	45	34.1
teaching	28	21.2
clerk	10	7.6
business	9	6.8
managerial	9	6.8
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.2 shows that out of the 132 fathers who participated in this study, 34 % were small scale farmers, 23 % were not working, 21 % were teachers, clerks were 8 % while managers and business men constituted 7 % each. This finding indicate that majority of the fathers who participated in the study were either small scale farmers or not employed (57%) followed by those who were teachers (21 %) and other professionals (22 %). Given the fact that due to population pressures in Gucha district, land has been subdivided into uneconomical portions (GDDP, 2002-2008) which could be one reason why many men are either not working or being small scale farmers.

4.2.3 Sex of the Child.

As far as sex of the child was concern, fathers were asked to state the gender of their preschool child. Table 4.3 presents the frequencies of fathers based on sex of their children.

Table 4.3 Frequencies on Sex of the Child

Sex of the child	Frequency	Percent
Male	80	60.6
female	52	39.4
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.3 shows that out of 132 children who participated in the study there were more male 61 % than female 39 %. This imbalance could have come about because children were selected according to their performance at preschool activities based on their teachers' assessment. The findings therefore imply that more boys were found to be many among those who scored high and those who scored low since in each preschool the top five and the bottom five were selected to participate in this study. Also given the fact that some fathers declined to participate in the study, might have contributed to the sex imbalance since children whose fathers did not participate were dropped out of the sample.

4.2.4 Fathers' Area of Residence

As far as fathers' residential area was concern, fathers were asked to indicate where they resided whether rural or urban. Table 4.4 presents findings on fathers' area of residence.

Table 4.4 Fathers' Area of Residence

Residential	Frequency	Percent
Urban	67	51
rural	65	49
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.4 indicate that 67 (50.8%) fathers who participated in this study lived in urban areas while 65 (49.2%) fathers lived in rural.

Table 4.4 clearly shows that there were almost an equal number of fathers who participated in this study either living in the urban or rural. The difference might have been due to the fact that some fathers who had been sampled for the study declined to participate. Otherwise in the initial stages it was expected that an equal number of fathers both from urban and rural were to participate in the study.

4.2.5 Type of Preschool the Child Attended

Children who participated in this study were selected depending on the type of preschool they attended whether public or private. Table 4.5 presents findings according to the type of preschool the child attended.

Table 4.5 Type of Preschool child Attended

Type of school	Frequency	Percent
Public	65	49
private	67	51
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.5 shows that out 132 children who participated in this study 51 % attended private preschools while 49 % attended public preschools. This clearly indicates that almost an equal number of children attended either public or private preschools. The difference could be as a result of the children who were dropped out of the study since their fathers declined to

participate in the study. Initially it was expected that an equal number of children from public and private preschools were to participate since an equal number had been sampled.

4.2.6 Fathers' Involvement Level

Fathers' involvement level was measured using their response to the items in the involvement questionnaire ranging from (1) not at all, (2) rarely and (3) always. Scores for each father were summed up to establish fathers' level of involvement in their children's education.

There were 26 items on the involvement questionnaire and the highest score a father would get in an item if he always performed the activity was 3 which would mean that if he always did all the 26 activities in the questionnaire then he would score 78 meaning he was highly involved. If he did not do all the activities in the 26 items then he would score 1 in each item getting a total of 26 meaning he was not involved at all in his child's education. If a father was rarely involved he scored 2 for every item giving a summed up score of 52.

Involvement level was categorised into four that is if a father scored 26 he was categorised as not involved at all, if he scored 27-45 he was considered lowly involved, if he scored 46-65 he was considered moderately involved and if he scored 66-78 he was considered highly involved. Table 4.6 presents findings on fathers' involvement level.

Table 4.6 Father Involvement Level

Involvement	Frequency	Percent
High	41	31.1
Moderate	42	31.8
Low	49	37.1
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.6 indicates that 41 (31.1 %) fathers were highly involved in their children's education, 42 (31.8%) fathers were moderately involved while 49 (37.1%) fathers were lowly involved in their children's education. This finding shows that at least every father was involved in some activity with their children since there was no single father who was completely not at all involved in their children's education.

Involvement activities were broadly categorised as communication, teaching, shared activities, providing and monitoring. These broad activities were also sub grouped into smaller activities as presented below.

4.2.6.1 Fathers' Involvement in Communication Activities

Communication activities included listening to the child as he/she talks, talking to the child about school work, calling the child on phone when away and praising the child when he/she performs well in school. Table 4.7 presents the findings on how fathers responded to each of the activities listed above using responses ranging from not at all, rarely and always.

Table 4.7 Fathers' Involvement in Communication Activities

Activity	Not at all	%	Rarely	%	Always	%	Total	%
Listening to the child as he/she talks	1	.8	93	70.5	38	28.8	132	100
Talking to the child about school work	5	3.8	85	64.4	42	31.8	132	100
Calling the child on phone when away	64	48.5	52	39.4	16	12.1	132	100
Praising the child when he performs well.	6	4.5	76	57.6	50	37.9	132	100

Table 4.7 indicate that on listening to the child when he/she talks 1 (0.8%) father said he does not listen at all to the child when he/she talks, 93 (70.5%) said they rarely listen while 38 (28.8%) said they always listen to the child when he/she talks. Majority of the fathers confirmed that they rarely listen to their children when talking to them may be because they are always busy with other activities or because they see childcare as a traditional responsibility of women. However a relatively smaller percentage of fathers confirmed that they always listen to their children when they talk to them. This percentage could represent the fathers who see the importance of being keen on what children say and do.

On talking to the child about school work 5 (3.8%) fathers confirmed that they do not at all talk to their children about school work, 85 (64.4%) said they rarely talk while 42 (31.8%) said they always talk to their children about school work. As mentioned earlier fathers who see the importance of getting involved in their children's education would always want to talk to their children about school work than those who do not see that importance

and therefore may rarely talk to their children. On the other hand fathers may rarely talk to their children about school work because of being very busy in other activities or because they consider that as a responsibility of the mother who should be in charge of children or a primary responsibility of the teacher who is paid to do the teaching and ensuring that children are performing well.

On calling the child on phone while away 64 (48.5%) fathers said that they do not at all call their children on phone while away, 52 (39.4%) said they rarely call while 16 (12.1%) confirmed that they always call their children when away. The big number of fathers not calling their children while away may mean that many fathers did not have phones that they could use to call their children. Those who rarely and those who always called their children when away may have had mobile phones.

On praising the child when he/she performs well, 6 (4.5%) fathers confirmed that they do not at all praise their children, 76 (57.6%) said they rarely praise their children while 50 (37.9%) of the fathers said that they always praise their children when they perform well. This finding indicates that, quite a good number of fathers either rarely or always praise their children when they perform well in school. This kind of involvement motivates children to work even harder to perform better.

4.2.6.2 Fathers' Involvement in Teaching Activity

Teaching incorporated activities like teaching the child how to read, answering the child's questions, commenting on the child's progress, disciplining the child and giving advice to the child. Table 4.8 presents the findings on fathers' response to teaching activities.

Table 4.8 Fathers' Involvement in Teaching Activities

Activity	Not at all	%	Rarely	%	Always	%	Total	%
Teaching the child how to read	8	6.1	82	62.1	42	31.9	132	100
Answering the child's questions	4	3	87	65.9	41	31.1	132	100
Commenting on the child's progress	6	4.5	73	55.3	53	40.2	132	100
Disciplining the child	6	4.5	74	56.1	52	39.4	132	100
Giving advice to the child.	4	3	79	59.8	49	37.1	132	100

Table 4.7 indicate that on fathers' response to teaching the child how to read, 8 (6.1%) fathers confirmed that they do not at all teach their children how to read, 82 (62.1%) said they rarely teach while 42 (31.9%) confirmed that they always teach their children how to read. This may imply that due to their educational levels some fathers may find it difficult to teach their children how to read if they do not know how to read themselves. On answering the child's questions 4 (3%) of the fathers said that they do not at all answer children's questions, 87 (65.7%) said they rarely answer while 41 (31.1%) of the fathers confirmed that they always answer their

children's questions. The disparity in how fathers responded to this item could be as a result of what questions children ask and whether fathers are able to answer those questions.

Fathers' response to commenting on the child's progress was also varied where 6 (4.5%) confirmed that they do not at all comment on their children's progress. 73 (55.3%) said that they rarely comment while 53 (40.2%) of the fathers said that they always comment on their children's progress. On disciplining the child, 6 (4.5%) of the fathers confirmed that they do not at all discipline their children, 74 (56.1%) said they rarely discipline while 52 (39.4%) confirmed that they always discipline their children. On giving advice to the child, 4 (3%) of the fathers said they do not at all give advice to their children, 79 (59.8%) said they rarely discipline their children while 49 (37.1%) confirmed that they always discipline their children. The disparity on fathers' response to the above items could be as a result of what fathers consider to be their role with children or whether they find it important to be involved in the named activities.

4.2.6.3 Fathers' Involvement in Shared Activities

Shared activities incorporated activities like showing the child how to do school work, going to church with the child, eating together with the child, playing with the child and making play materials with the child. Table 4.9 present the findings on fathers' response to shared activities.

