

**INFLUENCE OF FAMILY STRUCTURE ON STUDENTS'
PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE
IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KIAMBU COUNTY,
KENYA.**

KIMARU GRACEANN WANJIRU

**THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATIONAL
PSYCHOLOGY IN MAASAI MARA UNIVERSITY**

2021

DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

I hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for examination for the award of degree or diploma in this or any other university.

Signature _____ Date _____

Kimaru Graceann Wanjiru

Reg. No: DE04/4009/2012

APPROVAL

Supervisors:

This research thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university supervisors.

Signature _____ Date: _____

Dr. Mwaura Kimani

Lecturer, Department of Education Foundation and Psychology

Maasai Mara University

Signature _____ Date: _____

Dr. Newton Mukolwe

Lecturer, Department of Education Foundation and Psychology

Maasai Mara University

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my Dad Mr. Francis Kimaru and my late Mum Mrs. Hannah Wanjiku who introduced me to school, my husband Dr Francis Kiarie and my children: Rachel Njeri and Kenneth Kiarie, my son in-law Raymond Gitonga, my grandchildren Denise Nyaguthii, Raphael Njeru, Jesse Kanyi, Jerome Kiarie, Amalie Mareigu and my nephew Francis Kimaru for their understanding, patience, support, encouragement, prayers and motivation during the period of my study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am grateful to the Almighty God for giving me good health, knowledge and wisdom to undertake this doctorate. I am grateful for the opportunity to obtain PhD at Masaai Mara University. I am extremely grateful for the excellent guidance and support by my academic supervisors, Dr Mwaura Kimani and Dr. Newton Mukolwe, Lecturers Department of Education Foundation and Psychology, Masaai Mara University. I am grateful to all my committee members for their expertise in terms of insightful comments. I would like to extend my gratitude to Dr Bonface Ngaruiya of University of Nairobi, for his constant and consistent encouragement throughout the PhD studies and for finding time to read earlier drafts of this work. I thank secondary school administrators and students, including all other people who were involved in facilitating my research work. I am grateful to Dr Margaret Mwaura and Madam Peris Njoroge for peer reviewing my research work, support and encouragement throughout the course of study. I am grateful to Ms Phyllis Muchemi, Mrs Catherine Mureithi and Mr Kevin Kamumbu of Kabete National Polytechnic for their unwavering encouragement and moral support. To all those friends and colleagues who contributed variedly towards completion of this work but whose names I have not mentioned due to space limitation, I am most grateful. Finally, I am deeply indebted to my husband, Dr. Francis Kiarie, our children and grandchildren for their love and patience during the long journey of my PhD studies.

ABSTRACT

Urbanization, industrialization, globalization, changing cultural trends and the social metric shift of the late 20th century has led to profound change in family structure worldwide over the last five decades. The trends indicate that the number of children living in two parent families is declining sharply. On the other hand, the trend shows that the number of children living in single parent families is on the increase. These trends in the family structure have major implications on the psychosocial aspects and academic performance of children. Increase in psychosocial and schooling problems such as drug abuse, school arson and strikes, bullying, early sexual debut, teen pregnancy, suicidal thoughts and suicide, and examination malpractices among secondary school students is becoming a major challenge in Kenya. The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of family structure on students' psychosocial aspects and academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. The study was guided by four objectives namely: to find out the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance; to establish the influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relationships; to determine the influence of family structure on students' social integration and to establish the influence of family structure on students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. The study was anchored on Maslow's Hierarchy of needs and Social cognitive theories. Descriptive research design was adopted for the study. Purposive sampling was used to select Kiambu County and form four students while proportionate stratified sampling technique was used to select 30 schools from the 274 public secondary schools in Kiambu County. Random sampling technique was employed to select the 385 students from the selected schools. Self-administered student's questionnaire containing sub- scales on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships and social integration and the KCSE national examination results of 2017 were used for data collection. Reliability of the questionnaire was tested by computing Cronbach alpha coefficient. Collected data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics in line with the study objectives. The null hypotheses were tested using Kruskal Wallis H test (one-way ANOVA on ranks) test at 0.05 significance level. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) aided the data analysis. The findings indicated statistically significant influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance, $\chi^2(1) = 47.4, p = .000$. No statistically significant influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relationships, $\chi^2(1) = 2.02, p = .155$; social integration, $\chi^2(1) = 0.028, p = 0.866$ and academic performance, $\chi^2(1) = 0.898, p = 0.343$ was found. A major implication and recommendation of the study was that all stakeholders in education should validate and foster the development self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance among students. Warm, nurturing, structured and authoritative school environment to be provided for healthy development of students' psychosocial aspects and academic performance. Further research should also consider other family structure factors such as family disposition, family relationships, gender of single parent, parental social-economic status, duration in the family structure and their influence on psychosocial aspects and academic performance of the students. The major beneficiaries of this study are students, teachers, parents and policy makers.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE	I
DECLARATION AND APPROVAL	II
DEDICATION	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	IV
ABSTRACT	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VI
LIST OF TABLES	IX
LIST OF FIGURES	XI
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	XII
LIST OF APPENDICES	XIII
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Background to the Study.....	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem.....	8
1.4 Purpose of the Study	10
1.4.1 Objectives of the Study	10
1.5 Hypotheses of the study	10
1.6 Significance of the Study	11
1.7 Scope of the Study	12
1.8. Limitations of the Study.....	12
1.9 Assumptions of the Study	14
1.10 Operational definition of Terms.....	15
CHAPTER TWO	17
LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.1 Introduction.....	17
2.2 Family Structure and Self- Acceptance	17
2.3 Family Structure and Interpersonal relationships	28

2.4	Family Structure and social integration in school	36
2.5	Family Structure and Academic Performance of Students	41
2.6	Summary of Reviewed Literature and Research Gaps	58
2.7	Theoretical Framework	60
2.7.1	The hierarchy of needs theory by Abraham Maslow (1954)	60
2.7.2	Social cognitive theory	61
2.8	Conceptual Framework of the Study	62
	CHAPTER THREE.....	64
	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	64
3.1	Introduction	64
3.2	Research Design	64
3.3	Location of the study	65
3.4	Target Population	65
3.5	Sample Size and Sampling Procedure	66
3.5.1	Sampling Techniques and Procedure	66
3.5.2	Sample Size Determination	68
3.6	Research Instruments	69
3.6.1	Students' Questionnaire	70
3.7	Pilot Study	71
3.7.1	Validity of the research instruments	71
3.7.2	Reliability of the research instrument	73
3.8	Data Collection	74
3.9	Data Analysis	75
3.10	Logistics and Ethical Considerations.	76
	CHAPTER FOUR	77
	FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS	77
4.1	Introduction	77
4.2	General Information and Questionnaire Return Rate	78
4.3	Demographic Information of the Participants	79
4.3.1	Distribution of Respondents by Age	80
4.3.2	Distribution of the Respondents by gender	81

4.3.3 Distribution of respondents by Area of Residence	81
4.3.4 Distribution of Respondents by Type of School Attended	82
4.3.5 Distribution of Respondents by Family Structure and Self-Acceptance	83
4.3.6 Family Structure and Interpersonal Relationships	103
4.3.8 Family structure and Academic Performance	125
4.4 Hypothesis Testing and Discussion of Inferential Results.....	137
4. 4.1 Influence of Family structure on Self-acceptance	137
4.4.2 Influence of Family Structure on Interpersonal relationships	144
4.4.3 Family Structure and Social Integration	150
4.4.4 Family Structure and Academic Performance	152
CHAPTER FIVE	158
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	158
5.1 Introduction	158
5.2 Summary	158
5.3 Conclusions	160
5.4 Recommendations.....	163
5.4.1 Policy Recommendations	163
5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research	164
REFERENCES	165
APPENDICES	174

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2:Public Secondary Schools in Kiambu county.....	66
Table 3:Sample population distribution.....	69
Table 4: Return Rate	79
Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Age.....	80
Table 6: Respondents distribution by Gender.....	81
Table 7: Distribution of Respondents by Area of Residence.....	82
Table 8: Distribution of respondents by type of school Attended	83
Table 9: Distribution of respondents by family structure	84
Table 10: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Self-acceptance.....	86
Table 11: Distribution of Respondents by Levels of Self-acceptance.....	88
Table 12: Distribution of respondents across family structures and age brackets.....	92
Table 13: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-acceptance and Age	93
Table 14: Distribution of respondents by Family Structure across Areas of Residence 94	94
Table 15: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-Acceptance and Area of residence	96
Table 16: Distribution of respondents by Family Structure across School Type	97
Table 17 a : Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-acceptance and School Type	99
Table 17 b: Distribution of students by family structure, School residential Status and Self-acceptance	101
Table 18: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Interpersonal Relationships	103
Table 19: Levels of Interpersonal Relationships	105
Table 20: Distribution of students by family structure, Interpersonal relationships and age	107
Table 21 a: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Interpersonal Relationships and School Type	109
Table 21 b:Distribution of students by family structure, Interpersonal Relations and School Type	111
Table 22: Distribution of students by family structure, Area of residence and Interpersonal Relationships.....	113
4.3.7 Family Structure and Social Integration	114
Table 23: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Social Integration	115
Table 24: Respondents Levels of Social Integration	117

Table 25:Distribution of students by family structure, age and Social Integration ...	120
Table 26 a:Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Social Integration and School Type	121
Table 26 b:Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Social Integration and School type.....	123
Table 28: Summary Statistics for Participants Academic performance	125
Table 29: Distribution of Students by Levels of Academic Performance	126
Table30: Distribution of students by family structure, gender and Academic Performance	128
Table31:Distribution of students by family structure, age and Academic Performance	129
Table 32 a:Distribution of students by family structure, School residential Status and Academic Performance	130
Table 32 b:Distribution of students by family structure, School Type and Academic Performance	132
Table33:Distribution of students by family structure, Area of residence and academic Performance	134
Table 34: School Fees Payment Promptness and Parental Support.....	135
Table 35: Parental school Assignments Assistance	136
Table 36 a:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures.....	138
Table 36 b:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures across gender.....	141
Table 36 c:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures across schools attended	143
Table 37 a: Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Interpersonal Relationships Scores between family structures.....	145
Table 37 b: Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Interpersonal Relationships Scores between Family Structures across gender	148
Table 38:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Social Integration Scores between family structures.....	150
Table 39 a:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Academic Performance Scores between family structures.....	153
Table 39 b:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Academic Performance Scores between Family Structures across schools attended	155

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Relationships between the Variables of the Study <i>Source: Researcher, (2017)</i>	63
Figure 2: Distribution of respondents by Self-acceptance, Family Structure and Gender.	90
Figure 3: Distribution of respondents by Interpersonal Relationships, Family Structure and gender	106
Figure 4: Distribution of students by family structure, gender and Social Integration	118

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
GoK	Government of Kenya
HOD	Head of Department
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary academic
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
NACADA	National Agency for Campaign on Drug Abuse.
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USA.	United States of America

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Students' Consent Form to Participate in the Study	174
Appendix B: Students' Questionnaire	175
Appendix C: Research Permission from Maasai Mara University Post- Graduate Studies.....	180
Appendix D: Research Authorization from Kiambu County Director of Education .	181
Appendix E : Research Authorization from National Council For Science, Technology, and Innovation (Nacosti).....	182
Appendix F: NACOSTI Research Permit.....	183
Appendix G: A map of Kiambu County	184

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This section of the thesis presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose, objectives and hypotheses of the study. The chapter also details the significance of the study, scope and limitations of the study, assumptions of the study and definition of operational terms as used in the study.

1.2 Background to the Study

How we feel internally (psychological aspects) affects how we relate to the environment around us (social aspects). Therefore, the term psychosocial denotes the dynamic relationship between psychological processes (mind, thoughts, emotions, feelings and behaviour) and social processes (interaction and relationship with others, environment, cultures and traditions, rules and tasks) and the fact that each continually interacts with and influences the other. Psychological aspects include self-acceptance, autonomy, intra relations, environmental mastery, personal growth and purpose in life (Ryff & Singer 2006). Social aspects include social acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration, social organization, social contribution and social coherence (Cicognani, Pirini, Keyes, Joshanloo, Rostami & Nosratabadi, 2008).

The current study focused on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships and social integration aspects. This is because when self-acceptance (psychological aspect) is disturbed, interpersonal relationships (social aspect) are likely to be upset (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Failure to form interpersonal relationships results into incompetent social behavior, social withdrawal and social anxiety (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Social behavior problem in turn leads to poor social integration (social aspect). It can then be

concluded that the passageways to students' behavior problems is initiated and upheld by relationships in which they take part, and these relationships are subjective to a student's self-acceptance level.

Ryff and Singer (2006) defines self-acceptance as an individual's attitude about himself or herself. It is the capacity to acknowledge and accept multiple characteristics of self, including good and bad qualities and the feeling about past life. Self-acceptance affects one's thought, one's world interpretation, confidence and self-image. Self-acceptance is the potential to achieve goals, therefore low self-acceptance can lead to failure and emotional problems (Farid& Akhar, 2013; Ross & Miller, 2009). Students with low self-acceptance may therefore never actualize in the personal growth and even in academic areas, which in turn may affect their interpersonal relationships level.

Upadyaya and Salmera-Aro (2013) defines interpersonal relationships as patterns of interaction with specific partners, such as parents, teachers or peers that are carried over time and involves some degree of investment by participants. Students who have positive relations with their parents, teachers and peers are more likely to experience positive outcomes such as social skills or achievement and are more likely to report high levels of perceived wellbeing and to perform well in school (Hughes & Kwok, 2007). On the other hand, children with poor interpersonal relationships are likely to be less sociable; to have fewer close friends; spend less time with friends; and participate in fewer shared activities thus affecting their social integration level(Anderman, 2002).

One of the indispensable elements for meaningful and positive human development is social needs i.e., proper integration into community without feelings of stigmatization and acknowledgement from peers (Gilborn, Brakarsh, Dube, Jemison, Kluckkow & Snider, 2006). Keyes (2006) defines social integration as the sense of belongingness in the larger social structure, such as school. According to Knoester & Haynie (2005), social integration is an important contributor to the students' sense of coherence, a mechanism which reduces negative reactions to stress such as strikes and arson. Students' experiences of belonging to their school community also relate to their general wellbeing as well as to their level of academic performance (Upadyaya & Salmela-Aro, 2013).

In education, academic performance has become a gauge of a person's value and success. Academic performance at secondary school level is considered as the basis for evaluating a student's capabilities, a selection criterion for progress in schooling and also placement in job market (Wilcox et al., 2009). Secondary school period is therefore a stressful time for a student academically, since it is the level where grades and test scores that have the supremacy to determine his or her future endeavors are attained. Secondary school level is also a critical time since it is when the adolescent student develops the self-concept, forms a personality and makes relationships with parents, teachers and peers.