Table 4.9 Fathers' Involvement in Shared Activities

Activity	Not at all	%	Rarely	%	Always	%	Total	%
Showing the child how to do school work.	17	12.9	75	56.8	40	30.3	132	100
Going to church with the child	10	7.6	45	34.1	77	58.3	132	100
Eating together with the child	8	6.1	83	62.9	41	31.1	132	100
Playing with the child	31	23.5	75	56.8	26	19.7	132	100
Making play materials with the child	60	45.5	36	27.3	36	27.3	132	100

Table 4.9 indicates that on responding to showing the child how to do school work 17 (12.9%) of the fathers confirmed that they do not at all show their children how to do school work, 75 (56.8%) said they rarely show them while 40 (30.3%) fathers confirmed that they always show their children how to do school work. The disparity in response could be as a result of fathers not being able to understand how the work should be done or because they do not see that as their primary responsibility. Those who find it easy to assist their children they do assist them than those who find it difficulty.

On going to church with the child 10 (7.6%) of the fathers confirmed that they do not go to church with their children, 45 (34.1%) said they rarely do it while 77 (58.3%) said they always go to church with their children. The disparity in response to this activity could be as a result of some fathers not

committed into going to church while others committed to going to church and they find it necessary to go to church with their children.

Fathers' response to eating together with their children indicates that 8 (6.1%) of the fathers confirmed that they do not at all eat with their children, 83 (62.9%) said they rarely eat together while 41 (31.1%) confirmed that they always eat together with their children. The disparity in response to this activity could be as a result of cultural beliefs or a family's decision that children may or may not eat together with their fathers.

On playing with the child, 31 (23.5%) of the fathers said they do not at all play with their children, 75 (56.8%) said they rarely play while 26 (19.7%) confirmed that they always play with their children. This finding indicates that not many fathers find it necessary to play with their children but a few find it necessary to always play with their children. On making play materials with the child, 60 (45.5%) confirmed that they do not make play materials with their children, 36 (27.2%) said they rarely make while 36 (27.3%) confirmed that they always make play materials with their children. Disparity in response to this activity would be as a result of fathers not informed of the importance of play for young children and therefore do not find it necessary to engage in making play materials for their children. It could also be as a result of some fathers seeing play as a waste of time instead of reading and doing academic work. However those

fathers who see play as contributing to the child's development and as a way of learning will get involved in making play materials with their children.

4.2.6.4 Fathers' Involvement in Providing Activities

Providing incorporated activities like selecting and purchasing books for the child, selecting and purchasing school uniform, paying school fees for the child and buying a present for the child when he/she performs well.

Table 4.10 presents findings on fathers' response to providing.

Table 4.10 Fathers' Involvement in Providing Activities

Activity	Not at all	%	Rarely	%	Always	%	Total	%
Selecting and purchasing books for the child	24	18.2	52	39.4	56	42.4	132	100
Selecting and purchasing school uniform for the child	12	9.1	39	29.5	81	61.4	132	100
Paying school fees for the child	10	7.6	57	43.2	65	49.2	132	100
Buying a present for the child when he performs well	45	34.1	44	33.3	43	32.6	132	100

Table 4.10 Indicates that in responding to selecting and purchasing books for the child 24 (18.2%) fathers confirmed that they do not do that at all, 52 (39.4%) said they rarely do that while 56 (42.4%) confirmed that they always select and purchase books for their children. Disparity in response to this activity could be as a result of the value a father attaches to this activity that will determine whether he will select and buy or not. Another

reason could be lack of money since preschool children have to pay fees for their education and may be many fathers could not afford.

On selecting and purchasing school uniform, 12 (9.1%) of the fathers said they do not select and purchase uniform at all, 39 (29.5%) said they rarely do that while 81 (61.4%) confirmed that they always select and purchase school uniform for their children. On paying school fees for the child 10 (7.6%) said that they do not at all pay fees for their children, 57 (43.2%) said they rarely pay while 65 (49.2%) confirmed that they always pay fees. On buying a present for the child when he/she performs well, 45 (34.1%) confirmed that they do not buy, 44 (33.3%) said they rarely buy while 43 (32.6%) said that they always buy a present for their children. In general these findings indicate that fathers were more involved in buying school uniform, paying fees and buying books for their children than buying a present when the child performed well. May be this was to ensure that the child attends school regularly to avoid being sent home.

4.2.6.5 Fathers' Involvement in Monitoring Activities

Monitoring encompassed activities like checking whether the child has school work to do, ensuring that the child's school work is done, attending parent teacher meetings, talking to the teacher about the child's progress, ensuring the child's safety while at home and finding out about the child's friends. Table 4.11 present the findings on fathers' response to monitoring activities.

Table 4.11 Fathers' Involvement in Monitoring Activities

Activity	Not at all	%	Rarely	%	Always	%	Total	%
Checking whether the child has school work to do.	16	12.1	81	61.4	35	26.5	132	100
Ensuring the child's school work is done	12	9.1	76	57.6	44	33.3	132	100
Attending parent teacher meetings	6	4.5	93	70.5	33	25	132	100
Talking to the teacher about child's progress	10	7.6	96	72.7	26	19.7	132	100
Ensuring child's safety while at home	15	11.4	52	39.4	61	49.3	132	100
Finding out about the child's friends	59	44.7	58	43.9	15	11.4	132	100

Table 4.11 indicates that on checking whether the child has school work to do 16 (12.1%) of the fathers said that they do not at all check, 81 (61.4%) said they rarely check while 35 (26.5%) confirmed that they always check. On ensuring that the child's work is done 12 (9.1%) said they do not ensure, 76 (57.6%) said they rarely do that while 44 (33.3%) confirmed that they always do that. On attending parent teacher meetings 6 (4.5%) said they do not attend, 93 (70.5%) said they rarely attend while 33 (25%) confirmed that they attend. On talking to the teacher about the child's progress 10 (7.6%) said they do not talk to the teacher, 96 (72.7%) said they rarely do that while 26 (19.7%) confirmed that they always talk to the teacher about the child's progress. On ensuring child's safety while at home 15 (11.4%) said they do not, 52 (39.4%) said they rarely do that while 61 (49.3%) said they always ensure that the child is safe while at

home. On finding out about the child's friends 59 (44.7%) said they do not, 58 (43.9%) said they rarely do while 15 (11.4%) confirmed that they always find out about their children's friends.

Findings on monitoring reveals that fathers were more involved in attending parent teacher meetings, ensuring child's safety while at home and ensuring that the child's school work was done. Fathers were least involved in finding out about their children's friends which is risky since friends may influence the child's behaviours.

4.2.7 Children's Performance

Children's performance was assessed using the second term's end term exam based on teachers' assessment. Teachers examined their preschool children based on the preschool syllabus on what they had covered up to second term. Children's performance level was computed whereby those who scored below the mean score were considered low performers while those who scored above the mean score were considered high performers. Findings on frequencies of children's performance are presented on table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Children's Performance Level

Performance Level	Frequency	Percent
low performance	62	47.0
high performance	70	53.0
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.12 indicates that out of the 132 children who participated in the study, 62 (47%) were considered low performers while 70 (53%) were considered high performers.

4.2.8 Fathers' Belief on their Role with Children

Fathers' belief on their role with children was measured using their response to the items in the belief questionnaire ranging from (1) disagree (2) agree (3) strongly agree. Scores for each father were summed up to establish their level of belief in their role with children.

There were 26 items on the belief questionnaire and the highest score a father would get in an item if he strongly agreed on the specific activity was 3 which would mean that if he strongly agreed to all the 26 activities in the questionnaire then he would score 78 meaning he strongly believed that he has a role to play in his child's education. If he disagreed in all the activities in the 26 items then he would score 1 in each item getting a total of 26 meaning he did not believe that he has a role to play in his child's education. If a father agreed in an activity he scored 2 for every item giving a summed up score of 52.

Level of fathers' belief was categorised into four that is if a father scored 26 he was categorised as not believing at all that he has a role to play in his child's education, if he scored 27-45 he was considered lowly believing that he has a role to play, if he scored 46-65 he was considered moderately

believing that he has a role to play and if he scored 66-78 he was considered highly believing that he has a role to play in his child's education. Table 4.6 presents findings on fathers' belief level.

Table 4.13 Fathers' Belief Level

Belief Level	Frequency	Percent
High	3	2.3
Moderate	49	37.1
Low	77	58.3
Not believing	3	2.3
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.13 indicates that 3 (2.3 %) fathers highly believed that they have a role to play in their children's education, 49 (37.1%) fathers moderately believed that they have a role to play, 77 (58.3%) lowly believed that they have a role to play while 3 (2.3%) fathers did not believe that they have a role to play in children's education. This finding shows that majority of the fathers who participated in the study lowly believed that they have a role to play in their children's education while a few moderately believed that they have a role to play.

Fathers' belief was measured against the involvement activities which were broadly categorised as communication, teaching, shared activities, providing and monitoring. These broad activities were broken into specific actions that fathers engage in with their children.

4.2.8.1 Fathers' Belief about Communicating with their Children

Communication activities included fathers' belief in listening to the child as he/she talks, talking to the child about school work, calling the child on phone when away and praising the child when he/she performs well in school. Table 4.14 presents the findings on how fathers responded to each of the activities listed above using responses ranging from disagree, agree and strongly agree.

Table 4.14 Fathers' Belief about Communication

Activity	Disagree	%	Agree	%	Strongly Agree	%	Total	%
I should listen to the child as he/she talks	39	30	90	68	2	2	132	100
I should talk to the child about school work	42	32	77	58	13	10	132	100
I should call the child on phone when I am away	32	24	69	53	30	23	132	100
I should praise the child when he/she performs well.	41	31	75	57	16	12	132	100

Table 4.14 indicate that fathers' belief on listening to the child when he/she talks 39 (30%) said they that they disagree that they should listen to the child when he/she talks, 90 (68%) agreed that they should listen while 2 (2%) strongly agreed that they should listen to the child when he/she talks. Majority of the fathers agreed that they should listen to their children when talking to them may be because they see the importance of listening to the child in enhancing his/her learning.

On talking to the child about school work 42 (32%) of the fathers confirmed that they disagree that they should talk to their children about school work, 77(58%) agreed that they should talk while 13 (10%) strongly agreed that they should talk to their children about school work. On calling the child on phone while away 32(24%) of the fathers disagreed that they should call their children on phone while away, 69 (52%) agreed while 30 (23%) strongly agreed that they should call their children when away from home. On praising the child when he/she performs well, 41 (31%) of the fathers confirmed they disagree that they should praise their children, 75 (57%) agreed that they should praise their children while 16 (12%) of the fathers strongly agreed that they should praise their children when they perform well at school.

4.2.8.2 Fathers' Belief Concerning Teaching their Children

Teaching incorporated activities like teaching the child how to read, answering the child's questions, commenting on the child's progress, disciplining the child and giving advice to the child. Table 4.15 presents the findings on fathers' response to teaching activities.

Table 4.15 Fathers' Belief Concerning Teaching their Children

Activity	Disagree	%	Agree	%	Strongly agree	%	Total	%
I should teach my child how to read books	62	47	55	42	15	11	132	100
I should answer my child's questions	45	34	76	58	11	8	132	100
I should comment on my child's progress	55	42	64	49	13	10	132	100
I should discipline the child	36	27	77	59	18	14	132	100
I should give advice to my child on how to behave.	50	38	66	50	16	12	132	100

Table 4.5 indicate that on fathers' response to teaching the child how to read, 62 (47%) of the fathers confirmed that they disagree that they should teach their children how to read, 55 (42%) agreed that they should teach while 15 (11.9%) strongly agreed that they should teach their children how to read. This may imply that due to their educational levels some fathers may find it difficult to teach their children how to read if they do not know how to read themselves. On answering the child's questions 45 (34%) of the fathers disagreed that they should answer children's questions, 76 (58%) agreed while 11 (8%) of the fathers strongly agreed that they should answer their children's questions.

Fathers' response to commenting on the child's progress was also varied where 55 (42%) of the fathers confirmed that they disagree that they should comment on their children's progress. 64 (49%) agreed while 13 (10%) of the fathers strongly agreed that they should comment on their

children's progress. On disciplining the child, 36 (27%) of the fathers disagreed that they should discipline their children, 77 (58%) agreed while 18 (13%) strongly agreed that they should discipline their children. On giving advice to the child, 50 (38%) of the fathers disagreed that they should give advice to their children, 66 (50%) agreed while 16 (12%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should discipline their children.

4.2.8.3 Fathers' Belief about Doing Shared Activities

Shared activities incorporated activities like showing the child how to do school work, going to church with the child, eating together with the child, playing with the child and making play materials with the child. Table 4.16 present the findings on fathers' response to what they belief in doing shared activities with their children.

Table 4.16 Fathers' Belief about Doing Shared Activities

Activity	Disagree	%	Agree	%	Strongly agree	%	Total	%
I should show my child how to do school work.	47	37	68	52	15	11	132	100
I should go to church with my child	59	45	56	42	17	13	132	100
I should eat together with my child	31	24	89	68	12	8	132	100
I should play with my child	26	20	75	57	31	23	132	100
I should make play materials with my child	34	26	74	56	24	18	132	100

Table 4.16 indicates that on responding to showing the child how to do school work 47 (37%) of the fathers confirmed that they disagree that they should show their children how to do school work, 68 (52%) agreed while 15 (11%) of the fathers strongly agreed that they should show their children how to do school work. On going to church with the child 59 (45%) of the fathers disagreed that they should go to church with their children, 56 (42%) agreed while 17 (13%) strongly agreed that they should go to church with their children. The disparity in response to this activity could be as a result of some fathers not committed into going to church while others committed to going to church and they find it necessary to go to church with their children.

Fathers' response to eating together with their children indicates that 31 (24%) of the fathers disagreed that they should eat with their children, 89 (67%) agreed while 12 (8%) confirmed that they always eat together with their children. On playing with the child, 26 (20%) of the fathers disagreed that they should play with their children, 75 (57%) agreed while 31 (24%) confirmed that they strongly belief that they should play with their children. On making play materials with the child, 34 (26%) confirmed that they disagree that should make play materials with their children, 74 (56%) agreed while 24 (18%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should make play materials with their children.

4.2.8.4 Fathers' Belief Concerning Providing for their Children

Providing incorporated activities like selecting and purchasing books for the child, selecting and purchasing school uniform, paying school fees for the child and buying a present for the child when he/she performs well.

Table 4.17 presents findings on fathers' response to their belief in providing for their children.

Table 4.17 Fathers' Belief Concerning Providing their Children

Activity	Disagree	%	Agree	%	Strongly agree	%	Total	%
I should select and purchasing books for my child	59	45	65	49	8	6	132	100
I should select and purchasing school uniform for my child	65	49	58	44	9	7	132	100
I should pay school fees for my child	63	48	63	48	6	4	132	100
I should buy a present for my child when he performs well	39	29	75	57	18	14	132	100

Table 4.17 Indicates that in responding to selecting and purchasing books for the child 59 (45%) of the fathers confirmed that they disagree that they should select and purchase books for their children, 65 (49%) agreed while 8 (6%) strongly agreed that they should select and purchase books for their children. Disparity in response to this activity could be as a result of the value a father attaches to this activity that will determine whether he will select and buy or not. Another reason could be lack of money since preschool children have to pay fees for their education and may be many fathers could not afford.

On selecting and purchasing school uniform, 65 (49%) of the fathers disagreed that they should select and purchase school uniform for their children, 58 (44%) agreed while 9 (7%) strongly agreed that they should select and purchase school uniform for their children. On paying school fees for the child 63 (48%) disagreed that they should pay fees for their children, 63 (48%) agreed while 6(4%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should pay fees for their children. On buying a present for the child when he/she performs well, 39 (30%) confirmed that they disagree that they should buy a present for their children when they perform well, 75 (57%) agreed while 18 (14%) strongly agreed that they should buy a present for their children.

4.2.8.5 Fathers' Belief about Monitoring their Children

Monitoring encompassed activities like checking whether the child has school work to do, ensuring that the child's school work is done, attending parent teacher meetings, talking to the teacher about the child's progress, ensuring the child's safety while at home and finding out about the child's friends. Table 4.18 present the findings on fathers' response to what they belief on monitoring their children

Table 4.18 Fathers' Belief about Monitoring their Children.

Activity	Disagree	%	Agree	%	Strongly agreee	%	Total	%
I should check whether my child has school work to do.	16	12.1	81	61.4	35	26.5	132	100
I should ensure that child's school work is done	12	9.1	76	57.6	44	33.3	132	100
I should attend a parent teacher meetings	6	4.5	93	70.5	33	25	132	100
I should talk to the teacher about my child's progress	10	7.6	96	72.7	26	19.7	132	100
I should ensure my child's safety while at home	15	11.4	52	39.4	61	49.3	132	100
I should find out about my child's friends	59	44.7	58	43.9	15	11.4	132	100

Table 4.18 indicates that on checking whether the child has school work to do 61 (46%) of the fathers disagreed that they should check whether the child has school work to do, 58 (44%) agreed while 13 (10%) strongly agreed that they should check. On ensuring that the child's work is done 50(38%) disagreed that they should ensure the child's school work is done, 67 (51%) agree while 15 (11%) strongly agreed. On attending parent teacher meetings 54 (41%) disagreed, 62 (47%) agreed while 16 (12%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should attend the parent teacher meeting. On talking to the teacher about the child's progress 61 (46%) disagreed, 53 (40%) agreed while 18 (14%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should talk to the teacher about the child's

progress. On ensuring child's safety while at home 63 (48%) disagreed, 47 (36%) agreed while 22 (17%) strongly agreed that they should ensure that the child is safe while at home. On finding out about the child's friends 42 (32%) disagreed, 65 (49%) agreed while 25 (19%) confirmed that they strongly agree that they should find out about their children's friends.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Discussion of the Findings

This section presents descriptive statistics according to objectives and discusses findings as per the hypotheses.

4.3.1 Father Involvement and Children's Performance at Preschool

The first objective of the study sought to find out whether there was a significant relationship between fathers' involvement and children's performance in preschool activities. Means and standard deviations for fathers' involvement and children's performance were calculated. Table 4.19 presents findings on this objective.

Table 4.19 Means and Standard Deviations on father involvement and children's performance

Aspect Measured	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Child's score	132	70	595	384.09	131.412
Involvement	132	37	77	56.56	9.585

Table 4.19 indicates that the minimum score on fathers' involvement was 37 and maximum score of 77 with a mean of 56.56 and a standard deviation of 9.586. Since the mean score was 56.56 it means that most of

the fathers who participated in the study were moderately involved in their children's education. Table 4.19 also indicates that the minimum total score on children's performance was 70 while the maximum score was 595 with a mean of 384.09 and a standard deviation of 131.412. Thus the finding indicates that although the range between the highest and lowest score was wide many children performed well. This is also confirmed by table 4.12 where 70 (53%) of the children were considered high performers and 62 (47%) were considered low performers.