High level of self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships and social integration (psychosocial wellbeing) is therefore, important for self-reliance, personal growth and harmonious relationships, and purpose in life (Ross & Miller, 2009). Students with high psychosocial wellbeing are confident, self-directed, takes responsibility, non-blaming others, demonstrate personal strength, are optimistic, able to solve problems and to control emotions (Farid & Akhar, 2013). On the other hand, low level of self-

acceptance, interpersonal relationships and social integration (psychosocial distress/harm) is linked to hostility, aggression, self-concept problems, emotional instability, social incompetence and relationships problem, deviancy and antisocial behavior (Amato, 2005; Richter, Foster & Sherr, 2006; Magnuson & Berger, 2009). Students with psychosocial distress are at a higher risk of smoking, abusing drugs and alcohol, bullying, fighting, engaging in risky sexual activities, depression, having suicidal thoughts and committing suicide, engaging in school strikes and arson. Students with these characteristics become a problem to school authorities due to indiscipline which negatively affects school and learning processes thus affecting academic performance of the individuals and the entire students negatively (Amato, 2005; Scaggs, 2009; Clark, 2013). It was therefore important to establish self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance levels of secondary school students in Kiambu County.

Family structure refers to the number of parents living with a child as in single or two parents and their marital status (as in whether married, divorced, widowed, remarried or never married). Family structure acts as a pointer of potential caretakers and indicate certain characteristics or quality of the child's family life. Family structure provides a sense of belonging, security and stability that is necessary for well-being of a child (Roska & Potter, 2011; Cavanagh & Fomby, 2012). Further still, the family structure influences amount of and a student's access to family economic, human and social resources that are important for his or her psychosocial development and education achievement (Gilborn et al, 2006; Moime, 2009; Wilcox, Lippman, Whitney & Cid, 2009). Therefore, the family structure into which a child is born and matures presents both positive and negative environments that then affect his or her self-

acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance levels(Wilcox et al.,2009).

According to Amato (2001) and Wilcox et al, (2009) and in line with Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, students who experience family economic instability or access limited economic resources are likely to: develop poor self-concept (self-acceptance), poor interpersonal relationships, have low sense of belonging (social integration), and perform poorly academically. This is because economic instability causes increased material poverty that makes it difficult for the parent(s) to meet the needs of children sufficiently and promptly. As a result, these children are likely to lack basic things such as food, clothes, shoes and other consumer goods that give them status among their peers thus affecting their self-concept, interpersonal relations and social integration negatively. In addition, they are likely to experience school fees problems and to live in poor environs or regions with high crime where houses are affordable (Amato, 2001). All this may make these children feel inferior and insecure, have a negative world view, and develop low sense of belonging thus affecting their social integration and interpersonal relationships negatively. Subsequently, these children may develop low self-confidence and self-esteem. As a result, these children may never exploit their potentials fully thus affecting their self-actualization levels negatively.

Further still, the amount of family human, social capital resources and the quality of parenting a child gets influences his or her interpersonal relationship development, social integration level and the possibilities of his or her educational success. Amato (2005: 2001), Baumrind (2005), White (2004) and in line with social learning theory by Bandura (2002) notes that family human resource deficit may deny the children a chance to learn (through role modelling by the parents) interpersonal skills such as

showing respect, communicating clearly and resolving disputes through negotiation and compromise which is important for development of positive relations with peers and teachers. Furthermore, deficit in human resource, such as one parent may lead to discrimination and stigmatization which negatively affects social integration of a child. On the other hand, children in two parent families with high marital conflict may learn negative interpersonal skills (Amato, 2005). Moime (2009) notes that if a child has failed to have sound relationship with parents, it is most likely that the child would never have any complete relationship with anyone. Furthermore, children may be most likely to succeed educationally when they have easy access to many family members who can invest in them in terms of finances and parental involvement in school work, and may be most likely to fail when they have access to only one family member or limited human resources (Buchmann & Hannum, 2001; Kamuti, 2015; Wilcox et al., 2009)

There has been a profound change in the family patterns worldwide from 1960 with statistics showing a decline in two- parent families and single parent families as the fastest growing family pattern both inside and outside Kenya (World Demographic survey, 2014). This change has been accredited to decreased marriage rates, increased divorce rates and risen numbers of non-marital births caused by factors such as changing cultural trends and the social metric shift of the late 20th century; the economic independence and greater equity for women; industrialization, urbanization and globalization; and the assumption that family disruption would not cause lasting harm to children (Social and Demographic Trends, 2013). Consequently, the proportion of children living in single parent family structure worldwide has been rising with current statistics showing 36% in 2013, higher than 31% in 2000 (Child Trends, 2014). In Kenya, it is estimated that approximately 26% of the children live in

families with only one parent (OECD, 2011; Global Children's Trends 2014). It is further estimated that 23.4% of families in Kiambu County are headed by single mothers (Kenya Population Situation Analysis, 2013).

Research on family structure and its influence on children self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance has been going on for several decades. However, results are still inconclusive, incongruent and inconsistent. Numerous studies indicate a negative influence of single parenting on students, with some reporting intense effect while others indicate mild or moderate effect (Amato, 2005; Hickman, 2007; Falana, Bada & Ayodele, 2012; Mabuza, Thwala & Okeke, 2013; Akinabi, 2014; Alex, 2015). On the other hand, Demo and Acock (1988) and Azuka-Obiek (2013) reported some positive influence of single parenting on students. Their studies revealed androgynous behavior, broad social skills and competence, greater maturity and feeling of efficacy and higher academic performance for some children of divorce families. Further still, other studies have reported no significant influence of family structure on the study variables (Ferrell, 2009; Ushie, Ameka, Ononga & Owolobi, 2013; Amofa, 2013).

The above conflicting research findings call for more empirical studies to validate the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance of students, especially in Kenya, where studies reviewed (that is Mwandime, 2005; Kimani, 2007; Kinga, Kimani & Mureithi, 2014; Gitonga, 2014; Ogecha & Otego, 2014 and Karanja, 2015) indicate contrasting results.

Empirical studies conducted in Kiambu County show that alcohol abuse rate among public secondary school students in Kiambu County is at 18.4% (against 14.1% at national rate) which is the highest in the country (NACADA, 2014). Bullying, school strikes and arson attacks by students targeting fellow students and school property, 7

teen sexual engagement, examination malpractices and suicidal tendencies among students are on increase in Kiambu County (Apondi, 2005; Gathuthwa, 2013; Kahugu, 2013; Kangendo, 2010; Kageni, 2012; Mbutia, 2013; Ogecha, 2014; UNICEF, 2012). The county KCSE examination results trend for the period 2012-2017 is as indicated: 4.75(C-); 4.32 (D+); 4.44(D+); 4.66(C-); 4.11(D+) and 3.72(D+) respectively (Kiambu County Director of Education Office, 2018).

From empirical literature reviewed above, two-parent family is the optimal for children's psychosocial and educational development therefore, the decline in such households and rise in single parent families raises great concern about the psychosocial aspects and of Kenyan children. It was, therefore, necessary for a study to be conducted in order to examine the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance, interpersonal relations, social integration and academic performance in Kiambu County.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Empirical evidence has given mixed findings on the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relations, social integration and academic performance of students. Nevertheless, family structure is rapidly changing with the numbers of single parent families rising while the number of two parent families is dropping drastically (Social & Demographic Trends, 2013). Although not entirely consistent, the pattern of empirical findings suggests that single parent family structure, have a big role in the deviancy and antisocial behavior of their off springs including poor academic performance.

Cases of deviancy and antisocial behavior such as identity crisis, bullying, fighting, smoking, alcohol and drug abuse, early and risky sexual activities and school unrest (which are indicators of psychosocial and educational distress) among secondary 8

school students are escalating in spite of the many efforts by school administrators, teachers, parents and other stake holders in dealing with the trend. Kiambu County represents empirically the various phenomena of interest in the current study.

For instance, despite the control mechanisms that have been put in place by government, parents, teachers, non-governmental organisations and all other relevant agencies alcohol abuse rate among Kiambu public secondary school students is 18% the highest among all counties in the country against 14.1% national rate (NACADA, 2014). The greatest ratio of drug abusers to non-abusers among secondary school students in Kiambu County is aged between 16 and 18 years and one of the major factors contributing to drug abuse is peer acceptance (Kimani, 2013).

Kiambu County also has a high rate of early sexual engagement (sex before 15 years) with males recording 15.4% and females 10.1% higher than the national levels of 14.1% and 9.2% respectively (Kenya County Profile, 2015). Violent school strikes, bullying, and suicidality are witnessed among students in Kiambu County (Kahuga, 2013; Gathuthwa, 2013). The academic performance of students in national examinations in Kiambu County is comparatively low. For instance, the KCSE performance mean grade for the county has been below the minimum requirement grade for university entry as shown by KCSE results for years 2012- 2017: 4.75(C-); 4.32 (D+); 4.44(D+); 4.66(C-); 4.11(D+) and 3.72(D+) respectively (Kiambu County Director of Education Office, 2018). This trend has raised concern from all stakeholders. It was therefore necessary to establish whether family structure has in fact some influence on student's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance of students and suggest way forward to arrest and mitigate this worrying situation.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the influence of family structure on students' psychosocial aspects and academic performance in public secondary school in Kiambu County, Kenya.

1.4.1 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives.

- i. To find out the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.
- ii. To establish the influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relations in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.
- iii. To determine the influence of family structure on students' social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.
- iv. To establish the influence of family structure on students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.

1.5 Hypotheses of the study

To realize the above objectives, the following research null hypotheses were tested

Ho1: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relationships in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.

Ho3: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on students' social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.

Ho4: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on student's academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study may have significant use to policy makers, parents, teacher trainers, teachers, students and other stakeholders in the education sector in Kenya.

All stakeholders may appreciate family structure as a determinant of psychosocial aspects and academic performance hence design strategic programs and formulate effective intervention strategies aimed at improving self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance of students in various family structures. The policy makers may also enforce that family structures are taken into account in formulation of policies as a way of improving psychosocial aspects and academic performance of all the students. In a special way more family structure information may be entrenched and stressed within the curriculum. It is envisioned that teacher trainers may also realize the importance of equipping teacher trainees with the necessary training and professional development needed to enhance students' self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance.

Teachers may work collaboratively with parents and other varied groups in the community to enhance psychosocial and academic well-being of students. Students may overcome their psychosocial distress by understanding the dynamics of family structures. The findings of this study may also contribute to research literature for local, international and cross-cultural comparisons among scholars, researchers and policy makers in Education and other Social Sciences. The study may also stimulate further research work on other family structure characteristics and their influence on psychosocial aspects and academic performance.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study was conducted in only public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. For the purpose of the current study, only form four students who had registered for the 2017 Kenya Certificate of Secondary Examination (KCSE) in Kiambu County were involved in the study. This choice of the form four class was informed by the need for a standardized common examination to enable comparison of students' academic performance.

The independent variable was family structure as in single or two parent family and their marital status (married, remarried, divorced, widowed, never married). The dependent variables were students' self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance levels.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

These are aspects of the study that the researcher knew they would negatively affect the generalizability of the results but over which the researcher had no control. The limitations arose from sampling techniques and data collection tools and procedures. These limitations were:

External validity. Purposive sampling lacks randomization and therefore, negatively affects the external validity of the study. Since the location of the study was purposively sampled, generalisation of results from the current study is only done to students in Kiambu County and in other regions that are similar in characteristics and conditions to those of Kiambu County.

Data collection instrument. All items in the instruments were based on self-report.

Thus, it was unavoidable that there may have been a certain degree of subjectivity.

Nonetheless, the research questionnaires were subjected to face validity and pilot

study to ensure their clarity and better comprehension by the respondents. Students were also assured of anonymity and confidentiality to secure an honest response.

Standardise scales. Standardised scales to measure interpersonal relationships and social integration are not locally available. As such, the researcher adapted test items from standardized scales previously used in other research studies. Test items to measure interpersonal relations were adapted from Kimani (2010) and Ryff (1988); and the test items to measure social integration were adapted from Hickman (2007) and Keyes (2006). The items adapted from scales used in these previous studies were subjected to a pilot study to ascertain their validity and reliability. Too small sample do not permit statistical analysis. The researcher used a large representative sample to collect data from. The researcher ensured high response rate through self-delivery and immediate collection of the questionnaires.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

These are important facts presumed to be true but not actually verified. They help in justifying the study and the study results, and also in interpretation of the results. This study presumed that;

- i. Family structure influences self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance levels of public secondary school students in Kiambu County.
- ii. The influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance varies by student's demographic factors (gender, age and type of school attended).
- iii. The participants provided honest responses on the items in the questionnaire.
- iv. The scales used for data collection yielded reliable and valid information for testing of study hypotheses.

1.10 Operational definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following terms are defined as follows:

Academic performance- it means a student's KCSE mean grade, where Grades A and Bhigh (above average); Grade C is average; and Grades D and E is low (below average) academic performance.

Child- a student who is not paying for his/her school fees and upkeep.

Family structure- the number of parents living with the student as in single or two parents and their marital status as in married or intact, remarried, divorced, widowed and never married.

Interpersonal relationships -refers to a student's score on interpersonal relationship scale where 0-66 points is poor, 67-81points is fair and 82-100 is good interpersonal relationships.

Parent- this term refers to biological father and mother of the student.

Psychosocial Distress- refers to a student's total score on self-acceptance, interpersonal and social integration scales that is 125 points and below.

Psychosocial aspects- refers to the areas of psychological and social development of a student. In the current study, Self-acceptance, Interpersonal Relationships and Social Integration in school were the selected psychosocial aspects.

Psychosocial Well-being- refers to a student's total score on self-acceptance, interpersonal and social integration scales that is 126 points and above.

Self-acceptance level- refers to a student's score on Self-acceptance scale where 0-61 points is low, 62-83points is moderate and 84-100 is high Self-acceptance.

Single parent family- A family in which a student is raised by only one

Social integration- refers to a student's score on social integration scale where 0-63 points is poor, 64-82points is fair and 83-100 is well integrated socially.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into eight sections. The first section provides an introduction to the chapter. The second, third, fourth and fifth sections provide a review of related literature on family structure and its influence on student's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance respectively. Summary of the review of related literature is provided in section six. The last two sections present the study's theoretical and conceptual frame work.

2.2 Family Structure and Self- Acceptance

High levels of perceived economic, human and social support from families by children is associated with higher levels of self- acceptance. However, different types of families have been found to offer different amounts of economic, human and social support (Akin& Ceyhan, 2005), with single parent families contributing the least amounts(Amato and Keith, 1991) thus affecting the self-acceptance development of children in those homes.