The relationship between fathers' involvement and children's performance was tested for significance to test the null hypothesis that stated:

Ho1: There is no significant relationship between fathers' involvement in their children's education and children's performance at preschool.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co efficient was utilized to test this hypothesis. Table 4.20 presents the findings for this hypothesis.

Table 4.20. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient on Father Involvement and Children's Performance

Aspect measured	Instrument used	Involvement	child's score
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.190*
	Sig.		.029
	N	132.000	132

Table 4.20 indicates that the relationship between the two variables was significant where $r=0.190$ and $p=0.029<0.05$. The p value was found to be

less than the critical value of 0.05. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected on the basis of this finding. The findings indicate that fathers who get involved in their children's education have children who perform better than children whose fathers are not involved. The findings also suggest that if fathers get involved in their children's education then children are likely to perform well in school activities as research findings from other studies revealed.

These findings were consistent with findings of Radin (1981) who found that the more actively involved and interested a father is in his child's care and education, the more intellectually developed the child is. This level of commitment has an impact on children's academic success. The findings also agrees with Gadsden and Bowman (1999)'s findings which revealed that, fathers can ensure that their children are exposed to the best environmental stimuli by participating at home and in early childhood education settings which are often children's first significant experiences through which their children can develop cognitive abilities. They can tell stories, read and select books with their children and learn how to use appropriate visual and cognitive cues.

According to the present study, the activities that fathers were more involved in as far as their pre school children's education was concern included; paying school fees for the children, selecting and purchasing uniform for their children, selecting and purchasing books for their

children. This kind of involvement create a conducive environment for the children's learning in school because children are not likely to be chased from school if fees is paid and have uniform and books to read from.

The above findings were consistent with findings of Barth and Parke (1992) who established that, when fathers are supportive to their children, the children have fewer problems at school such as excessive absence or poor exam results. Even when fathers provide only limited attention, warmth and affection and are not around all the time, their children benefit from their influence in terms of adjusting to new experiences having stable emotions and knowing how to get along with others.

This finding agrees with findings of Harris, Furstenberg, and Marmer (1996) who established that children from intact families indicated that children whose fathers were highly involved with them attained higher levels of education and economic self sufficiency than children whose fathers were not highly involved. This findings were also consistent with findings of Parke (2004), Cooksey and Fondell (1996), Goldstein (1982) which showed that children whose fathers shared meals, spent leisure time with them, or helped them with reading or home work did significantly better academically than those children whose fathers did not. They also found that for the white children in the sample, father involvement was associated with better quantitative and verbal skills, intellectual functioning and overall academic achievement.

4.3.2 Fathers' Involvement and their Academic Level

The second objective of this study sought to establish whether there was a significant difference in means on father involvement between fathers of different academic levels. Table 4.21 presents descriptive statistics on father involvement and their academic level.

Table 4.21 Means and Standard Deviations on Father Involvement and their Academic level

Academic level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Primary	12	47.75	7.956	37	69
Secondary	76	53.37	7.579	38	73
College	37	64.49	7.534	37	77
University degree	7	64.43	9.361	47	74
Total	132	56.56	9.585	37	77

Table 4.21 indicates that the mean involvement for fathers who attained the primary level of academic was 47.75 with a standard deviation of 7.956. The mean involvement for fathers with secondary education was 53.37 with a standard deviation of 7.579. The mean involvement score for fathers who had trained in college was 64.49 with a standard deviation of 7.534 while those who attained the university degree had a mean score of 64.43 with a standard deviation of 9.361. Means for all levels of academic were in the range of 46 to 65 which was considered as moderate involvement. This suggests that, regardless of the academic level of fathers majority of the fathers who participated in the study were moderately involved in their children's education.

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed to test the significant difference in means of fathers' involvement and their academic level to test the hypothesis that stated:

Ho.2: There is no significant difference in means on fathers' involvement between fathers of different academic levels.

Table 4.22 presents the findings on the ANOVA computation of the significance level between means of fathers' involvement.

Table 4.22 ANOVA Computation on Father Involvement and their Academic Level.

Involvement	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	Calculated F	Critical F	Sig.
Between Groups	4463.623	3	1487.874	25.149	28.71	.000
Within Groups	7572.892	128	59.163			
Total	12036.515	131				

Table 4.22 indicates that there was a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement in their children's education among fathers of different academic levels. The significance value of $p=0.000 < 0.05$ with the calculated ($f = 25.149$ at 3 degrees of freedom) while the critical $f=2871$. The finding shows that the p value was less than the critical value of 0.05. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected on this basis. The findings therefore suggest that fathers' involvement in their children's education is determined by their educational level.

A Post Hoc analysis was computed to establish the group of fathers who were significantly different in their involvement in their children's education. Table 4.23 presents the post hoc findings on fathers' involvement according to their academic level.

Table 4.23 Post Hoc Computation on Father Involvement and their Academic Level

Involvement Tukey HSD			
Academic range	Academic range	Mean Difference	Sig.
Primary	Secondary	-5.618	.092
	College	-16.736*	.000
	University degree	-16.679*	.000
Secondary	Primary	5.618	.092
	College	-11.118*	.000
	University degree	-11.060*	.002
College	Primary	16.736*	.000
	Secondary	11.118*	.000
	University degree	.058	1.000
University degree	Primary	16.679*	.000
	Secondary	11.060*	.002
	College	-.058	1.000

Table 4.23 indicates that, there were significant differences in father involvement in their children's education among fathers of different academic levels. Fathers with primary level of academic significantly differed in their involvement with those having college certificate where $p=0.000 < 0.05$, and those having university degree $p=0.000 < 0.05$.

Fathers with secondary education were significantly different in their involvement with those having college certificate where $p=0.000 < 0.05$ and those having university degree where $p=0.002 < 0.05$. The findings

indicate that the more a father is educated the more he is likely to be involved in his child's education.

These findings were consistent with findings of Gadsden et al (1997) and Gadsden (2007) who suggested that fathers who have limited schooling as well as low reading and writing abilities have difficulty participating in school related activities requiring high levels of literacy. The same research findings also established that even when fathers have limited schooling, their involvement in children's schools and school lives is a powerful factor in children's academic achievement. The results of the study also agree with findings of Lamb (2004) who established that a father's ability to support his child's learning affects the child's engagement with books and schooling. However, these fathers have high hopes for their children and depend on programmes to ensure that their children will become competent learners. This therefore suggests that, if fathers are encouraged to get involved in their children's education even when they are not highly educated they are likely to positively influence their children's academic performance than when they are not involved at all.

The current findings were consistent with findings of Aswani (1989) who suggested that fathers' educational level influenced children's educational aspirations. That children whose fathers had attained high standards of education showed relatively higher educational aspirations than their colleagues whose fathers had not received any formal education or had just

attained a maximum of primary educational level. Children's performance, in this study, could have also been influenced by the fact that they could have been aspiring to study to higher levels like their fathers. The findings in the present study may also suggest that fathers who are more educated understand the importance of giving their children a good academic foundation during their early years of development and therefore get more involved in their children's education than fathers who are not educated.

Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997) in their study found that fathers with less than a high school education were much less likely to be involved in their children's schools than fathers with higher levels of education. This finding is consistent with findings in the current study where fathers with college and university degree were more involved in their children's education than fathers with primary and secondary education. Fraser (1973) found out that parents who are intelligent and educated provide a child with a favourable environment and are likely to get involved in their children's school work. Highly educated parents expect to be involved in educational matters. Such parents are concerned that their children may be unprepared for the future.

4.3.3 Fathers' Involvement and their Occupation

The third objective of the study sought to establish whether there was a significant difference in means on fathers' involvement between fathers of different occupations.

Table 4.24 presents the means and standard deviations of father involvement according to their occupation.

Table 4.24 Means and Standard Deviations on Father Involvement and their Occupation

Occupation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
not working	31	55.87	9.845	40	73
Small scale farming	45	52.73	8.792	37	74
Teaching	28	63.25	8.699	46	77
Clerk	10	61.00	6.831	46	70
Business	9	51.11	8.738	37	67
Managerial	9	57.78	5.585	47	62
Total	132	56.56	9.585	37	77

Table 4.24 indicates that fathers who were not working had a mean involvement score of 55.87 with a standard deviation of 9.845. Fathers who were small scale farmers had a mean involvement of 52.73 with a standard deviation of 8.792. Fathers who were teachers had a mean involvement score of 63.25 with a standard deviation of 8.699. Fathers who were clerks had a mean involvement score of 61 with a standard deviation of 6.831. Fathers who were businessmen had a mean involvement score of 51.11 with a standard deviation of 8.738. Fathers who were managers had a mean involvement score of 57.78 with a standard deviation of 5.585. Since the mean involvement for all categories of occupation were between 51.11 and 63.25 then it is evident that majority of the fathers who participated in the study were moderately involved in their children's education regardless of their occupation.

ANOVA was computed to establish whether there was a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement and their occupation for the hypothesis that stated:

Ho.3: There is no significant difference in means on fathers' involvement in their children's education between fathers of different occupations.