A substantial amount of research has examined the influence of family structure on the self-concept of children, however there is so far no consensus on findings. All through the early decades to 1990s, a majority of empirical studies on family structure (mainly divorce) and self- concept of children indicates that children in single parent families have lower self- esteem than children in two parent families(Young & Parish, 1977; Parish, Parish, Dostal,& Parish. 1981; Demo& Acock,1988; Amato & Keith, 1991) while other studies have indicated no difference in self-concept of children by

family structures (Kalter, Neil, Riemer, Brickman & Chen,1985; Parish,1981). Further still, other studies have reported positive outcomes such as greater feelings of efficacy and an internal locus of control for children in single parent families (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1974). Some studies have shown a permanent decrease in self-evaluation after divorce while others indicate an increase in self-evaluation after spending some time in divorced families (Parish & Wigle,1985). Studies also indicate varying intensity of divorce effect on children's self-concept with some studies indicating intense, others moderate while others report no effects at all. Some studies have attributed the differences in children's outcomes to family mediating/moderating factors such as conflict in the family, family dispositions such as happy or unhappy family, social support to children; cause of family structure and remarriage and not family structure per se (Parish et al., 1981; Parish, 1981).

For instance, Parish and Wigle (1985) assessed self-evaluations of 120 public school students in a 3-year longitudinal study (measurements were done in 1979 and again in 1982). The students were placed into four groups of 30 children each defined by their family structure: Intact-Intact, Divorced-Divorced, Intact-Divorced and a control group. Self-evaluation was measured through Personal Attribute Inventory for Children (PAIC). The study findings showed that children who remained in intact families through the study reported high self-evaluation on both measures. Self-evaluation of those children who experienced divorce during the study period decrease while that of those who remained in divorced homes increased. From these results, it was concluded that divorce had negative effect on self-concept of children but this effect was not permanent. This indicates that the influence of family structure on a child's self-concept varies by time spent in that family structure.

In another research Parish (1981) studied the effect of divorce, widowhood and remarriage on 1409 male and female college students' self-esteem from: intact; divorced non-married; divorced remarried; death non-remarried and death remarried families. The dependent measure was PAIC. The study findings showed no significant differences in self-concept by type of family structure. The results were collaborated by the findings of later study by Kaiter et al (1985) which found no significant differences in self-esteem of 522 girls aged 11-18 years from intact and divorced families. This implies that family structure has no influence at all on self-concept of children per se but perhaps other family factor such family happiness and social support. These results contradicted those of an earlier study by Young and Parish(1977). In 1977, Young and Parish conducted a studied with the aim of establishing the effect of divorce, widowhood and remarriage on self-evaluation of daughters in those homes using 98 female college students age 17-22 years. Data was collected through Adjective Check List (ACL). Findings of the study revealed that daughters who had lost their father due to divorce or death and whose mothers had not remarried had significantly more negative self-evaluation. From these findings, it can be deduced that single parent families had an effect on girls' self-concept and that remarriage of the single mother was of benefit to the self-concept of the girls in these families. These results further confirm that the influence of family structure on children's self-concept varies by child's gender and parental marital status.

In 1980, Parish and Dostal carried out research using 738 boys and girls aged 11-14 years. These children were put in 3 groups according to their family structures; intact, divorced non married and divorced married. Data was collected through PAIC. The

study results showed that the children from intact families had significantly higher self-evaluation than children of divorce non married and divorce married families.

In 1981, Parish and his collaborators conducted a study on family type (intact or divorce family) and family dispositions (happy or unhappy). The study sample consisted of 284 male and female children in grade 5-8. The dependent measure was PAIC. Findings of this study showed no main effect on family structure, but children from happy families(irrespective of family structure) had significantly high self-concept. The study findings further revealed that males from unhappy divorced families had significantly lower self-concept compared to their counterparts in other family structures. From these studies by Parish and his collaborators, it can be deduced that the effect of divorce varied by age at time of divorce, duration in the divorced family, gender of the child and the custodial parent remarriage or not. Although all the above studies focused on family structure and self-concept of children, the results were contradictory, inconsistent and inconclusive and were all conducted outside Kenyan. Furthermore, never married type of single parent families was not investigated which was part of the concern for the current study. The three studies also investigated the self-concept in general, the current study investigated a specific dimension of self-concept, self-acceptance.

A majority of later studies still show a negative influence of single parenting on self-acceptance of children. For instance, Alex (2015) studied the influence of family structure on self-acceptance of high school students in India. In this study, a sample of 360 high school children was randomly selected from three type of schools in Malappuram district. The sample consisted of 137 students from aided schools, 111 students from unaided schools and 122 students from Government schools. Boys were

164 and girls were 196. Data was collected using Self-Acceptance Inventory. Category-wise Mean and standard deviation were used for data analysis. The study results revealed a significant difference in self-acceptance levels of children of two parents and single parent families, in favour of those children in two parent families.

The study findings further revealed that self-acceptance levels varied by type of school the student was attending. From the study results, students attending aided schools were found to have higher self-acceptance than those who were attending unaided and government schools. The difference in self-acceptance levels by type of school attended was earlier reported by Akin and Ceyhan (2005), who investigated self-acceptance levels of 973 high school students in public and private high school. Self -Acceptance Inventory high school form was used to collect data. Factorial Analysis of Variance was done to test for the differences. Study findings showed that self-acceptance levels of students in private high schools were significantly higher than for those in public high schools. However, these studies compared self-acceptance levels of students in different types of schools in general but not within family structures across schools.

Although Alex (2015) and Akin and Ceyhan (2005) reported a difference in levels of self-acceptance by type of school attended, Guglielmi (2011) and Pahlke, Hyde and Allison(2014) reported no difference. Guglielmi (2011) examined self-esteem rates of girls in single sex and co-ed high schools in state of Connecticut. A sample of 60 grades nine to twelve girls from a single-sex catholic preparatory school and 10 girls from a co-ed public high school was used for the study. A 25 items questionnaire measured on 4point Likert scale was used to measure self-esteem of the participants. Independent samples *t*-test was used to analyse data. The study findings revealed no

significant difference in self-esteem of girls in single-sex and those in mixed gender schools, $t(68) = -.76$.

In Meta-Analysis research of 184 studies that have tested the effects of single-sex and mixed-sex (coeducational) schooling on students' self-concept, Pahlke et al (2014) findings did not reveal any statistically significant effects on students in both sets of schools. From the results the researchers concluded that single-sex schooling did not have any benefits over coeducational schooling and that the studies that showed differences could have been as a result of lack of controls for selection effects and purposive assignment in treatment groups.

Alex (2015) study still further revealed a significant difference in self-acceptance between males and females, which was found at $t_{cal} = 2.712$, $df = 358$ in favour of males. These results were similar to those of Kalantarkousheh (2012) who investigated gender differences in self-acceptance of university students in Iran. Data for this study was collected from 1181 university students of different faculties, 584 males and 597 females aged between 18-50 years. Descriptive statistics and independent sample T-test, correlation, and multiple regression analysis were used to analyse the data. The study findings revealed that male students scored significantly higher than female students on self-acceptance, $t(1179) = 1.92$, $p < .05$. Although Kalantarkousheh (2012) had drawn the sample from university students, the findings were similar to those Alex (2015) who had drawn his sample from high school students. This indicates that the gender difference in self-acceptance levels of males and females perhaps could cut across all levels of schooling. This study compared the self-acceptance levels of male and female students generally and not across family structures.

However, Ceyhan and Ceyhan (2010) presented contrary findings from their longitudinal study on self-acceptance levels of university students in Turkey taking into consideration gender differences throughout university schooling. The sample consisted of 198 (139 female and 59 male) volunteering university students attending various under-graduate programs of Education Faculty at Anadolu University in the academic year of 2003–2004-first term and in the academic year of 2006–2007-last term. A Self-Acceptance Inventory Scale by Kılıc, c,1 (1980) consisting of 126 items was used to collect data. The inventory produces scores between 0 and 252, and higher scores meant high level of healthy self-acceptance. The study results revealed that at the end of the four years, the difference in self-acceptance mean score for females and males (168.83 and 154.63 respectively) were statistically insignificant. Although this study was based on a sample drawn from university students, the results were not consistent with those of Kalantarkousheh (2012). This could be perhaps be due to cross cultural differences and differences in research design. There was need to investigate the gender differences in self-acceptance among secondary school students and in a different locality to compare results.

Walęcka-Matyja (2014) carried out research to determine the differences in levels of self-acceptance among groups of women and men from complete, incomplete and reconstructed families in Poland. The study group comprised of 314 adolescents (158 female and 156 male) of average age 21 years and standard deviation of 1.18 from the administrative region of Łódź (third-largest city in Poland). Survey research design was adopted. Data was collected through survey using Scale of Interpersonal Attitude (SUI) and standardized Inventory of Personality. The study findings revealed that both females and males from intact families achieved higher scores on self-acceptance compared to females and males from incomplete and reconstructed families, and that

the difference between the two groups self-acceptance mean scores was statistically significant. These results were similar to those of Szczęsna (2005).

Szczęsna (2005) studied the importance of the father for the development of self-acceptance of the youth and found that young people from divorced families were characterized by an average self-acceptance level in comparison with young people from full, well- functioning families, who had a high level of self-acceptance. An earlier study by Conway (1997) had too reported that young people from incomplete families were more often characterized by low levels of self-acceptance and self-esteem. Although the findings of this study revealed an influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance, the study was based on a sample drawn from a developed country and given that Kenya is a developing country, a similar study was needed in order to report on the multicultural differences and similarities if any. Moreover, despite using an interpersonal scale to assess the self-acceptance, the actual interpersonal levels of the students which was one of the concerns of the present study were not reported. The study also assessed single parent families by divorce only leaving out those of widowhood and non-marital families.

In another study by Alami, Khosravan, Sadegh Moghadam, Pakravan and Hosseini (2014) examined the self-esteem levels of adolescents in Single and Two- Parent Families in Gonabad eastern city, Iran. The study sample consisted of 356, 15-18 years old high school students with 250 students from two-parent nuclear family and 106 from single-parent family (widow mother). Analytic cross-sectional study was adopted. Coppersmith self-esteem questionnaire (1976) was used to measure students' self-esteem. The t test was used to analyse data. The study finding showed that mean scores of self-esteems among adolescents who lived in two-parent family (mean score =37.40 and standard deviation=7.27) were significantly higher than for those who 24

lived in single-parent family (mean score =39.06 and standard deviation=6.35), $P=0.034$. The study findings further revealed a significant association between the respondents' self-esteem and their perceived parenting styles. Although the findings of this study revealed an influence of family structure on adolescents' self-esteem, the sample was based on single parent families caused by fathers' death only and there was need to compare the findings with those of single parent families through divorce and non-marital births families, which were part of the concern for current study.

Although studies by Alex (2015), Walęcka-Matyja (2014) and Alami et al (2014) reported a negative influence of single parenting on self-acceptance of children, an earlier study by ShailaScraj (2004) in Bangladesh had reported no influence at all. ShailaScraj conducted a study to compare the self-concept development of secondary school students (both male and female) in class IX and X from Dhaka city. The sample comprised of 166 students aged between 13 to 15 years attending two coeducational public secondary schools. Children from nuclear families were 136 (79 boys and 57 girls) and children from joint families were 30(14 boys and 16 girls) participated in the study. The Bengali version of the Piers Harris children's self-concept Scale consisting of 80 yes/ no answer-type questions with 39 positive and 41 negative items in the scale was used to measure the self-concept of students. The t-test was used to analyse the data. The results showed no significant difference in self-concept of the children brought up in joint and nuclear families ($t = 0.035$). That is, family structures did not play any differential roles in the development of children's self-concept. This was attributed to children of both family structures undergoing on an average the same quality of parenting. The researcher then concluded that parenting style is more important than is the family structure in shaping the children's self-acceptance.

In their study on effects of parental marital status on African American adolescents' self-esteem in California, using a sample of 116 adolescents aged 15 year (42 boys and 74 girls), Mandara and Murray (2000) reported mixed findings. The study findings revealed that Parental marital status had no effect on girls' self-esteem but had an effect on African American boys' self-esteem. Girls in both groups were also found to be higher than boys with non-married parents on several self-esteem dimensions. Compared with boys with non-married parents, boys with married parents had higher overall self-esteem. The study further revealed that family functioning was a very important and strong predictor of self-esteem for both boys and girls; family relations was more important to girls' self-esteem, whereas family structural and growth factors were more important for boys' self-esteem. From the study findings it was concluded that African American boys with non-married parents were at risk for developing low overall self-esteem compared with other African American adolescents, but a more controlled and structured environment may buffer the effects of having non-married parents.

In Africa, Mabizu, Thwala and Okeke (2014) conducted a study in Swaziland to investigate the effect of family structure on emotional wellbeing of children. Their findings revealed that single parenting had negative influence on the emotional development of children. However, the negative effect was mainly attributed to poor parenting practices such as poor parent-child relationships and low parental involvement and not the family structure per se. In Nigeria, Ahiaoma (2013) studied psycho-social effect of parental separation or divorces on adolescents through descriptive research survey on 120 Senior Secondary School two (SS2) students drawn from twelve public secondary schools in Surulere local Government Area of Lagos State. The data was collected through a 25- items questionnaire measured on 4-

point Likert scale. The study findings showed that parental separation or divorce had a negative influence on emotional development of students, these students were found to always feel and see themselves as inferiors among their peers from intact family. These results echoed those of Falana, Bada & Ayodele (2012) who too had reported significant relationship between single-parent family structure and emotional development of children in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Still in Nigeria Azuka-Obieke (2013) found a significant difference in the psychological well-being of adolescents from single-parent home and those from intact homes. His study further revealed that children profited psychologically when both parents provide aspects of an orderly and nurturing home life (positive co-parenting), and that many children raised in single parent homes may never reach their full potential due to insufficient family resources. In this study 100 respondents randomly selected from 5 secondary schools participated. Questionnaire and achievement test were used to collect data and this data was analysed by descriptive statistical technique and t-test.

Kinga, Kimani and Muriithi (2014) carried out a comparative study on levels of self-esteem among students of single and dual parent families in Selected Secondary schools in Nakuru Municipality, Kenya. Stratified and purposive sampling techniques were used to obtain a sample of 360 from three and four students from both single and dual parent families. Causal-comparative research design was adopted. Data was collected by use of a questionnaire that included a self-esteem test. Data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The independent t-test was done to compare the self-esteem levels for the two groups. Study results showed that there was no statistically significant difference in level of self-esteem among students from single parent families and those from duo parent families ($p > 0.05$). The study results

further suggested that the level of self-esteem of a student did not depend on the type of family structure per se but on a combined interaction of other factors such as the type of relationship between parents and children, the school environment and teaching conditions among others.