Table 4.25 presents the ANOVA findings on fathers' involvement and their occupation.

Table 4.25 ANOVA Computation on Father Involvement and their Occupation

Involvement	Sum Squares	of Df	Mean Square	Calcu lated F	Criti cal F	Sig.
Between Groups	2404.537	5	480.907	6.291	10.97	.000
Within Groups	9631.978	126	76.444			
Total	12036.515	131				

Table 4.25 indicates that the calculated p value was $0.000 < 0.05$ with a calculated ($f=6.291$ at 5 degrees of freedom) while the critical f value was 10.97. The difference in means was found to be significant and therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The findings suggest that fathers' involvement in their children's education is influenced by the kind of job they do. Post Hoc analysis was computed to establish which groups of fathers were significantly different in their involvement. Table 4.26 presents the Post Hoc analysis findings.

Table 4.26 Post Hoc Analysis on Father Involvement and Father Occupation

Involvement Tukey HSD			
(I) occupation	(J) occupation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
not working	small scale farming	3.138	.641
	Teaching	-7.379*	.019
	Clerk	-5.129	.592
	Business	4.760	.704
	Managerial	-1.907	.992
small scale farming	not working	-3.138	.641
	Teaching	-10.517*	.000
	Clerk	-8.267	.081
	Business	1.622	.996
	Managerial	-5.044	.613
Teaching	not working	7.379*	.019
	small scale farming	10.517*	.000
	Clerk	2.250	.982
	Business	12.139*	.006
	Managerial	5.472	.578
Business	not working	-4.760	.704
	small scale farming	-1.622	.996
	Teaching	-12.139*	.006
	Clerk	-9.889	.144
	Managerial	-6.667	.589
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.			

Table 4.26 indicates that means on involvement for fathers who were not working were significantly different from those of fathers who were teachers where $p=0.019 < 0.05$. Means on involvement for teachers were also significantly different with those of small scale farmers where $p=0.000 < 0.05$ and those of businessmen where $p=0.006 < 0.05$. These findings indicate that teachers get involved in their children's education than fathers of other occupations. The findings also may suggest that those fathers in the teaching fraternity understand that when they work closely

with their children, children perform better and therefore get involved so as to maximize their children's performance.

The findings were consistent with findings by Jones (1985) who established that joblessness did not increase father's involvement with their children implying that father's involvement is not a matter of time available to the fathers but having an understanding on the importance of the child's education during the early years at heart. For instance, the current study indicates that teachers were significantly different in their involvement in their children's education when compared with small scale farmers, business men and those not working. This may suggest that since teachers are in the teaching profession they understand the importance of assisting their children so as to perform well in their education. It would also mean that they (teachers) could be having their children's performance at heart and therefore they find it necessary to get involved in their children's education with an intention of getting better results.

The results were consistent with findings of Silberschemidt (1999) who established that some Gusii men were employed in white color jobs, others worked as casual labourers while majority were found in rural doing small scale farming due to over population and land scarcity. The current study established that small scale farmers constituted 34 %, not working 23 %, teaching 21 % and the remaining 3 occupations constituted 23 %. That shows that small scale farmers formed the majority of the participants.

The findings were in agreement with findings of (Marsiglio & Day 2007, Marsiglio, 1995, Gadsden 2007, Gadsden et.al. 1995,) who found that unemployed men spend more time with their children while others have found that joblessness did not increase fathers' involvement in childcare, implying that care giving is not simply a function of time available to the father but the quality of the activities. Not only being employed but also the nature and quality of a man's employment affect the type and level of interaction a man has with his children. Fathers who work in work sites where they have little or no autonomy or who work long hours are more irritable and more likely to be authoritarian and conflictive in their relationships with their children (BvLF, 2004).

4.3.4 Fathers' Belief and their Involvement

The fourth objective of the study sought to establish whether fathers' belief on their role with their children relates to their involvement in their children's education.

Means and standard deviations were computed for fathers' belief and their involvement. Results for this objective are presented on table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Means and Standard Deviations on Fathers' Belief and their Involvement

Aspect Measured	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Involvement	132	37	77	56.56	9.585
Belief	132	26	75	45.55	10.570

Table 4.27 indicates that the mean score on father involvement was 56.56 with a standard deviation of 9.585. The mean score on fathers' belief was 45.55 with a standard deviation of 10.570. These findings suggest that majority of the fathers who participated in this study moderately got involved in their children's education and they moderately believed that they have a role to play in their children's education.

Fathers' belief and their involvement were tested for correlation using Pearson Product Moment Co Relation Co efficient to test the hypothesis that stated:

Ho.4: There is no significant correlation between fathers' involvement in their children's' education and their belief on their role with their children.

Table 4.28 presents the findings for the above hypothesis.

Table 4.28 Pearson Product Moment Correlation on Father Involvement and their Belief

Aspect measured	Instrument used to measure	involvement	Believe
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.484**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	132.000	132

Table 4.28 indicates that there was a significant negative correlation between the two variables where $r = -0.482$ with a significance $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. The negative correlation indicates that fathers who got involved in their children's education did not believe that they have a role to play in their children's education. On this basis the null hypothesis was rejected.

The finding was consistent with findings of Tannenbaum & Forehand (1992) who stated that fathers as teachers, disciplinarians and role models assume some of the responsibility for teaching their children what they need to know for life survival skills and for school learning. The findings were also in agreement with findings of Bruce (1994) who said that the more cooperation and communication required of men and women in their daily activities the more they are likely to be jointly involved in child care. According to Bruce (1994), the structure of a family who is present, how the household is organised and expectations of males and females in that set up all contribute to a definition of how men relate to children. In the present study, men who actually got involved in their children's education did so not because they believe it is their role to be involved but because they realised the importance of their children's education. Other factors other than what fathers believe to be their role would have contributed to fathers' involvement. This is because men who had attained secondary KCSE education level and above were more involved in their children's education than those who were below that education level. This then would suggest that their involvement would be as a result of understanding the importance of the child's education during the early years of his/her development.

On the other hand although those fathers who had little education believe that they have a role to play in their pre school children's education, they

did not see the importance of getting involved in their children's education in the early years. Therefore other factors may influence why fathers may believe that they have a role to play in their pre school children's education and they actually don't get involved. The factors may include their education level, the kind of work they do or the type of school the children attend.

The findings were consistent with findings of BvLF (2004) who established that in Western Europe, North America, some parts of Latin America and the Caribbean, qualitative descriptions of men expressing and experiencing confusion over their roles and identities as men and fathers were accumulating. As women take on new roles outside the home in ways that generally expand their skills and sense of self, most men have been much slower to take on new roles within the household, and many speak and behave defensively about women moving into or taking over traditional male spheres. When men take on household roles, these roles are not generally socially valued for or by men perhaps with the exception of involved fathers in some parts of Western Europe. To a lesser extent some men in various parts of the world are also beginning to question traditional trends that pull them away from their families. They are reflecting on their roles as fathers and the meaning their children hold for them. These men remain minorities in most if not all societies but these emerging social trends are nonetheless significant (BvLF, 2004). Daily, more and more men are being faced with pressure that call for these

reflections even if they are not yet ready to embrace the challenges. It would be possible that fathers in the present study found themselves in such a confusion where some actually got involved in their children's education but did not believe that it was their role to do so while others did not get involved but believed that they have a role to play in their children's education.

4.3.5 Father Involvement and Sex of the Child

The fifth objective of the study, sought to establish whether there was a significant relationship between fathers' involvement and gender of the child. Chi square was utilized to measure this relationship. Table 4.29 presents chi-square results on the expected and observed counts of father involvement based on the sex of the child.

Table 4.29 Expected and Observed Counts on Father Involvement and Sex of the Child

Sex of the child		Involvement Level			
		High	Moderate	Low	Total
Male	Count	28	26	26	80
	Expected Count	25	26	30	80.0
Female	Count	13	16	23	52
	Expected Count	16	17	19	52.0
Total	Count	41	42	49	132
	Expected Count	41.0	42.0	49.0	132.0

Table 4.29 indicates that the expected number of fathers with male children with high involvement was 25 but the observed number was 28 meaning that more fathers were highly involved than was expected. The

expected number of fathers having female children with high involvement was 16 but only 13 fathers were observed to be highly involved. This means that fewer fathers with female children were highly involved than it was expected. 30 fathers with male children were expected to be lowly involved but 26 fathers were observed to be lowly involved indicating that less fathers were lowly involved in their children's education than was expected. 19 fathers with female children were expected to be lowly involved but 23 fathers were lowly involved indicating that more fathers were lowly involved than was expected. 26 fathers with male children were expected to be moderately involved but 26 fathers were moderately involved meaning more fathers were involved than expected. 17 fathers with female children were expected to be moderately involved but 16 fathers were moderately involved. This finding suggest that fathers' involvement was not as a result of the sex of the child.

Relationship between fathers' involvement and sex of the child was tested using Chi-square to test the hypothesis that stated.

H.o.5. There is no significant relationship between fathers' involvement in their children's education at Preschool and sex of the child.