Abiero, Mukiri, Mwatembo and Ashioya (2014) investigated self-esteem of secondary school students in Ruiru constituency, Kiambu County. Descriptive survey research design was adopted. A sample of 160 students (80 male and 80 female) selected from 6 secondary schools through stratified and simple random sampling techniques was used in the study. Rosenberg self-esteem scale was used to collect data for the study. Pearson's Product Moment correlation was used to analyse data. The study results revealed that self-esteem of secondary students in Ruiru constituency was high. The study results further revealed that male students had higher self-esteem compared to female students. Although this study was conducted in Kiambu County, the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance levels which was one of the concerns of this study was not addressed.

2.3 Family Structure and Interpersonal relationships

Positive, functional interpersonal relationships have been found to enhance students' academic engagement, motivation and achievement and sense of belongingness in school (Cui & Fincham, 2010). Therefore, development and maintenance of healthy interpersonal relationships should be an integral part of every student's experience in school. Family structure and the number of people in a child's social network have been shown to be important variables that affect interpersonal relationships (King et al. 2004; Putnam 2007).

Relatively few studies have examined interpersonal relations among pupils and students in different family structures. Most studies have investigated peer relation among children and dating behavior of adolescents in single parent families, particularly through divorce. Early studies on family structure and peer relations of children below adolescent age show mixed findings with some studies showing long lasting negative effects while others indicate temporal effects. Further still, other studies have shown positive effects for children of divorced families while others indicate gender difference in influence, with boys being affected and no effect on girls. However, majority of these studies suggest that children in single parent and reconstituted families have fewer close friends; participate in fewer shared activities; are less sociable and spend less time with friends.

For instance, in 1979 Hetherington, Cox and Cox carried out a longitudinal study to investigate the divorce effects on peer relations of children. The average age at first time measurement was T1=3.9 years while average age at measurement two was T2=5.8 years. Observational method for measures of children free play and social interactions, teacher rating of behavior, peer nomination measures and social metric measure of popularity were used to collect the study data. The study findings showed that both boys and girls in divorced families displayed immature ineffective, and negative social behaviors. However, these negative effects were temporal for girls but lasted long for boys in divorced families, who remained still out of favor with other pupils two years past divorce of the parents. These results are similar to those of another longitudinal study that was carried out later by Kurdek, Darlene and Albert. Kurdek et al. (1981) two-year longitudinal study on children whose parents had divorced showed that the divorce had a negative effect on children's relationships with peers but the effect is not long lasting. Results of their study revealed that these

children's relationship with peers had improved after the divorce and this was as result of getting opportunities for peer discussions on experiences, some of whom had similar experiences. The researchers concluded that divorce had negative effects on interpersonal relationships of both boys and girls but these effects were not permanent.

Wyman, Cowen, Hightower, and Pedro-Carroll, (1985) studied the effect of divorce on children's interactions. In their study on children's social relations, Wyman et al. (1985) used 286 children in grade 4 to 6, where 98 pupils were with divorced parents and 170 were from intact families. Parent questionnaire measuring children's source of social support was used for data collection. These studies findings revealed that children of divorced parents participated in fewer activities, had fewer close friends and spent less time with friends. These results were later collaborated by those of Amato & Keith (1991). A meta-analysis study of sixty-seven studies by Amato and Keith (1991) confirmed that children with divorced parents are worse off on measures of peer relations i.e., number of close friends and social support from peers.

Although Hetherington et. al (1979), Kurdek et al, (1981) and Amato and Keith (1991) reported a negative effect of divorce on children' interactions, a much different pattern was observed by Guidubaldi & Perry (1985), whose study results reported that compared to boys in intact families, boys from divorced families had greater contact with friends, and no difference by family structure was found for girls. The sample of their study consisted of 341 children with divorced parents and 358 from intact families. Child interview was used to measure friendships. On the other hand, Kinard & Reinherz (1984) reported no differences in peer relations among children in intact

and divorce families, but greater hostility was found in children who were in families that were recently disrupted.

Paschall, Ringwalt & Flewelling (2003) examined the effect of father absence on children's interpersonal relationships and reported a negative influence. Their results were similar to those of an earlier study Santrock (1975), who had examined the effects of absence of a father through divorce and death on boys by measuring the sociability of the children i.e., how well a child is able to adapt to a new situation and participate in the society. The study sample consisted of 120 boys in 5th and 6th grade. Sixty (60) boys were in intact families; 20 were in in early divorced (boys younger than age of 6 years) families; 20 were in late divorced families (boys between 6-10 years) and 20 were in father deceased (boys between 6-10 years) families. Teacher rating of students' sociality was used to produce data for the study. The study findings revealed that father absent boys were rated as significantly less sociable. Paschall et. al (2003) findings further revealed that socio-economic disadvantage of father-absent homes was strongly associated with poor interpersonal relations and that perceived control of son's behaviour by the mother, close monitoring and supervision by parents would mitigate the situation.

In their studies, Eizirik and Bergmann(2004), and Stolberg and Anker (1984) observed that children from divorced families' exhibit psychopathology in interpersonal relations and often behaved in unusual and inappropriate ways. Stolberg and Anker had used 42 males and 37 females aged 6 to 16 years in their sample. From divorced families, 39 children participated and 40 children in intact families participated. Three social competence scales from Achebach Child Behaviour Check List (CBCL) were used to collect data. Study results showed that children of divorce group were significantly less prosocial in school related behavior. Eizirik and Bergmann (2004)

reviewed literature on father absence and behavioural development taking into family environment, social and economic factors. From their study findings, they recommended psychotherapy to mitigate for emotions and perceptions linked o father absence.

Later studies on family structure and interpersonal relationships of children are still inconclusive. For instance, Sultan & Kanwal (2013) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the impact of single parenting and peer relations development of adolescents. A sample of 260 adolescents (evenly taken from mother/father-led homes) across 7 years was tested every two years since the adolescents were age 13. A scale to measure peer relations was administered to adolescents at age 13, 15, 17, and 19 to collect data. It was found that adolescents in mother-led homes generally had stronger peer relationship than adolescents in father-led homes. This study compared peer relationships of children in relation to gender of the single parent only. There was need to compare the influence of different pathways to single parenthood, which was one of the concerns of the current study.

In another study, Pitner, Scott and Deloach McCutcheon (2012) examined the qualitative and structural dimensions of interpersonal relationships among African American and white college students. Structural aspects of relationships included number of single-parent families and number of friends a student had while qualitative characteristics included degree of loneliness, family satisfaction, peer attachment and parent attachment. The study sample consisted of 258 college students who were attending a large state university and small, historically black college (HBC), both located in the Southern region of the USA. The sample consisted of 73 (28.3%) African American students (34 of whom attended the large state university and 39 attended HBC) and 185 (71.7%) White students, all of whom

attended the large state university. The mean age was 21.7 years. One hundred and twenty-seven (127) females and 131 males participated in the study. Data was collected through a questionnaire containing four separate measures: the UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell et al. 1980), the Family Satisfaction Scale (Carver & Jones 1992), the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Armsden & Greenberg 1987), and the Social Network List (Hirsch 1979, 1980) and a section for the respondents' demographics.

Pitner et al (2012) study findings revealed that few differences existed between these two groups in dimensions of relationships. African Americans scored higher on measures of loneliness compared to whites, $F(1,256)=5.25, p<0.05$]. African American, as compared to White participants, rated the members of their social network as less similar to themselves [$F(1,220)=5.81, p<0.001$]. This study compared the interpersonal relationships dimensions and not development and levels, based on students race and not family structure. However, the results showed that race indeed has an influence on children's interpersonal relations. In another study, Guglielmi (2011) compared students peer relationships based on type of school attended. The sample consisted of 60 girls in a single sex catholic preparatory school and 10 girls from co-ed public high school in state of Connecticut. The study results posted a not statistically significant differences in peer relationships of girls in single sex and coed school, $t(68) = -.81$. However, the study results revealed a strong relationship between self-esteem and peer relationships, $r(70) = .69, p < .001$. A questionnaire measured on 4point Likert scale was used to collect Peer Relationships data from the participants. The participants ranged from grades nine to twelve. Independent samples t -test was used to analyse data.

Hetherington et al. (2010) carried out another longitudinal study using 48 middle class white preschool children from divorce families and matching group of 48 children from non-divorce homes and observed their play and social relations during the first year and the second year after divorce for two months. During the first year of divorce, disruption of play and social relations for both boys and girls in divorce was noted. By 2 years in divorce homes, the adverse effects had largely disappeared for girls but were more intense and enduring for boys. The play patterns were less socially and cognitively matured shortly after divorce for both girls and boys, and non-compliant behaviour was more enduring for boys than for girls in divorce families. The findings further revealed that even when the behaviour of boys from divorced had improved, they were still perceived and treated negatively by peers and teachers than were children of intact families or girls from divorce families. These results echoed of their earlier study conducted in 1979.

In Nigeria, Ahiaoma (2013) studied effect of parental separation or divorces on adolescents' interpersonal relationships through descriptive research survey. Through stratified random sampling technique, 120 Senior Secondary School two (SS2) students were selected from twelve public secondary schools in Surulere local Government Area of Lagos State. A 25- item questionnaire measured on 4-point Likert scale was used to collect the data. The study findings showed that parental separation or divorce has negative effect on interpersonal relation of students. The study further revealed that students from families of separation and divorce suffered economic challenges which led to low involvement in class activities. This study focused on children of divorce only. There was need to carry out a study on the other types of single parent family. Furthermore, this study was conducted in West Africa.

Since some studies have shown difference based on race, there was need to conduct the current study in Kenya, which is in East Africa and compare the results for any differences or similarities from cultural context.

Ngari (2015) investigated the significance of family structure on the development of interpersonal relationships among learners in secondary schools in Meru South Sub-County. Descriptive survey and ex post facto research were adopted. A sample of 321 learners, 21 class teachers and 21 PTA representatives selected through proportionate, random and purposive sampling techniques was used in the study. Student and class teacher questionnaires and an interview guide for PTA representatives were used to collect data. Regression analysis and t-test were used for data analysis. The findings of this study showed that parental marital status, parental gender and parental socio-economic status significantly influenced the interpersonal relationships development of secondary school students in Meru South County. These findings contradicted findings of an earlier study conducted still in Kenya by Kimani (2007).

In his study, Kimani (2007) investigated parental influence on interpersonal relationships among public secondary school students within Nakuru Municipality. A Causal-comparative research design was adapted. The study sample consisted of 360 form 3 and 4 students, from both single and two parent families selected through purposive and stratified sampling techniques. A questionnaire was used to collect the data. Data analysis was done by use of chi square, t-test and ANOVA statistics. The study findings indicated no significant influence of family structure on interpersonal relationships but duration lived in single parenthood status and gender of the single parent influenced the levels of interpersonal relationships of students significantly. Parental support, guidance and care were found crucial in the development of students' interpersonal relationships

Compared to the large bodies of research on other psychosocial factors, relatively few studies have examined interpersonal relations among children and adolescents in different family structures. Generally, investigations have focused on peer relations among children of divorce. The studies have basically looked at the effects of only divorce on peer relations or children's interactions and not all family structures generally. Scanty studies have been conducted to investigate the differences in students' interpersonal relationships development as a result of various factors such as family structure, parental marital status, child's gender and type of school attended. Although these studies have shown differences in influences of family factors on boys and girlsinter personal relationships development, the actual levels of interpersonal relationships of students have not been established which was a major concern for the current study. Furthermore, most of these studies have been conducted outside Kenya where social policies and value systems are different from those in Kenya, thus creating a contextual gap. Those conducted in Kenya, reported contradictory results. Furthermore, these studies did not establish the actual levels of Kenyan students' interpersonal relationships. The current study was to fill this gap by investigating the influence of single and two parent family structure on children's interpersonal relations in school from a Kenyan context. This also aroused the researchers' interest in the present study to investigate if gender differences in interpersonal relationships of students by family structure existed.

2.4 Family Structure and social integration in school

The socialization of an individual begins in the family. The fact that what is learned in life is built on the existing knowledge, values and skills; that it takes place in the family setting and that the family is a lifelong living space for many people demonstrate the importance of the socialization process operated in the family

(Özpolat, 2010). The family is the founding unit of the individual-society relation in most of the countries in the world. Kenyan society is based on family organization; therefore, a child's social integration level has a bearing on the family structure.

Social integration is a key contributor to a student's sense of coherence, a mechanism that decreases the reactivity to stress among students in school (Mellem, 2008). Social integration includes belonging to voluntary associations (such as movements and clubs) and having close friends nearby (Pearlin and Johnson, 2015). Social integration within the school is the extent to which students are involved in peer activities that are school based, sponsored by adults, and supervised by teachers, trainers, coaches or mentors (Schmidt, Shumow and Kackar, 2007). Student involvement in school and class activities is an important indicator of student's social bond to the school, sense of belonging and it is also a way to exercise a sense of competence and control (Mellem, 2008). Therefore, student's participation in school activities is a good measure of students' social integration levels. For the present study, the concept of social integration was measured through the student's participation in activities within the school, belonging to voluntary associations and having close friends in school and class.

Studies on family structure and social integration of students in school are scarce and majority of the few studies have focused on effects of divorce on social integration. Although much of the literature on divorce and children's social integration seems biased toward emphasizing negative effects on children, some studies have reported positive outcomes. For instance, studies by Gerstel (2011; 1988) found that children from single parent families are often ashamed to tell their friends about their parental marital status for fear of disapproval. These children were also found to sometimes experience social exclusion by children from two parent families because they do not

belong to the mainstream family structure. As a result, they reported increased devaluation of self (low self-acceptance) and feelings of shame and guilt which in turn makes them withdraw from social activities and friends.

Markowitz and Ryan (2016); and Ryan, Claessens and Markowitz(2014)all reported a negative effect of single parenting on social integration of children. The findings of these studies showed that due to stigma and discrimination experienced by children in single parent homes, majority of these children use coping strategies such as secrecy, partial disclosure or social withdrawal. These reactions tend to constrict social network and support of the child which negatively affects their social integration levels. Link (1987) had reported similar results in his study, and had also noted that constricted network and support lowered self-esteem, caused depression, stress and anxiety among children further complicating their social integration process.

In 2004, Gracia and Herrero through structural equation analyses from two-wave panel data explored the effects of personal, interpersonal, and situational variables on social integration in the community of adult participants living in an urban area. The sample consisted of 536 adults drawn from the general population living in Valencia, Spain. A quota sampling strategy of gender and age was used to have equal number of men and women in four age groups representing four life-cycle stages: 18–25, 26–49, 50–64 and more than 64 years old was used to draw study sample. The study findings showed that perceived stress and depressive mood (personal) and undesirable life events such as family breakdown (situational) were statistically related to a decrease in social integration in the community. Emotional, guidance, and instrumental support (Interpersonal) were positively associated with an increase in social integration in the community.