Table 4.30 present the calculated chi-square value on fathers' involvement and sex of the child

Table 4.30. Chi-square Computation on Father Involvement and Sex of the Child

Instrument used to measure	Calculated χ^2	Critical χ^2	df	Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	2.213 ^a	5.991	2	.392

Table 4.30 indicates that the calculated chi-square value was 2.213 at 2 degrees of freedom with a significance $p=0.392 > 0.05$ while the critical chi square value was 5.991. The calculated p value was greater than the critical value 0.05. The findings indicated that there was no significant relationship between the two variables. The null hypothesis was thus accepted on this finding. The findings show that whether fathers' get involved or not in their pre school children's education is not influenced by the sex of the child.

The findings did not agree with findings of Power & Parke (1982) who discovered that fathers displayed differential treatment for boys and girls. The inconsistency between the current study and the above study could be as a result of fathers valuing education for all their children as compared to getting involved generally with children not specifically in education which was the main focus of the current study.

The findings of this study were also inconsistent with findings of Gakuru & Koech (1995) who established that the values parents held for their children had gender bias. In the present study since fathers' involvement with their children was not influenced by sex of the child, then it shows that fathers do not value boys differently from girls. The result could be in

disagreement with the above study because the study focused on the value in terms of educating a boy/girl in high school while the current study focused on pre school children. Waime (2007) established that fathers tend to get engaged in discussions with adolescent sons than girls. This could be as a result of wanting to guide boys on male appropriate roles in society and in that case women are also expected to do the same for girls which are not reflected in the pre school years as per the findings of the current study.

Findings in the current study are inconsistent with findings of Adams and Trost (2005) who found that the presupposition in the postcolonial Kenya has been that boys will receive more formal education than girls. They stated that a minority of Kenyan mothers prefer to educate their daughters so that they will not forget their families. This is because daughters will assist younger siblings and old parents while educated sons become urban and forget their family. But the majority still favours education for males. The current study suggests that fathers treat their children equally regardless of their sex.

4.3.6 Father Involvement and Area of Residence

Objective six of this study, sought to establish whether there was a significant relationship between fathers' involvement and their area of residence. Chi square was utilized to establish this relationship. Table 4.31

presents the expected and the observed counts of fathers on their involvement based on their area of residence.

Table 4.31 Expected and Observed Counts on Father Involvement and Area of Residence

Residence		Involvement level			
		High	Moderate	Low	Total
urban	Count	24	20	23	67
	Expected Count	21	21	25	67.0
rural	Count	17	22	26	65
	Expected Count	20.	21	24	65.0
Total	Count	41	42	49	132
	Expected Count	41.0	42.0	49.0	132.0

Table 4.31 indicates that 21 fathers who live in urban were expected to be highly involved in their children's education but 24 fathers were highly involved showing that more fathers were highly involved than was expected. 20 fathers living in rural were expected to be highly involved but only 17 fathers were highly involved showing that less fathers in that category were highly involved than was expected. 25 fathers living in urban were expected to be lowly involved in their children's education but 23 fathers were lowly involved showing that less fathers in that category were lowly involved than was expected. 24 fathers living in rural were expected to be lowly involved but 26 fathers were lowly involved showing that more fathers in that category were lowly involved than it was expected. 21 fathers in urban were expected to be moderately involved but 20 fathers were moderately involved showing that less fathers were moderately involved than was expected. 21 fathers living in rural were

expected to be moderately involved in their children's education but 22 fathers were moderately involved showing that more fathers than expected were moderately involved. The findings suggest that fathers' involvement is not influenced by where they reside.

The relationship between father involvement and area of resident was computed using Chi-square to test the hypothesis that stated:

H.o.6. There is no significant relationship between fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education and their area of residence

Table 4.32 presents the findings on Chi-square computation on father involvement and area of residence.

Table 4.32 Chi-Square Computation on Father Involvement and Area of Residence

Instrument used to measure	Calculated χ^2	Critical χ^2	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	1.444 ^a	5.991	2	.486

Table 4.32 indicates that the calculated chi-square value was 1.444 at 2 degrees of freedom with a significance $p=0.486 > 0.05$ while the critical chi square value was 5.991. The calculated p value was greater than the critical value 0.05. Based on this finding the null hypothesis was accepted indicating that there was no significant relationship between the two

variables. The findings indicate that whether a father get involved in his child's education or not is not influenced by where he lives.

The findings were inconsistent with the findings of Katerina (2001) who established that fathers from rural areas with low academic achievements and occupational status were less likely to contribute to child care practices than fathers living in urban areas with high educational and occupational status. While fathers who were more educated were more involved in their pre school children's education there was no indication of rural versus urban fathers getting less/more involved in regard to their education or occupation level.

The findings were also inconsistent with findings of Ndani 2008 who found out that there was a significant difference in the level of participation at preschool between rural and urban communities. In relation to the association between the level of participation and rural locations, rural communities were found to participate more than the urban ones. Parents in urban seemed to pay high fees and leave most of the areas of participation particularly volunteering and decision making to management. The current study may suggest that where a father lived did not have any influence on how to interact with their children as far as their education was concern. The inconsistency could be as a result of the subjects who were involved in the studies and the constructs that were being measured were different. While Ndani's study focused on

relationship between community participation and preschool Microsystems focusing both parents the current study focused on fathers alone in relation to their preschool children's performance.

4.3.7 Father Involvement and Type of Preschool

Objective seven of the study sought to establish whether there was a significant relationship between father involvement and type of preschool the child attended. Chi square was utilized to establish this relationship. Table 4.33 presents the expected and observed counts of fathers on their involvement according to the type of preschool their children attended.

Table 4.33 Expected and Observed Counts on Father Involvement and Type of Preschool Child Attend

Type of school		Involvement level			
		High involvement	Moderate	Low Involvement	Total
Public	Count	12	15	38	65
	Expected Count	20	21	24	65.0
private	Count	29	27	11	67
	Expected Count	21	21	25	67.0
Total	Count	41	42	49	132
	Expected Count	41.0	42.0	49.0	132.0

Table 4.33 indicates that 20 fathers having children in public preschools were expected to be highly involved in their children's education but only 12 fathers in that category were highly involved showing that less fathers than was expected were highly involved. 21 fathers having children in private preschools were expected to be highly involved but 29 fathers were highly involved showing that more fathers than was expected in that

category were highly involved. 24 fathers having children in public preschools were expected to be lowly involved but 38 fathers in that category were lowly involved showing that more fathers than was expected were lowly involved. 25 fathers having children in private preschools were expected to be lowly involved but only 11 fathers in that category were lowly involved showing that less fathers than expected were lowly involved. 21 fathers having children in public preschools were expected to be moderately involved but only 15 fathers were moderately involved showing that less fathers than expected were moderately involved. 21 fathers having children in private preschools were expected to be moderately involved but 27 fathers in that category were moderately involved showing that more fathers than was expected were moderately involved in their children's education. The finding suggest that more fathers with children in private preschools were highly involved than fathers having children in public preschools. This indicates that the type of preschool the child attend influence fathers' involvement in their education.

The relationship between father involvement and type of preschool was computed using Chi-square to test the hypothesis that stated:

H.o.7. There is no significant relationship between fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education and the type of pre school the child attend.

Table 4.34 presents findings on the Chi-square computation for the above hypothesis.

Table 4.34 Chi-Square Computation on Father Involvement and Type of Preschool

Instrument used to measure	Calculated χ^2	Critical χ^2	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Pearson Chi-Square	25.330 ^a	5.991	2	.000

Table 4.34 indicates that the calculated Chi-square was 25.330 at 2 degrees of freedom with a significance value $p=0.000 < 0.05$ while the critical chi square value was 5.991. The calculated p value was less than the critical value 0.05. This shows that there was a significant relationship between father involvement and type of preschool the child attended. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected based on this finding. This shows that fathers' involvement is influenced by the type of preschool the child attends.

Findings in this study were consistent with the findings of Coleman and Hoffer, (1987) who established that fathers in two parents and in single parent families were more likely to be highly involved if their children attended private as opposed to public schools. This is because private schools often make parental involvement a requirement, and thus, part of the higher involvement may be due to school policies. Coleman et al have also argued that private schools, particularly private, religiously affiliated schools, have greater amounts of social capital due to the greater sense of community present in these schools. Parents may be more willing to

become involved when they know and are friendly with other parents in the school. Hoffer also found that school size may be another important influence on parental involvement because it may be easier to establish ties with administrators, teachers, and other parents when schools are not very large. If that is the case, parents may feel more comfortable and more welcomed by smaller schools. High involvement by fathers in two-parent families is greater in smaller as opposed to larger schools.

The findings were also consistent with findings of Hirschman 1970 who established that parents have an option of becoming more involved if public schools under perform. They can spend more time helping their children in the home, they can provide the school with more resources, or they can complain directly in a bid to improve quality what Hirschman 1970 termed as voice. This voice channel applying pressure on school providers provides an alternative to existing private schools. Once parental pressure and competition are allowed to influence school conduct, the productivity impact of greater competition depends on whether parental pressure is reinforced or undermined by greater competition.

The findings were also consistent with findings of Ndani (2008) who established that there was a significant difference in the level of participation in the preschool activities among the communities in the various preschool sponsorships. She noted that highest participation of parents was in private schools where respondents with higher academic

qualifications took their children. She noted that, in private schools the most common mode of participation was communication, as most private schools required that parents make comments and sign in their children's home work books daily. One to one conferences between the teacher and parents suggesting places for field trips, accompanying children in trips and end of term discussions on children's performance comprised the other activities in private schools. Public schools in addition to attending meetings parents were sometimes involved in deciding on matters related to provision of learning materials, fees to be paid, construction of facilities and their maintenance. In the current study, fathers got more involved in paying fees for their children, selecting and purchasing books and uniform for their children. The findings were also consistent with findings of Koech (2009) who established that there was a significant difference in means of parental involvement in public and private schools.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the study. The findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between fathers' involvement and children's performance in preschool activities. It was also established that there was a significant difference in means of father's involvement between fathers of different academic levels and occupations. Fathers' involvement and type of preschool the child attended were found to be significantly related. Fathers' involvement was not found to be significantly related to sex of the child and their area of resident.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the summary of the study and the implications are presented with major conclusions that can be drawn from the study. Recommendations for various stake holders are also discussed together with recommendations for future research.

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study has provided information on the extent to which fathers are involved in their children's education and the relationship of that involvement to children's performance at preschool. Involvement in children's education was measured by the number of different types of activities that fathers participate in to enhance their children's education. The activities were broadly grouped into: communication, teaching, shared activities, providing and monitoring. Out of the broad categorization, 26 items were generated reflecting the specific actions fathers engage in with their children that showed they were involved or not in supporting their children's education with responses ranging from always, rarely and not at all to show how often they got involved. Fathers were said to have high involvement in their children's education if they always did the activities. They were considered moderately involved if they rarely participated in the said activity and lowly involved if they did not at all participate in any activity.

The main purpose of the study was to explore whether fathers' involvement in their preschool children's education influence children's performance at preschool activities with a special focus on the factors that were likely to influence their involvement. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient was computed which indicated that there was a significant correlation between fathers' involvement and children's performance at preschool. Fathers who were involved in their children's education had children who performed better in preschool activities than children who's fathers were not involved. The same statistic was computed for father involvement and their belief on their role with children and findings indicated that there was a negative correlation between the two variables. This indicated that fathers who believed that they have a role to play in their children's education did not get involved while those who did not belief that they have a role to play got involved.

The factors that were found to be influencing fathers' involvement included their education level where ANOVA computation indicated that there was a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement between fathers of different academic levels. Fathers with primary academic level significantly differed in their mean involvement with fathers having college certificate and those with university degree. Fathers with secondary education level significantly differed in their mean involvement with those having college certificate and those with university

degree. This shows that fathers who were more educated with post secondary education got involved in their children's education than those who had not attained the same education level.

ANOVA computation also revealed that there was a significant difference in means of fathers' involvement between fathers of different occupations. Fathers who were teachers significantly differed in their mean involvement with those who were not working and those who were small scale farmers and businessmen. This clearly indicated that teachers were more involved in their children's education than fathers of other occupations.

Type of preschool the child attended was found to be significantly related to fathers' involvement. Chi-square computation indicated that fathers who had children in private preschools were more involved than fathers who had children in public preschools.

Other factors that were investigated but were not found to be significantly related to fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education included the sex of the child and fathers' area of residence. This clearly showed that whether fathers get involved in their children's education or not, is not influenced by the sex of the child or their area of residence.

The findings were found to be consistent with studies that had been carried out in other countries especially those that suggested that fathers'

involvement is influenced by academic level, type of occupation, their belief on their role in their children's education and the type of school children attended. However findings of the study were found to be inconsistent with studies which suggested that fathers' involvement is influenced by gender of the child and area of residence for the father. This inconsistency could be as a result of the different geographical locations and cultural differences depicting where the studies were carried out, the fathers who participated and the construct that was being measured. For instance many studies from the west measured fathers' involvement in child care and children's performance during early years through adolescence while the present study only focused on children's performance at preschool and in pre unit in relation to their fathers' involvement.

5.2 Implications of the Findings

Fathers' involvement in their children's education was found to influence children's performance at preschool. This implies that children tend to do better when they realize that their fathers are more interested and get involved in their school activities. Therefore performance in school activities is likely to be high or low depending on whether or not fathers get involved in their children's education.

Fathers' education level was found to be significantly associated to their involvement in their children's education. Fathers who were more

educated with at least post secondary education were found to be more involved in their children's education than those who did not have the same education level. This implies that limited education may not allow fathers to see the importance of assisting their children in their education activities. Fathers who are not educated may find it difficult to assist their children in doing school work may be, because they themselves are not able to read and write and therefore school work may be challenging to them. There is need for programs where fathers may have opportunities to acquire knowledge and skills that may boost their literacy levels to enable them support their children with school activities.

Fathers' occupation was found to be significant in influencing fathers' involvement in their children's education. The implication of this finding is that fathers who were employed with stable jobs were more involved than fathers who were not working or who were self employed. This may also imply that fathers who were teachers understood the importance of their involvement in their children's education which they did, to maximize children's performance that was not the same for fathers who were not teachers.

Type of preschool the child attended was found to be significantly related to fathers' involvement in their children's education. This implies that fathers who had children in private pre schools were more involved in their children's education than fathers who had children in public pre schools.

There is a possibility that administrators in private pre schools would be having mechanisms in place to ensure that parents get involved in their children's education than administrators in public pre schools. There is therefore need for administrators in public pre schools to find ways in which they can ensure that parents are effectively involved in their children's education.

Fathers' belief in their role with children was found to be significantly related to their involvement in their children's education. This implies that once fathers realize the important role they play in enhancing their children's education, they are likely to be involved in their children's education. In this way fathers are likely to find it necessary to be keen on what children do at home and in school.

Fathers' involvement in their children's education was not found to be significantly related to their area of residence. This implies that regardless of where a father lives whether rural or urban, does not influence the way they get engaged with their children in relation to education matters.

Fathers' involvement in their children's education was not found to be significantly related to the sex of the child. This implies that fathers treat their children equally on matters of education regardless of their sex.

5.3 Conclusion

Fathers' involvement in their children's education was found to be significantly related to Children's performance in school. Children are likely to do better in school when fathers are involved in their education than when they (fathers) are not. Activities that fathers were found to be highly involved in include, paying school fees for their children, selecting and purchasing uniform for their children, selecting and purchasing books, ensuring children's safety while at home and buying a present for their children when they performed well in school.

Various factors were found to influence fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education. These included fathers' academic level, their occupation, fathers' belief on their role in their child's education and type of school the children attended. All these factors were found to be significantly associated with fathers' involvement in their preschool children's education. Fathers who were more educated, with stable jobs, and had children in private preschools were found to be highly involved than fathers who had low education, were self employed/not working and had children in public preschools. Therefore this indicates that the above factors are important ingredients in facilitating fathers' involvement in their children's education.

Sex of the child and area of residence were not found to facilitate fathers' involvement in their children's education implying that fathers treat their

children equally. It also implies that regardless of where fathers live whether rural or urban does not influence their involvement in their children's education.

5.4 Recommendations

Various recommendations were suggested drawn from the study findings for various stake holders and for future research.

5.4.1 Recommendations for School Managers and Administrators

1. Findings indicated that fathers who were involved in their children's education had children who performed better than children whose fathers were not involved. Therefore there is need for school managers and administrators to find ways of introducing programmes to ensure that fathers closely monitor and participate in; assisting their children with school work, buying children a present when they perform well, attending school meetings and discussing with teachers about their children's progress. This is likely to motivate children to work harder and to do their school work better. This can be achieved if open days can be introduced in school where once in a term fathers come to school to view children's work and discuss with teachers.
2. Fathers who had their children in private preschools were found to be highly involved than those with children in public preschools. There is need for managers and administrators in public pre schools

to put systems in place to ensure that fathers are engaged in their children's education either by inviting them to school during open days to discuss with teachers about their children's performance, or introduce diary system where fathers have to ensure that children do school work while at home and to sign children's diary that the work was done by the child. There is also need for school managers and administrators to have programmes where once in a term or in a year they have a special day for fathers and their children to educate them on the important role they play in their children's education and development.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Policy Makers in the Ministry of Education

1. Fathers' academic level was found to be significantly associated with their involvement in their children's education. There is need for the education policy makers to strengthen the curriculum of adult education which in the current gender policy in education (2007) put more emphasis on adult education for illiterate women and youth out of school. The major challenge in that policy is to increase enrolment of men into adult education and that the adult education curriculum at the moment is not addressing the literacy needs of men effectively. Therefore there is need to overhaul the curriculum to be responsive to fathers' literacy needs.

2. Fathers' belief in their role with their children was found to be significantly related to their involvement in their children's education. There is need for the ministry of education to start programmes where workshops and seminars are held in schools to sensitize fathers on the important role they play in boosting their children's performance in school when they get involved in their children's education. This may motivate fathers to want to try to be able to support their children.

5.4.3 Recommendation for Other Agencies

1. Fathers' involvement in their children's education was found to be significantly associated with their occupation. Employed fathers were found to be more involved in their children's education than unemployed fathers. There is need for non governmental organisations and micro finance institutions to encourage unemployed fathers to form men groups just like youth groups and women groups to start income generating activities for men not working so as to be able to support their children's education effectively.

5.4.4 Recommendations for KIE/NACECE

2. There is need for the Kenya Institute of Education and the National Centre for Early Childhood Education to come up with a curriculum aimed at mobilizing the communities on the important role fathers play in their children's education when they get

involved in the educational activities. This can be conducted in terms of seminars and workshops at the grass root level.