Studies by Mabizu et al. (2014) in Swaziland, Falana et al. (2012) in Nigeria; and Kinga, Kimani and Wachira (2015) in Kenya revealed that children from single parent families are more likely to be stigmatized in the society and school as well by other students because of lack of mother or father, or because of lack of basic things such as uniform, food and proper shelter. They are also likely to suffer from negative labeling and stereotyping by classmates, teachers, school administration and the community at large thus negatively affecting their social integration. In Kiambu County (Kenya), Kimani and Kombo (2010) found that nuclear families with absent fathers suffered identity crisis which negatively affects the social integration in to the wider community.

A study by Şimşek and Şimşek (2013) in Turkey on social integration levels of high school students in the South eastern Anatolia Region found no significant difference in high school students' social integration level by sex. In their study Şimşek and Şimşek adapted a descriptive scanning model design. The study sample consisted of 1106 high school students, who were in the spring term of 2008-2009 academic year, who were studying at variety of high schools located in the eight provinces in the South eastern Anatolia Region. Data was collected through a seven dimensions Social Integration Scale (SIC) with five-point Likert-type items developed by the researchers. These contrary results may be an indication that students' age may be a strong moderating factor of social integration. This informed the present study to assessing the student's social integration by age. The study results indicated that generally social integration levels of high school students in the Southeastern Anatolia Region were high. However, the students scored low on perceived educational integration dimension. No significant difference was found on high school students' social integration level by the province of high school and type of high school.

However, a significant difference on high school students' social integration level by their class level and success in school was found. Those in upper classes had higher social integration levels compared to those in lower classes. It was therefore concluded that social integration of high school students in the South eastern Anatolia Region varied with student's class level and success in school and was not significantly influenced by student's location and type of school attended. These results were confirmed by those of later studies by Is and Ozgan (2018) and Ozgan and Aksab (2018).

Is and Özgan (2018) conducted a descriptive survey study to determine the secondary school students' perceptions on social integration in relation to gender and type of school attended during 2016-2017 educational year in Mardin city center, Turkey. A sample of 1035 students participated in the study. A five-point Likert- type Social Integration Scale of 46 items developed by HüseyinŞimşek and Ahmet Salih Şimşek (2013) was used to collect data. Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis H tests were used for data analysis. The study findings revealed a significant difference between the social integration perceptions means of the students according to the variable of gender in favor of male students.

Is and Özgan(2018) study findings further revealed a significant difference between the social integration perceptions of the students for educational integration sub-dimension by type of school. Generally, social integration levels of the students studying at Science High Schools were relatively higher than for those studying in art schools. Interestingly, the students studying at Science High Schools had a low mean in the sub dimension of educational integration. A similar study by Ozgan and Akşab (2018) which investigated the differences in social integration levels of undergraduate

students in Turkey using a sample of 545 students enrolled at the fall semester of 2016-2017 academic year found that a statistically significant difference existed between student's educational integration and class, Chi square =33.18; df=4; p=.00; p .05 in favour of freshmen. This implied that the students with the highest educational integration scores were the freshmen while the ones with the lowest educational integration were those in their final year. A statistically significant difference was also found with the student's age, $2 \times =14.45$; df=2; p=.00; p .05 in favour of older students. Study findings further revealed that students' educational integration also varied significantly with the geographical region the participants resided, $2 \times =17, 19$; df=6; p=. 00; p 05 in favour of students residing with homogenous/native population (rural) compared to those in areas dominated by immigrants from different areas (urban).

2.5 Family Structure and Academic Performance of Students

One of the key roles of a family is to provide a child with opportunities to attend school. The structure of the family determines the amount of economic, human and social capital available to a child for education. Therefore, the future educational success of children largely depends on the family into which they are born and grow up in (Wilcox et al 2009). This then points to a linking between family structure and academic performance of a child.

All through the early decades to 1990s, majority of studies on family structure and children academic performance focused on intact two parent families and single parent families through divorce. Empirical studies on influence of family structure on students' educational outcomes report contradictory, incongruent and inconsistent

findings. However, a majority of the studies report a negative influence of divorce on academic performance (Amato & Keith, 1991)

A majority of later studies still back this stand of negative effect. In one such study by Lange, Dronkers, & Wolbers (2014) on effect of school's share of single-parent families on children's educational performance, a sample of 217,180 students at 12,169 schools in 26 countries was used. Pooled data from the Organization for Economic Co- operation and Development (OECD), i.e. the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2000 and 2003 was used. Cross-Comparative research design was adopted. It was found that attending a school with a large number of children from single- parent families affected the educational performance of all children negatively, but the negative effect was even higher on children from single-mother families. Also, in countries in which the number of single-parent families was higher, children living with only a mother performed the worst at school. From these findings the researchers concluded the single parenting had a negative influence on students' academic performance. This study showed that the number of single parents in an area and single parenting itself has a negative influence on academic performance of children and that influence is more on children in single mother families.

In another study conducted in Greece by Pappa (2013), the relationship between parents' marital status and academic performance of adolescents aged 15-16 years in public schools in Athens was examined. The respondents comprised of 332 adolescents, 166 adolescents from divorced and 166 from intact families. Each group consisted of 68 (41.0%) boys and 98 (59.0%) girls. A questionnaire about their parents' relationship and their own relationship with each one of their parents, and a questionnaire about demographics were used to collect the data. A one-way analysis

of variance (ANOVA) was performed to compare the divorced and intact family samples. The results showed a relationship between parental marital status and adolescents' academic performance, with adolescents from divorced families scoring poorer in academic performance. Although the findings of this study revealed an influence of family structure on students' academic performance, the sample was based on students in single parent families through divorce only and there was need to compare the findings with those of other pathways to single parenthood. Moreover, the study was based on a sample drawn from a developed country and given that Kenya is a developing country; a similar study was needed in order to report on the cross-cultural differences and similarities if any.

In United States of America, Tillman (2007) using data from National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health for a sample of $n = 1082$ adolescents studied family structure pathways and academic disadvantage among adolescents in stepfamilies in America. A total of 503 girls (46.5%) and 579 girls participated in the study. The findings showed that divorce/separation and non-marital single parent family structures had a negative effect on adolescents' academic outcomes, no effect was found for adolescents living in single parent families due to parental death. The results further showed that living in a step- family was not beneficial to the youth, even when compared to their peers in single-mother families. The findings revealed that the disadvantage was as a result of youth transition into a stepfamily that was followed by a combination of stressful family experiences. Although this study investigated all types of single parent families, the sample was drawn from a western country. There was therefore need to investigate effect of single parenting on academic performance of children from a Kenyan context and compare results.

Family structure and academic performance of students is widely researched also in Africa and especially in Nigeria. Empirical studies still post contradictory and inconsistent reports with a majority of the studies reporting a negative influence of single parent families on educational performance of children. For instance, Obiamaka (2014) examined the relationship between academic achievement and family structure using 720 (408 females and 312 males) in-school adolescents from divorce/separated homes and two parent intact homes in Enugu State, Nigeria through a survey research design. The data was collected through Parent Habitation Questionnaire (PHQ) and documentary sources. Chi-square and t – test statistics were used to analyse data. The study findings revealed statistical relationship between academic achievement and family structure of in-school adolescents, $\chi^2 = 113.3$; $df=5$; $p=0.000$; $p<0.01$. The findings further revealed that academic achievement of in-school adolescents of divorced and separated homes were significantly lower than those of two- parent structure (intact) homes ($t=10.164$; $p=0.000$; $p=0.01$). However, this study examined effects of single parent family structure by divorce or separation only on academic performance. There was need to examine the influence of other types of single parent families (widowhood and never married- which is currently the leading cause of single parent families) on academic performance, a gap that was addressed by the current study.

Still in Nigeria, a longitudinal study was conducted by Falana, Bada and Ayodele (2012) on influence of single parenthood on school children's intellectual development in Ekiti State, Nigeria. A sample of 1,500 children participated in the study. The respondents were selected using purposive sampling technique male and female children of between 10 and 16 years from three groups (male parents, female

parents and step parents -either male or female). Respondents aged between 10 and 16 years were assessed four times during one year and a half with 6 months between each assessment. A document titled Family Structure and Child Development Inventory (FSCDI) designed by the researcher and Psychosocial and Cognitive Development Scale (PCDS) were used to collect data. The study findings showed a significant negative relationship between single-parent family structure and children intellectual capacity, $r_{\text{cal}} 0.528 > r_{\text{tab}} 0.195$. This study only assessed the total development score of cognitive development but did not assess the actual influence of family structures on academic performance of students which was a major concern of the current study.

Uwaifo (2012) examined the effect of family structure on the academic performance of 240 university students drawn from the six randomly selected faculties in Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma, Edo State in Nigeria. Adapted form of "Guidance and Counseling Achievement Grade Form" was used to collect data. The t-test was used to analyse data and test the hypothesis at .05 level of significance. Results of the study revealed that significant differences existed between the academic performance of students from single-parent family and those from two-parent family structures as indicated by t-test where the calculated t-value (4.63) was greater than the critical t-value (1.96) at 0.05 significance level and 238 degrees of freedom. A significant difference between the academic performance of female students from two parent family and female students from single parent family was found in favour of females in two parent families, $\text{cal } t\text{-value } (2.43) > \text{critical } t\text{-value } (1.96) \text{ at } \alpha = 0.05, \text{ df. } 118$. A similar pattern was observed for male students where the calculated t value (2.26) was greater than the critical t-value (1.96) at 0.05 significance level and 118 degrees of freedom in favour of boys in two parent families. Further still, the result showed a 45

significant difference in academic performance of male and female students in favour of boys in general. These results of gender difference in academic performance of university students were confirmed by a later study conducted by Mwaba Sidney, Kusanthan and Anitha Menon (2015) though inconsistent.

Mwaba Sidney et al. (2015) studied gender differences in academic performance of psychology students at the University of Zambia (UNZA) through comprehensive review of literature of five years from 2009 to 2013. The study results revealed that UNZA female students consistently obtained a better classification of degrees than the males in psychology. This outcome was linked to intrinsic motivation for the psychology courses for females thus making them study more than their male counterparts and therefore resulting to better results. Although Uwaifo (2012) and Mwaba Sidney et al (2015) reported a significant gender difference in academic performance of college students, contrary findings were reported by Goni, Yagana, Ali & Bularafa (2015).

In their study, Goni et al (2015) examined gender difference in academic performance of students in colleges of education in Borno State, Nigeria. Krejcie and Morgan method was to determine the sample size of 322 participants. Proportionate technique was used to draw the respondents from three NCE awarding institutions in the state. A Students' Academic Performance Aptitude Test (SAPAT) was used to collect data, which was analysed through. T-test. The study results reported no significant gender differences in academic performance of Colleges of Education students in Borno State.

In Kenya, Mwiigi (2014) studied the impact of gender difference on the students' academic performance in science subjects and languages in Ndumberi Division,

Kiambu County. The study involved (40) students, (30) teachers (05) directors, (05) head teachers making a total sample size of 80 respondents. The data was collected using questionnaires and interview guides. The study findings reported a significant gender difference in overall performance with more boys performing better compared to the girls in Ndumberi division. The study results further showed that girls performed better than boys in languages while boys performed better than girls in sciences. From the research findings, the researcher concluded that time wasting, irregular school attendance, low persistence, dissatisfaction, lack of motivation, negative attitude and inferiority complex were some of the factors that contributed to low overall performance among girls. The study recommended that girls be taught time management techniques.

A set of studies conducted in Nigeria and showing a negative relationship between single parenting and academic performance are highlighted as follows: In Fawole (2014) a statistically significant difference was observed in academic performance Mathematics of senior secondary school students in single parent families and those from two parent families in Ondo West Local Government area of Ondo state. The study results further revealed a significant difference between the time of payment of school fees, purchase of textbooks and other learning materials, and degree of concentration in class of children from single parents and children from couple-parents. From these findings, the researcher concluded that children from single parents are at higher risks of facing some certain problems than children from two parents, which reduces their mental and emotional strength and development.

Egunsola (2014) conducted an ex-post facto correlation survey study to investigated the influence of parental marital status on students' academic performance in Adamawa State, using agricultural science results for class 2 in 2012/13 to 2013/14

academic sessions. Z-test and correlation analysis were used to describe, analyse and interpret the data. The study results showed a statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.79$) between parental marital status and students' academic performance in Agricultural Science. These studies used selected subjects to assess academic performance of students. The current studies utilized all subjects done by the students in a standardized national examination.

Ahiaoma (2013) conducted a descriptive survey study to examine psycho- social effect of parental separation or divorces using 120 Senior Secondary School two (SS2) students drawn from twelve public secondary schools in Surulere local Government Area of Lagos State and found that parental separation or divorce has negative psycho-social effect on students' academic performance. The study results further revealed that students from families of separation and divorce suffered economic challenges which led to loss of concentration in the class and low involvement in class activities. These results are similar to those of Mabuza (2014) who carried out an exploratory research to examined the effect of single parenting on cognitive, social and emotional development of children in Swaziland and found that single parenting had negative effects on the psychosocial development of children. In Salami and Alawode (1999) a statistically significant difference was observed in academic performance of senior secondary school students in two parent and single parent homes from Ejigbo Local Government Area of Osun State, $t = 7.6$, $df = 98$, $P < .05$. The study results further revealed that single- parents had much work and family responsibilities that require time, attention, and money which they could not meet without the consequence of paying less attention to the education of their children, and this affected their children's academic performance negatively.

Although almost all studies on single parenting and children's academic performance in Nigeria report a uniform negative effect on all children, Azuka-Obieke (2013) in his study on influence of single-parenting on academic performance of adolescents in Lagos found a non-uniform effect on children. His study results revealed a significant positive relationship between single parent family structure and academic performance for some students and a significant negative relationship for others. He found that challenges of single parent families motivated some students to work harder and achieved high academic performance. Although all these studies were conducted in different states of Nigeria, used different samples and research designs, they all reported a negative effect of single parenting on academic performance of children. This inspired the researcher to carry out the current study in Kenya to compare the results.

In Ghana, Abudu and Fuseini (2013) carried out cross-sectional study to investigate whether academic performance differed between child from single parent home and those from two parent homes. Purposive sampling was used to select students from single parents in 10 Junior High Schools (JHS) within the Wa Municipality. The cross-sectional study design was adopted. Primary data was collected through a questionnaire and pupils' academic performance was obtained from pupils' report cards. Scores for the third term (2012/2013) promotion test in Mathematics, Social Studies and English Language were used. The t – test was used to analyse data. The study results showed that there was a significant difference in academic performance mean scores of pupils from single parent homes (mean = 64.21) and those from two parent homes (mean = 76.79). From the findings the researcher concluded that single parenting had negative impact on a child's academic performance, t-calculated was -4.770, p value was 0.000 and the significance level is 0.05. This situation was linked

to the fact that most of the pupils from two parent homes had greater parental involvement in their academic activities than their mates who were in single parent families. Their study further showed that there was a significant difference between the academic performance of male pupils from single parent homes and female pupils from single parent homes.

Abudu and Fuseini (2013) results were similar to those of Amoakohene (2013), who explored the relationship between single parenting and academic performance among secondary school students in Afigya Sekyere East District of the Ashanti Region, Ghana and found a negative relationship between single parenting and academic performance of students. Although these two studies revealed a negative influence of single parenting on academic performance of students, they did not use all the subjects done in a standardized national examination. Moreover, the studies were based on samples drawn from a West African country and given that Kenya is an east African country; a similar study was needed in order to report on the cross-cultural differences and similarities if any.

In Ethiopia, Chalachew and Hari Lakshmi (2013) assessed children academic achievement as correlates with parents' marital status using a sample of 240 students from four governmental junior high schools in the city of Addis Ababa. The respondents were classified under three parental marital status: intact, single-mother and stepfather family. Each group had 80 subjects with equal numbers of male (n, 40) and female (n, 40). The age ranged between 10 to 18 years, with a mean age of 14.058. The mean of average academic scores of two years for each student obtained from school's examination records were used as the measure of academic performance for each student. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyse the data. The study results showed that the academic performance of students from single

parent families was substantially lower than that of students in intact families and that the difference was statistically significant, $F(2, 235) = 2.741, p < .05$. However, no significant differences were observed between children from divorced and remarried families in academic performance.

In Kenya, studies on family structure and students' academic performance also report contradictory and inconsistent findings, and like in other countries a majority of these studies report a negative influence of single parent families on students' academic performance. For instance, Ngure and Amollo (2017) in their study on parental marital status and academic achievement of preschool children in Embakasi, Nairobi found a negative influence of single parent families on academic achievement of learners. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. A sample of 27 parents, 27 children and 5 teachers in Unity preschool was selected through simple random sampling from a target population of 90 preschool pupils, 90 parents and 5 preschool teachers. A researcher designed questionnaire and a documentary analysis form were used to collect data. The study findings showed that children from single parent families had a lower learning achievement mean score (335) compared to children in polygamous families (348). Children from two parent intact families were the best academic performers. The study findings further revealed that children from single parent homes and polygamous families were socio- economically disadvantaged due to lack of resources and this affected their learning achievement negatively. Children in two parent intact families had high parental involvement in development which contributed to their high learning achievement. From these study findings the researcher concluded that family type influenced the academic achievement of children. The study sample was drawn from preschoolers, there was

need to carry out a similar study with secondary school students and compare the results.

In Nato (2016) study he analysed the influence of family Structure on academic performance of public Secondary School Students in Bungoma East Sub-County, Kenya. The study adopted a descriptive research design and mixed methodology. The study comprised 323 respondents and a response rate of 95.7% was achieved. Study data was collected through questionnaire and interview schedule. Regression analysis and Pearson Correlation were used to analyse data and test hypotheses. The study results showed a statistically significant negative influence of single parent family on students' academic performance and a significant positive influence of intact family structure on students' academic performance in Bungoma East Sub-County. Further findings showed that students' good performance in nuclear families was as a result of good family background: family support, economic support, conducive home study environment and parental motivation to study. Student poor performance in single parent family was attributed to poor family background. One of the study recommendations was to setup more boarding schools to reduce the parenting influence. This recommendation informed the current study on schools' residential status as one of the moderating variables.

Still in Kenya, another study was conducted by Korir and Kipkemboi (2014), the purpose was to determine the relationship between family background and secondary school students' academic performance in Sabatia District of Vihiga County. The respondents comprised of 210 form four students selected using simple random sampling technique from seven public secondary schools. Questionnaires were used to collect data. Multiple regressions were used to analyse the data. The study findings showed that family background was the most potent predictor of students' academic

performance. The study findings further revealed that the person(s) whom the student stays with at home and their level of education have far reaching relationship with the student's academic performance. However, this study did not report on the extent of influence of the family structure on students' academic performance and this was a major focus of the present study. Moreover, the study was based on a sample drawn from a rural district and given that Kiambu is a 60% urban county, a similar study was needed in order to report on the cross-regional differences and similarities if any.

In a related study among pre-school children, Munini (2010) investigated the influence of single parenthood on academic Performance of pre-School children's in Mwea division of Kirinyaga district, Kenya. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. A sample of 48 respondents from the 80 pre-schools that were registered by the Ministry of Education department of ECD and had operated for over one year was used. The data was collected through a questionnaire for the teachers and an interview schedule for the parents. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. In order to explore the influence of single parenthood on academic performance of pre-school children, the researcher investigated the effect of absence of a father and mothers' employment on the children. The study findings showed that father absence was a major influence on pre-school child's performance. Mother's employment was not found to predict negative outcomes although working could have both positive and negative effects on student achievement. The findings further revealed some of the mechanisms through which single parenting interference with the learning of the pre-school children. The identified mechanisms were absenteeism, trauma, lack of financial support for learning and lack of basic necessities. Although the findings of this study revealed the influence of single parenthood on children's academic

performance, the sample was based on pre-school children and there was need to compare the findings when secondary school students were used.

Although majority of studies on family structure and children's academic performance report negative effect, other studies have reported no influence of family structure on academic performance of students. For instance, in his study on the relationship between single-parent households and two-parent households on student academic success in United States of America Ferrell (2009) found no relationship. In this study student grade point average (GPA) was used to measure academic success. The study sample comprised of even number of respondents from both households, that is single-parent and two-parent were 50% each, of which 53.3% of the respondents were female and 46.7% were male. The study findings revealed no statistically significant difference between the means of the GPA scores for students who lived in single-parent households compared to students who lived in two-parent households $t(148) = -1.32, p = 0.1894$. However, a statistically significant relationship was found between family type and school absenteeism and also between household and lateness. The highest number of absences and of lateness were found in the single-parent households.

In Nigeria, Ushie, Emeka, Ononga and Owolabi (2012), carried out a study to establish the influence of family structure on students' academic performance. The study used a sample of 114 Nigerian public secondary school students in Agege Local Government Area, Lagos State. Selected through stratified sampling technique. Data were gathered through the use of a self-administered questionnaire and examination score sheets. Scores for four subjects, English, Mathematics, Economics and Biology were used to measure academic performance of the students. The t-test result showed that there is no significant difference in the academic performance of students

from single parent families and those from two parent families ($p>0.05$), while the multinomial logistic regression (MLR) result revealed that parental socioeconomic background significantly influenced students' academic performance ($p<0.05$). The study findings further showed that irrespective of the family structure, students whose parents had better jobs and higher levels of income tended to have higher levels of literacy performance. The researcher therefore concluded that family structure did not determine students' academic performance, but parental socioeconomic background did. These results were similar to of Amofa (2013), who found no correlation or relationship between the type of home a student came from and his/her academic performance in the school in South Africa.

Furthermore, in a local study by Ntitika (2014) on effect of family type on academic performance of the students in public secondary schools in Isinya District, Kajiado County, the study findings showed no effect of family structure on academic performance of students. However, students and parental positive attitude towards education were found to positively relate with academic performance. Parent's economic status and stability, provision of extra learning resources and enrollment of a student in the school of choice were too found to relate positively with academic performance. These results were similar to those of Madime (2005) who studied the effect of single parenthood on students' academic performance in Nairobi. Questionnaires and observation schedules were used to collect data. Academic performance was measured by the grade the student had obtained at the last examination, gathered from the class mark sheets. The study findings showed no statically significant difference between academic performance of single parent children and those of two parents. The researcher concluded that the status of single parenthood had no effect at all on the child's performance as had been often alleged.

However, the gender of single parent (a father), parental unemployment, low child support and late payment of fees were found to have a negative effect on student's academic performance.

Type of school attended is believed to be one of the factors that influence a student's academic performance. Although studies on family structure and academic performance moderated by type of school attended are not available, a few studies on school type and student's academic performance have been conducted. Studies on influence of type of school (either by gender, residential status or ownership) on student's educational performance report mixed findings. For instance, proponents of single-sex (SS) education believe that separating boys and girls, by classrooms or schools, increases students' achievement and academic interest. This stand has been confirmed by results of Jackson (2016) who carries out a study to identify the causal effect of single-sex education on academic outcomes and crime in 20 low-performing pilot secondary schools that had been converted from mixed-sex to single-sex in Trinidad and Tobago. The study findings showed that both boys and girls in single-sex cohorts at pilot schools scored 0.14 higher in the academic subjects on national exams. The single-sex effects were found to reflect both direct gender peer effects (due to interactions between classmates) and indirect effects (due to changes in teacher behavior).

In another study, Doris and O'Neill (2006) compared the effect of single-sex and mixed-sex classes on middle school student achievement through a case study research. West Virginia Educational Standards Test scores in reading/language arts and math for years 2003-2004 and 2004-2005 for 279 students were compared to measure the effect. A paired-samples T-test and analysis of variances at .01 significant level were used to analyse the data. Findings of the study revealed a

statistically significant difference in the reading/language arts performance of single-sex and mixed-sex classes in favour of students enrolled in single-sex classes. A statistically significant difference in the math performance of single-sex and mixed-sex classes was found, in favour of those students enrolled in single-sex classes. However, an earlier study by Leonie and Lesley posted contradictory results for boys. In their study, Leonie and Lesley (1997) examined perceptions of students on learning settings in single-sex and mixed-sex mathematics classes using 300 students in four coeducational secondary schools and their teachers. The data was collected through a questionnaire that sought students and teachers views of the nature of their participation and interaction in their mathematics classrooms. There was congruence of perceptions of the environment in the two types of classrooms between students' and teachers. The overall study findings showed that single-sex classrooms provided a more supportive environment for girls but were found to provide a rather less supportive environment for boys.

In Kenya, Bosire and Barmao (2008) studied the effect of streaming by gender on Nakuru District secondary school students' achievement in mathematics. Kenya National Examination results for the years 1999, 2000 and 2001 were used to measure mathematics achievement of the participants. The sample consisted of 1489 candidates selected from four secondary schools in Nakuru District, Kenya. Statistical analysis was done. The study results showed that streaming based on gender had improved overall student achievement in mathematics, more so that of girls. It was concluded that streaming by gender would be a useful class environment intervention for improving the performance of girls in mathematics in mixed-sex schools.

Pahlke, Hyde and Allison (2014) carried out Meta-Analysis research of 184 studies that have tested the effects of single-sex and mixed-sex (coeducational) schooling on

students' achievement and academic interest. The sample involved consisted of 1.6 million students in Grades K–12 from 21 nations. The variables measured included mathematics performance, science performance, mathematics attitudes, self-concept, educational aspirations and gender stereotyping. The study findings did not find any statistically significant effects on students in both sets of schools. It was therefore concluded that Single-sex schooling did not provided benefits compared with Coeducational schooling and that the studies showing some differences could have been as a result of no controls for selection effects and no random assignment in treatment groups.

While Bosire and Barmao (2008); Huntington (2006); Jackson (2016); Leonie and Lesley (1997); Pahlke et al., (2014) analysed students' academic performance across school type categorized by gender (single sex or mixed-sex), Okon and Archibong (2015) analysed academic performance across school type categorized by ownership (private or public). Okon and Archibong (2015) compared the academic performance in social studies of students at the junior secondary certificate examination (JSCE) in both private and public secondary schools in Akwa Ibom State using a sample of 940 respondents drawn from both private and public schools. Ex-post facto research design was adopted. T-test analysis was used to compare the groups. The study findings revealed that students in private secondary schools performed better in Social Studies than those in public schools.

2.6 Summary of Reviewed Literature and Research Gaps

A review of empirical literature reveals inconsistent, conflicting and contradictory views on the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relations, social integration and academic performance. The empirical evidence, although

inconsistent in places, is dotted by a number of consistent findings. Majority of studies reviewed in this chapter has shown that single parent family structure influences children's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration

academic performance

However, some few studies have found some positive outcomes of being raised in single parent family structure with others indicating no effect at all. Others have found the influence of family structure to vary with child's gender and type of school attended. Therefore, influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance remains contradicting, controversial and inconclusive. Most of the previous studies on family structure and its influence on children's wellbeing have been conducted in western countries with little attention having been given in Africa as well as Kenya creating a contextual gap.

With the increasing number of students from single parent families due to non-marital births, divorce and widowhood in Kenya and in addition to inconsistent, contradicting and controversial findings on the influence of family structure on psychosocial development and academic performance of these children made this current study necessary. There was urgent need to establish exact influence from a Kenyan context. This study therefore aimed at filling the gap left by previous researchers by looking at the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance of students in public secondary schools from a Kenya context.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored on two theories: The hierarchy of needs theory by Abraham Maslow (1954) and social learning theory by Bandura (2002). The two theories complemented each other in the discussion of this study.

2.7.1 The hierarchy of needs theory by Abraham Maslow (1954)

In his Pyramid of Human Needs, Abraham Maslow puts emphasis on the hierarchy of needs, stating that some are more urgent than others. Maslow postulated a hierarchy of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. The most fundamental and basic four layers of the pyramid contain what Maslow called deficiency needs. These are physiological, safety/security, belongingness and love, and esteem needs.

Physiological needs include physical requirements for human survival such as food, clothes and shelter. Safety and security needs include personal security, financial security, health and well-being safety net against accidents or illness and their adverse impacts. Belongingness and Love needs are interpersonal and involves feelings of belongingness (deficiencies within this level can impact the individual's ability to form and maintain emotionally significant relationships in general, such as friendship, intimacy and family). Esteem needs presents the typical human desire to be accepted and valued by others and deprivation of these needs may lead to an inferiority complex, weakness, and helplessness. This may further constrain social integration of the person to wider society. In his pyramid Maslow placed the growth needs (self-actualization) at the fifth level. This level of need refers to what a person's full potential is and the realization of that potential.

According to Maslow, psychological health is not possible unless the essential core of the person is fundamentally accepted, loved and respected by others and by himself or herself. Self-acceptance allows people to face life with more confidence, benevolence and optimism which are key ingredients to self-actualization. Positive self-acceptance increases one's capacity to treat others with respect and goodwill, which enriches interpersonal relationships. High self-acceptance is also known to correlate with greater ability to deal with stress and higher likeliness that a person takes on difficult tasks relative to those with low self-acceptance. Self-acceptance is a critical factor in the grades a student earns in school, in their relationships with peers and in later success in life.

In the current study, this theory was applied to demonstrate that when basic needs (first level), and safety and security needs (second level) are not adequately met (due to economic, human and social capital deficit), the student may develop feelings of inferiority and insecurity thus affecting their self-concept and relationships with others. Inadequate satisfaction of the first two levels may hinder the progress to third level in the hierarchy (sense of belongingness) thus affecting the social integration levels. When deficiency needs are not adequately met, the student's self-concept (esteem needs and growth/self-actualisation needs) does not fully develop fully. Therefore, secondary school students are likely to report low self-acceptance and may never utilize their potentials fully even in academic areas if they do not access adequate amount of family resources.