5.4.5 Recommendations for Future Research

1. There is need for a longitudinal study where fathers' involvement in their pre school children's education can be studied right from pre school level through primary eight so as to establish whether their involvement has influence on how their children perform in their KCPE exam.
2. The present study focused on fathers in general and their involvement, but there is need for a study to be carried out to establish whether fathers in single families, those in nuclear families and those in polygamous families all get involved in their children's education equally.
3. Findings in this study relied on the self reports from fathers on their involvement, but there is need for a study to be carried out where mothers, teachers and children can be involved in reporting on how fathers get involved in their children's education. This will give an overview of what fathers do with their children at home and in school in regard to enhancing their children's education. This will give an insight of what others see fathers doing to support their children's education. By collecting information on student outcomes from schools as well as parents, researchers would be able to determine whether fathers' participation in school activities

colors their attitudes or their assessment of how their children are doing. Such information would be useful to other studies, such as this one, which did not have access to school records. It would also provide a stronger test of the relationship between paternal involvement and student outcomes.

4. The study focused on the Abagusii fathers alone but there is need for a cross cultural study on fathers' involvement with their children which may give a broader overview on Kenyan fathers and whether they get involved in their children's education or not.
5. Since the current study focused on pre school children, there is need for another study to focus on fathers and infants. This may give scholars an overview of how fathers get involved with their infants thus supporting mothers in care giving.
6. The study focused on fathers' involvement and children's performance at preschool, there is need for a study to be carried out focusing on fathers' involvement and children's feelings about their dads and how they relate with other children either in school or at home.

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Appendices

Appendix One: A Questionnaire for Fathers

Section (a): Demographic Information

1. What is your age range?

- ☐
- 26-30 ☐
- 31-35 ☐
- 36-40 ☐
- 41-45 ☐
- 46-50 ☐
- 50+ ☐

2. Which is your highest level of academic?

- Primary ☐
- Secondary ☐
- College ☐
- University degree ☐

3. What do you do to earn a living?

- Not working ☐
- Small scale Farming ☐
- Teaching ☐
- Clerical ☐
- Manager ☐
- Others specify _____

4. Which school does your child attend?

• Public

• Private

5. What is the name of your child at Pre School? _____

6. What is the sex of your preschool child?

• Male

• Female

7. Where do you live?

• Town

• Rural

Section: (b). Fathers' Involvement

Using the following words please indicate how often you do yourself each of the activities below for your preschool child.

- Not at all
- Rarely
- Always

	Not at all	Rarely	Always
1. Listening carefully to your child as he/she talk to you			
2. Talking to your child about school work			
3. Calling your child on phone when you are away			

4. Praising the child when he performs well in school			
5. Showing genuine interest on the child's friends			
6. Giving advise to your child about doing schoolwork.			
7. Disciplining the child			
8. Commenting on the child's progress			
9. Answering the child's questions			
10. Teaching the child how to read			
11. Teaching the child how to pray			
12. Checking whether the child has school work to do			
13. Ensuring that the child's school work is done and there is progress			
14. Attending the parent-teacher meetings			
15. Talking to the teacher about the child's progress			
16. Ensuring the child's safety while at home			
17. Finding out about the child's friends and what they do when			

together			
18. Showing the child how to do schoolwork			
19. Going to church with the child			
20. Eating together with the child			
21. Playing with the child			
22. Making play materials with the child			
23. Selecting and purchasing books for the child			
24. Purchasing uniform for the child			
25. Paying school fees for the child			
26. Buying a present for the child when he/she performs well in school			

Section (c). Fathers' Belief

Use the following terms to indicate what you belief to be your role in dealing with your child.

- Disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree
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1. I should listen carefully to my child when he/she talk to me			
2. I should talk to my child about his/her school work			
3. I should call my child on phone when I am away			
4. I should praise my child when he/she performs well in school			
5. I should show genuine interest on my child's friends			
6. I should give advise to my child on school work			
7. I should discipline my child			
8. I should comment on my child's progress			
9. I should answer my child's questions			
10. I should teach my child how to read			
11. I should teach my child how to pray			
12. I should check whether my child has schoolwork to do			

13. I should ensure that my child does his/her school work			
14. I should attend the parents teacher meetings			
15. I should talk to the teacher about my child's progress			
16. I should ensure my child's safety at home			
17. I should find out about my child's friends			
18. I should show my child how to do school work			
19. I should go to church together with my child			
20. I should eat together with my child.			
21. I should play with my child			
22. I should make play materials with my child			
23. I should select and purchase story books for my child to read			
24. I should purchase school uniform for my child			

25. I should pay school fees for my child			
26. I should buy a present for my child when he/she performs well in school			

Appendix Two: Translation of the Questionnaire in Ekegusii

Ensembo ya (a): Iraneria Amabori Akobwati ase ogocharoki

Emiaka yao ing'ai eberete ase eye ekobwati?

- 20-25
- 26-30
- 31-35
- 36-40
- 41-45
- 46-50
- 50+

Gwasomete baka kewango kereki

- Eburemari
- Esekondari
- Ekorechi
- Eyunifasiti

Egasi nereri ogokora?

- Tori gokora gasi ende yonsi
- Ekonda
- Oboremi
- Obwarimu
- Obokarani
- Oboteneneri
- Gose nereri?

Sukuru ki omwana oo bwenasari agosoma?

- Eyeserekari
- Eyabanyene

Erieta riomwana oo ore enasari ndiriri?

Ing'ai omenyete?

- Etaoni
- Risabu

Ensemu ya (b)

Chora amarieta akobwati goteba buna okomokorera omwana oo ebinto bikobwatia otumie amang'ana aya:

- **Tindi gokora bi**
- **Ngokora ake ake**
- **Ngokora botambe**

	Tindi gokora bi	Ngokora ake ake	Ngokora botambe
1. Komotegerera omwana oo kagokwana			
2. Gokwanera omwana oo igoro ya amasomo			
3. Goakera omwana oo esimi ekero ore are			
4. Komotogia omwana oo gaetire			

buya esukuru			
5. Koorokia omwan oo ing'a mbwanchete abasani baye			
6. Koorokereria omwana buna agokora egasi yesukuru			
7. Kobundisa omwana chimbu chingiya			
8. Gokwana igoro yomwana oo buna agokora buya esukuru			
9. Gochibu amabori yomwan onsi			
10. Koorokereria omwana buna agosoma			
11. Koorokereria omwana buna akomosaba Nyasae			
12. Korigereria gose omwana naegwa egasi korwa esukuru akorere inka			
13. Goitona gose omwana nakora egesi yonsi aetwe korwa esukuru			
14. Kogenda emekutano yabaibori nabarimu			
15. Gokwanera omwarimu igoro yomwana na amasomo aye			

16. Korigereria ing'a omwana tari kounia ekero are inka			
17. Gotaka komanya igoro yabasani bagotara nomwana oo nekebagokora kobare amo			
18. Komoorokereria omwana buna agokora egasi yaye ya amasomo			
19. Kogenda ekanisa amo nomwana oo			
20. Koragera nomwana oo amo			
21. Gochiesa nomwana oo			
22. Korosia ebinto biogochiesera nomwana oo			
23. Gochora nakogorera omwana oo ebitabu			
24. Gochora nakomogorera omwana oo eyanga yesukuru			
25. Goakanera omwana oo efisi			
26. Kogorera omwana oo ekeegwa ekero aetire buya esukuru			

Ensemo ya ©

Chora amang'ana akobwati goteba buna bwenete igoro yegasi yao ase

omwana oo:

- Nakanire
- Nancheranire
- Nancheranire mono

	Nakanire	Nancheranire	Nancheranire mono
1. Goika namotegerera omwana kagokwana			
2. Goika nakwanera omwana igoro ya amasomo aye			
3. Goika naakera omwana esimi ekero inde are nere			
4. Goika namotogia omwana gaetire buya esukuru			
5. Goika naorokia omwan ing'a ning'anchete abasani baye			
6. Goika namoorokereria omwana buna agokora			

egasi yesukuru			
7. Goika ifundishe omwana chimbu chingiya			
8. Goika inkwane igoro yomwana buna agokora buya esukuru			
9. Goika ing'iraneri amabori yomwana onsi			
10. Goika imoorokereria omwana buna agosoma			
11. Goika imoorokereria omwana buna akomosaba Nyasae			
12. Goika indigereria gose omwana naegwa egasi korwa esukuru akorere inka			
13. Goika ing'itona gose omwana nakora egesi yonsi aetwe korwa esukuru			
14. Goika ing'ikerane ase emekutano yabaibori nabarimu			
15. Goika inkwanera			

omwarimu igoro yomwana na amasomo aye			
16. Goika indigereria ing'a omwana tari kumia ekero are inka			
17. Goika intake komanya igoro yabasani bagotara nomwana one nekebagokora kobare amo			
18. Goika imoorokereria omwana buna agokora egasi yaye ya amasomo			
19. Goika ing'ende ekanisa amo nomwana one			
20. Goika indagere amo nomwana one			
21. Goika inchiese nomwana one			
22. Goika torosie ebinto biogochiesera nomwana one			
23. Goika nachora nakogorera omwana one ebitabu			

24. Goika nachora nakomogorera omwana one eyanga yesukuru			
25. Goika naakanera omwana one efisi			
26. Goika nagorera omwana one ekeegwa ekero aetire buya esukuru			