2.7.2 Social cognitive theory

Social cognitive theory asserts that behavior is learned by observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others or role models (Bandura,

2002). Social learning theory, therefore puts emphasis on the importance of role models focusing on parents as the first and primary reinforcer of child behavior (Bandura & Walters, 1963). It rationally follows those partings from the nuclear family norm are problematic for the child's progress, especially for adolescents who are in a crucial stage in the developmental process. This then implies the crucial importance of both parents' presence and also suggests that certain causes for parental absence may heighten any negative effects. Therefore, family structure is an environmental agent that impacts human development and thus affects student's psychosocial wellbeing and academic performance. In the current study, the theory was applied to demonstrate how lack of one parent in a home or poor role model(s) are likely to negatively affect a student's acquisition of social skills and competence necessary for positive interpersonal interactions and social integration leading to antisocial behavior such as taking alcohol, fighting and bullying.

2.8 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The Conceptual Framework shows interrelationships among the study variables. From the description of the problem that was investigated in this study and the theoretical underpinning to this study, the following conceptual framework, as shown below in Figure 2.1, was developed by the researcher to aid in conceived influence of independent variable on dependent variables of the study.

**INDEPENDENT MODERATING VARIABLES DEPENDENT VARIABLES
VARIABLE**

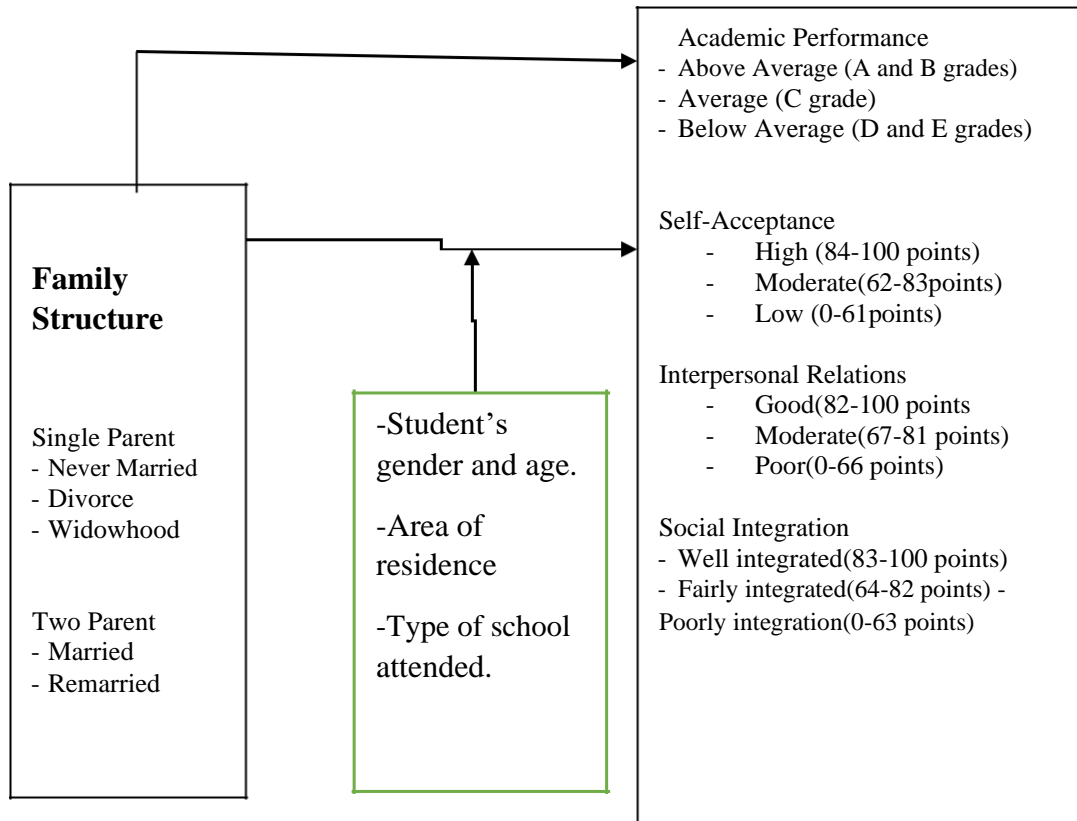


Figure 1: Relationships between the Variables of the Study Source: Researcher, (2017)

In Figure 1 above, student's family structure is the independent variable that determines the amount of economic, human and social resources necessary for a child's psychological, social, emotional and cognitive development in the light of Hierarchy of Needs and Social Learning Theories. The dependent variables are the student's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance levels. The Academic achievement was measured by 2017 KCSE results. The moderating variables are student's gender and age, school type attended and area of residence. The researcher conceptualizes that family structure influences self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance of a child.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology that was used in the study in order to realize the set objectives of this study. The chapter covers research design, variables, location of the study, target population, sampling design, instrumentation, pilot study, data collection techniques, data analysis and presentation, and logistical and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted Descriptive research design. Descriptive research design is used to obtain information concerning the current status of phenomena and to describe what exists with respect to variables in a situation. Survey method was employed. Survey method means gathering of a sample of data or opinions considered to be representative of a whole group or population through questionnaires or polls Kumar (2011). The description of the population as a whole is inferred by the results obtained from the sample. Descriptive survey research design was employed in order to enable the researcher to adequately get descriptive data from self-reported opinions, feelings and attitudes through a questionnaire on influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relations, social integration and academic performance levels from a sample of students in public secondary schools in Kiambu county in order to describe the population under study. This is in line with Kumar (2011) who observed that survey research design is the most appropriate for obtaining self-reported opinions, attitudes, beliefs and values. The survey descriptive results or statistics obtained in turn enabled the researcher to test the study hypotheses.

3.3 Location of the study

The study was conducted in of Kiambu County, Kenya. Kiambu County is located in the central region of the country. The county is within the greater Nairobi and is divided into 13 sub-counties. Kiambu County is 60% urban and 40% rural. Approximately 23.4 % of the families in the county are headed by single mothers (Kenya Population Situation Analysis, 2013; Open Data Kenya, 2014).

The county consists of 274 public secondary schools and 104 private schools totaling to 378 secondary schools (Kiambu County Education Office, 2017). The public secondary schools are fairly staffed with qualified teachers with a teacher- student ratio of 1:25, which is above the national teacher-student ratio of 1: 52. The gross enrolment rate in secondary in Kiambu County is at 69.3 percent accompanied by 8.2% drop out rate ((Kiambu County profile, 2015). The KCSE mean score of the county for 2013 -2017 is as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Kiambu County Secondary Schools KCSE Mean Score Analysis (2013 – 2017)

Year	Mean Score	Mean Grade
2013	4.32	D+
2014	4.44	D+
2015	4.66	C-
2016	4.11	D+
2017	3.72	D+

Source: Kiambu County Director of Education Office, (2018).

3.4 Target Population

Population refers to an entire group of individuals, events, or objects having a common observable characteristic(s) (Orodho, 2005). Target population refers to the population to which a researcher wants to generalize the results of the study

(Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The target population was all the 138,608 students enrolled in the 274 public secondary schools in Kiambu County, out of which 67,822 were male students and 70,786 female students

(Kenya county profile, 2015).A total of 29,103 students sat for 2017 KCSE national examination in Kiambu County where 13,889 and 15,249 were male and female candidates respectively.

Table 2 gives a summary of the public secondary schools’ residential status in the County.

Table 1:Public Secondary Schools in Kiambu county.

Schools’ Residential Status	No of Schools
Girls Boarding	38
Boys Boarding	28
Mixed Gender Boarding	67
Mixed Gender Day	139
Girls Day	2
Total	274

Source: County Director of Education, Kiambu (2017)

3.5Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the group selected contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Orodho & Kombo, 2002).

3.5.1 Sampling Techniques and Procedure

The study utilized both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Probability methods are free from bias; however, they present a risk of missing important sub-groups and thus lack of complete representation of the target population. Probability methods were therefore combined with non-probability

methods. Non-probability sampling is used when the researcher is interested in representativeness of concepts in their varying forms. The aim is for the sample to be theoretically representative of the study population by maximizing the scope or range of variation of the study.

Specifically, three types of sampling procedures were employed; purposive sampling, stratified sampling and simple random sampling. Purposive sampling was used to select study location, public secondary schools and form four students. Only schools that had students registered to sit for KCSE in 2017 which is set, administered and evaluated by Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) were eligible for selection. In sampling schools, stratified sampling based on the school's residential status, i.e. girls boarding, boys boarding, mixed boarding, mixed day schools, was done first. Simple random sampling was used to select schools from these strata. This method is preferred so as to provide equal chance of selection for each school in the strata. The method will also yield data that can be generalized to a larger population (external validity). Four boys boarding, four girls boarding, six mixedgender boarding and sixteen mixed gender day schools were selected. In total 30 out of 274 schools were selected for the study. This represents 11% of the total numbers of public secondary schools in Kiambu County which is considered enough in social science study which recommend a minimum of 10% (Gay, 1981). Purposive sampling was used to select the form four students from the schools sampled. As indicated earlier, the choice of form four students was informed by the need to measure academic performance by Kenya National Examination which is standardized and uniform for all students. Finally, simple random sampling was used in each stratum to obtain the respondents.

3.5.2 Sample Size Determination

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster, 1985). The sample consisted of 385 participants and which was obtained through simple random sampling procedures using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula for determining a sample size. This formula allows the calculation of an ideal sample size given desired level of precision, confidence level, and estimate of the attribute present in the population. This formula is also considered appropriate for a large and known population size. The Krejcie and Morgan formula is stated as:

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP (1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)}$$

Where:

S = Required Sample size

X = Z value (e.g. 1.96 for 95% confidence level)

N= Population Size

P = Population proportion (expressed as decimal) (assumed to be 0.5 (50%))

d = Degree of accuracy (5%), expressed as a proportion (.05); It is margin of error

In this study, the target population was 138,608 public secondary school students in Kiambu County.

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \frac{1.96^2 * 138608 * 0.5 (1-0.5)}{(0.05)^2 * (138608-1) + 1.96^2 * 0.5 (1-0.5)} \\ &= \frac{133119.1232}{347.4779} = 383 \text{ students} \end{aligned}$$

A sample size of 385 respondents was adopted for the study. This is more than the 383

respondents recommended by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) as per their formula. Table 3 presents sample population distribution.

Table 2: Sample population distribution

Category of Schools	No. of Schools	Sampled Schools	Sampled Students
Girls			
Boarding	33	4	40
Boys			
Boarding	23	4	40
Mixed			
Boarding	57	6	60
Mixed Day	112	16	245
Total	225	30	385

The sample size therefore is $n=385$ students

3.6 Research Instruments

The tools of this study were questionnaire and document analysis for 2017 KCSE results.

Questionnaires have the ability to collect a large amount of information in a short time, questions are standardized, anonymity and confidentiality is possible, and they are easy to analyze since they are in an immediate usable form (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Furthermore, this study was mainly concerned with variables that cannot be directly observed or manipulated. The data collection instrument was developed by examining the research objectives, hypotheses and related literature. The researcher ensured that there were items addressing each objective. Kenya National Examination results mark sheet for year 2017 was used to collect data on students' academic performance.

3.6.1 Students' Questionnaire

The student's self-administered questionnaire (appendix B) was used to collect information on the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration. Self-administered questionnaire is the only way to elicit self-report on people's opinions, attitudes, beliefs and values (Jaccard & Becker, 2010). The questionnaire comprised of five parts:

Part 1 of the instrument sought the demographic information of the respondent. The second, third and fourth parts consisted of three sub-scales for measuring Self-acceptance, interpersonal relations and social integration. Sub-scale on interpersonal relationships consisted of 14 items while sub-scales on self-acceptance and social integration consisted of 11 items each. Each of the items provided alternative responses thus: Strongly Disagree (SD); Disagree (D); Disagree Slightly (DS); Agree Slightly (AS); Agree (A); Strongly Agree (SA) The sub-scales for measuring Self-acceptance sub-scale was adapted from Scales of Psychological Wellbeing by Ryff (1989); Interpersonal relationships sub-scale was adapted from Scales of Psychological Wellbeing by Ryff (1989) and interpersonal scale by Kimani (2010) and sub-scale for measuring Social integration sub-scale was adapted from Keyes (2006) and Hickman (2007) social integration scales. The fifth part consisted of four questions for measuring a student's schooling behavior. Each student was expected to respond to the relevant items in all sections of the questionnaire. Care was taken to ensure acceptable level of test items validity and reliability.

3.6.2 Document Analysis

Finally, the 2017 KCSE national examinations aggregate grades and mean scores obtained by students who participated in the study were used to depict their levels of academic performance as high (A and B), moderate level (C) and low level (D and E).

This document was accessed from the various secondary schools from which the respondents were drawn during the second phase of data collection.

3.7 Pilot Study

This involves piloting the research instruments before they are administered to the respondents

The pilot study was conducted in order to pretest the students' questionnaire for the purposes of ensuring clarity of instructions (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Pilot study also helped to determine the validity and reliability of the items in the questionnaire and to understand the logistical issues of the study such as time that students were supposed to take to respond to the items in the questionnaire.

For the purpose of ascertaining pilot study, 10% of the total sample size was used (Orodho, 2004).Forty form four students, i.e. 10% of the instituted study sample of 385 respondents, from four schools (10 students drawn from each category of schools described in Table 3.) and not among the selected sample were used. The respondents were given the questionnaire to fill in the presence of the researcher in order to find out if any difficulty is to be experienced in understanding the items and to also to observe time spent in responding. The filled questionnaires were collected, scored and analyzed by the researcher to get the reliability and validity of the instrument. The information from the pilot study helped to modify the items in the original scales. One question which was vague was rephrased to make it clearer and two questions that were repetitive were removed. Changes and corrections were done before the instrument was administered to the sample group.

3.7.1 Validity of the research instruments

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to be measuring. For the purpose of the current study, face, content and construct validity which are non-71

statistical methods were used to validate the content and instruments employed in the research instrument (Orodho, 2012). The researcher ensured face validity by assessing the appearance of the questionnaire in terms of viability, readability, consistency of style and formatting, and the clarity of the language used. To facilitate content validity, the researcher sought the input of professional guidance from research experts comprising of university supervisors who ascertained that the test items are relevant and contain the desired content domain. They also confirmed construct validity by attesting that the test items relates as they should be to other tests of similar variables with which it should theoretically correlate and that the test measured the constructs they claimed to be measuring.

For content validity, the researcher selected a representative sample of indicators from the study domains of psychosocial aspects and academic performance. The indicators selected were informed by the study objectives, study guiding theories and literature review. The researcher further sought the input of professional guidance from research experts comprising of university supervisors who ascertained that the test items are relevant and contain the desired content domain. They also confirmed both convergent and divergent construct validity of items, by attesting that the test items corelate theoretically as they should be to other tests of similar variables and that the test measured the constructs they claimed to be measuring. Explicit description of the variables and random sampling (where possible) was used to reduce the threat to external validity. The researcher used the completed questionnaires from the piloting schools to avoid threat to internal validity. Necessary corrections and adjustments were then made to the instruments before they were used in the actual collection of data in the field.

3.7.2 Reliability of the research instrument

Reliability is the degree to which a measurement technique or test can be depended upon to secure consistent results upon repeated application.(Tavokol and Dennick, 2011).Instrumentation is a problem when the measuring instrument is unreliable (a threat to internal validity), therefore the researcher ensured that the questionnaires were reliable. To calculate the reliability of the questionnaire the researcher used Cronbach's Alpha (a measure of Internal Consistency Technique). This is a method of estimating reliability of multiple-question Likert scale surveys by use of a single administration of a test. The scores obtained from the questionnaire administered to 40 respondents from the pilot schools were used. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was computed to determine the overall reliability of the questionnaire items. The following formula was used to compute reliability

$$r_{\alpha} = (k/k-1) (1 - \sum \sigma^2 / \sigma^2)$$

Where:

$\sum \sigma^2$ = sum of item variances

σ^2 = total scale variance

k = total number of the test items

The pilot sample size was 30 respondents. Scores of 20 test items (K) from the questionnaire were used to compute the reliability. Sum of item variances ($\sum \sigma^2$) was 21.17 and the total scale variance was 103.32. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is therefore,

$$r_{\alpha} = (20/20-1) (1-25.17/ 83.32)$$

$$= (1.05) (0.8)$$

$$= 0.84$$

The test items were considered reliable since they yield a reliability coefficient of 0.84. This figure is usually considered good and desirable for internal consistency (Chepchieng', 2004).

3.8 Data Collection

Prior to the commencement of data collection, the researcher obtained all the necessary documents. After the proposal was approved by the graduate school of Maasai Mara university and on obtaining research letter from the same (see appendix C), the researcher obtained research permit from National Council for Science and Technology (NACOST), see appendix E and F. Upon acquiring a research permit, the researcher obtained authorization to conduct research in the schools from the Kiambu County Director of Education and County Commissioner (see appendix D). The principals of the sampled schools were requested to give the necessary assistance during data collection. The purpose of the study and the anticipated benefits of the findings were explained to the principals. To ensure that the respondents were available at the appropriate time, the researcher consulted with the principals. The appropriate day and time for data collection were booked.

The researcher collected primary, quantitative data through a self-designed questionnaire which was delivered and distributed to the respondents by the researcher in person. The questionnaire was administered through self-completion strategy i.e. the respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires themselves and collected after the agreed-on time by the researcher. This was intended to increase the response rate. The questionnaire was administered to all the selected students in a school at the same time to ensure that there was no discussion among the respondents. The researcher also collected secondary information on academic performance of the selected students from the 2017 KNEC list after the results were out from the schools' deans of studies and sub-county education directors.

3.9 Data Analysis

The questionnaire sub-scales were scored, the data was validated, edited (to determine representativeness and completeness), and then coded for statistical analysis by the computer using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Quantitative analysis by use of descriptive and inferential statistics were applied. Descriptive statistics- frequencies, percentages, modes, range, mean and standard deviation were used to describe and summarize the data with reference to levels of academic performance, self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and distribution of demographic variables (gender, age, type of school attended and area of residence). Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used in tabulation of variables, generation of appropriate frequency percentages and calculating the relevant statistics. Data was presented through figures and tables. The results of analyses were presented in form of figures and tables. The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 significance level using the following statistical tests:

Ho1: Family structure has no statistically significant influence on student's self-acceptance levels in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya. Statistical test for this hypothesis was Kruskal-Wallis H Test (One Way Anova on Ranks).

Ho2: Family structure has no statistically significant influence on students' interpersonal relationships levels in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya - Kruskal-Wallis H Test (One Way Anova on Ranks).

Ho3: Family structure has no statistically significant influence on students' social integration levels in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya-. Statistical test for this hypothesis was Kruskal-Wallis H Test (One Way Anova on Ranks).

Ho4: Family structure has no statistically significant influence on student's academic performance levels in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya. Statistical test for this hypothesis was Kruskal-Wallis H Test (One Way Anova on Ranks).

3.10 Logistics and Ethical Considerations.

Logistics and ethical issues are perceived to be all the processes, activities, or actions that a researcher must address or carry out to ensure successful completion of a research project (Orodho, 2005). The researcher ensured that the questionnaires were neat, easy to use and easy to code and analyze. The researcher followed the proper chain of command by first obtaining permission from the Graduate School of Maasai Mara University to conduct the study (see appendix C). Authority to conduct research (research permit) was obtained National Council for Science and Technology – NACOSTI (see appendix E and F). The researcher then sought for introduction and permission from the County Ministry of Education and County Ministry of Interior and Co-ordination offices (See Appendix D). The researcher further obtained consent from schools' Principals, teachers and students. Respondents' privacy and confidentiality was observed by use of part of KCSE registration numbers instead of their actual names in order to keep the students' identity anonymous and school coded by unique numbers to further ensure confidentiality. The researcher obtained informed consent from the participant to confirm that they were participating voluntarily after advising on the purpose of the study, type of information to be collected and how it was to be used.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the study findings on the influence of family structure on student's psychosocial aspects and academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya are presented in line with the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The relevant descriptive statistics for each objective are given, followed by the specific inferential statistics used to test the null hypothesis stated in order to achieve the study objective. The data is presented using frequency distribution tables and figures. Kruskal Wallis H test was used in statistical hypotheses testing. Finally, a discussion of the findings is given in view of the reviewed related literature and theoretical linkages between the relevant study variables. The chapter is organized into; the introduction, general information and questionnaire return rate, demographic information of the respondents, findings for the stated hypotheses, interpretations and discussion of the findings. Presentation of findings, interpretations and discussions were related to the following objectives and hypotheses.

- i. To find out the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. *H₀₁*: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.- was tested using Kruskal Wallis H test

- ii. To establish the influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relations in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. *H₀₂*: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on students'

interpersonal relationships in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.-
was tested using Kruskal Wallis H test

iii. To determine the influence of family structure on students' social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.*H₀₃*: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on students' social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.-was tested using Kruskal Wallis H test

iv. To establish the influence of family structure on students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.*H₀₄*: There is no statistically significant influence of family structure on student's academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya.-was tested using Kruskal Wallis H test

4.2 General Information and Questionnaire Return Rate

The researcher conducted data collection exercise in two phases. In the first phase, the researcher visited all the sampled schools and administered the questionnaire to each of the respondents. The researcher purposively targeted four students as experienced adolescents to give views on family structure and self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships and social integration. Furthermore, they were the group sitting for the Kenya National Examination 2017 whose results were to be used for measuring academic performance. All the 385 questionnaires that were administered were returned and all met minimum entry condition for further analysis in this study. This represented a 100% questionnaire return rate. A high questionnaire return rate enables generalization of the results to the target population, for accuracy of survey. The researcher considered this response rate as satisfactory to continue with analysis.

The second phase of data collection involved going to sub-county education offices and revisiting schools used for the study to obtain the 2017 KCSE aggregate points and grades for the students who participated in the study. Although KCSE results were released in December 2017 by the cabinet Secretary for education, the exercise of collecting the results from the schools and Sub- County offices by the researcher was done from mid-February 2018 to end of March 2018. The waiting period was to give schools time to analyse, compile and forward copies of their results to the relevant sub-county education offices. The researcher was able to obtain the examination results for all the 385 students who participated in the study. The actual sample size is as shown by the return rate presented in Table 4.

Table 3: Return Rate

<i>Return Rate</i>			
Type of school by residential status	Gender		
	Male	Female	Total
Boarding	73(19)	99(25.7)	172(44.7)
Day	116(30.1)	87(22.6)	203(52.7)
Mixed day & Boarding	05(1.3)	05(1.3)	10(2.6)
Total	194(50.4)	191(49.6)	385(100)

Note. N=385; () = % of the total.

Table 4 shows the return rate of the questionnaires from the schools sampled. There were 172(44.7%) valid responses from the sampled boarding schools, 203(52.7%) from the sampled day schools and 10(2.6%) from the sampled mixed day & boarding schools.

4.3 Demographic Information of the Participants

This section deals with the survey items aimed at establishing the respondents' background information. This section analyses the characteristics of the sample of the study. In this section, frequencies, percentages, means and modes were used to

describe and summarize data in reference to demographic characteristics of the respondents. The demographic variables analyzed were age and gender of the respondents, student's residential area, and school type by gender and by residential status. The information with regard to the analyses of the respondents' demographic data is as follows.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age

It was important to investigate the age of respondent in this study. In Kenya, according to Ministry of education schooling guideline, KCSE candidates are categorised into three age groups namely: Ideal age group/bracket (16-23 years of age); Under age group (below 16 years of age) and above age group- candidates who are more than 23years of age (Ministry of Education Cabinet Secretary, 2017). Table 5 presents the age distribution of the respondents by age brackets.

Table 4: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percent
Above age(above 23 yrs)	6	1.6
Ideal age(16-23 yrs)	368	95.6
under age(below 16 yrs)	11	2.9
Total	385	100.0

Note; N=385

From the data contained in Table 5, majority of the respondents were aged between 16 and 23 years, which is the ideal age bracket of students in the form four class level in Kenya. This ideal age bracket constituted 368(95.6%) of the sample. Besides this, 6(01.6%) of the respondents were above age (above 23 years) and 11 (2.9%) were under age (below16 years). This distribution was found to be consistent with the national age distribution of 2017 KCSE candidates, where KNEC reported 81.9% of students being in ideal age bracket and 2.04% being under age.

4.3.2 Distribution of the Respondents by gender

Both male and female students in public schools in Kiambu County were surveyed.

Table 6 presents the respondents distribution by gender.

Table 5: Respondents distribution by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	194	50.4
Female	191	49.6
Total	385	100.0

Note: N=385

From the data contained in Table 6, there was an almost equal gender representation with 194 (50.4%) male and 191(49.6%) female respondents in the study. This distribution was found to be consistent with the normal gender distribution in the Kenyan secondary schools. Usually, male students are more in number than female students. The distribution was also consistent with the 2017 KCSE registered candidates (population from which the sample was drawn), of which 51.6% were males and 48.4% were female (KNEC Register, 2017).

4.3.3 Distribution of respondents by Area of Residence

The aim of investigating the area of residence was to determine the influence of contextual factors such as stigma, social comparison and social support, which play a role on children's psychosocial and educational development. In Kenya, these contextual factors and their influence on students are known to vary with locality, which is rural or urban. The results on respondents' distribution across residential areas is presented in Table 7.

Table 6: Distribution of Respondents by Area of Residence

Area of Residence	Frequency	Percent
Rural	181	47.0
Urban	204	53.0
Total	385	100.0

Data contained in Table 7 show that most students were residing in urban areas as indicated by a 53% (204) of such cases and 47% (181) were residing in rural areas. This distribution was found to be consistent with the normal residential distribution in Kiambu County where the sample was drawn. Being third in urbanization in Kenya, Kiambu County is 60% urban and 40% rural.

4.3.4 Distribution of Respondents by Type of School Attended

The sampled schools were classified on residential status (boarding, day, and mixed day & boarding) and sex (boy only, girls only and mixed boys and girls) strata. The students' distribution into these strata is shown in Table 8. The most common public secondary schools found in Kiambu County were day schools (students commute daily from their homes) and boarding schools (students residing in schools for three months and go for a month's holiday at home). The preferred schools according to the study's findings were day schools. Mixed Day and Boarding schools were significantly few and least preferred. Table 8 presents the distribution of respondents across school types.

Table 7: Distribution of respondents by type of school Attended

Type of School	Frequency	Percent
Girls only	98	25.5
Boys only	74	19.2
Mixed Boys & Girls	213	55.3
Sub-Total	385	100.0
Boarding	172	44.7
Day	203	52.7
Mixed Day and Boarding	10	2.6
Sub-Total	385	100.0

Note. N=385

The findings in Table 8 show that all categories of schools, whether boarding, day, mixed day and boarding, girls or boys only, or mixed girls and boys fairly provided respondents for the study. This gave a near equal representation of respondents from each category of schools in Kiambu County. Day schools, being the most popular, contributed 52.7% (203 respondents). Boarding schools, being second in popularity, contributed 44.7% (172 respondents) and mixed day and boarding schools accounted for only 2.6% (10 respondents). As the Table 8 indicates, the most populated schools within Kiambu County were mixed gender, also known as coeducation schools (boys and girls schooling together) with 56.4% of the students sampled compared to girls only schools with only 25.5% and boys only schools with only 19.2% of the total sample. Interestingly, almost all-day schools in Kiambu County are mixed gender schools. This therefore, translates to majority of students going to mixed gender (coed) day schools.

4.3.5 Distribution of Respondents by Family Structure and Self-Acceptance

In this study, family structure was operationalized as the number and marital status of parent(s) a student lives with, that is, single (never married, divorced and widowed) or both parents (married or remarried). The information on family structure of the respondents was collected from the demographic section of the students'

questionnaire. Two questions aimed at identifying the specific family structure that the respondents lived in were used to collect the data. The participants' responses to the first question, which sought the number of the parents the respondent lived with, was analyzed to identify the first level of family structures (primary family structure). The participants' responses resulted in two primary family structures namely single parent and both parents' families. The participants' responses to the second question, which sought the marital status of the respondent's parents, was analyzed to identify family structures at the second level (subsets of primary family structures). The results yielded five subsets of family structures: never married, married (intact), divorced, widowed and remarried (reconstructed). The distribution of respondents across the family structures is presented in Table 9.

Table 8: Distribution of respondents by family structure

Family Structure	Frequency	Percent
Single Parent	193	50.1
Two Parents	192	49.9
Sub-Total	385	100.0
Never Married	135	35.1
Married	177	46.0
Divorced	31	8.1
Widowed	33	8.6
Remarried	9	2.3
Sub-Total	385	100.0
Single parent Father	21	10.9
Single parent Mother	172	89.1
Sub-Total	193	100.0

As shown in Table 9, out of the total number of respondents (N = 385), 193(50.1%) respondents were living in single parent family structure and 192 (49.9%) respondents were living in two parent family structure. This shows that the two types of primary 84

family structures contributed fairly to the study sample. Results in Table 9 further reveal that the majority of the students 177(46%) were from two parent family structure married category and only 2.3% were from the remarried category. From single parent families, never married category contributed 35.1% of the respondents. Widowed and divorce constituted 8.6% and 8.1% respectively of the sample. From the study results, it can be deduced that 17.7% of the respondents who were in single parent families at the time of study had lived in both parent family structure category at some point in their lives. This could have had an effect on the respondents' scores for the study variables.

The single parent family structure was further analyzed on the basis of the gender of the parent the respondent lived with, that is, mother or father. The results in Table 9 revealed that majority of the respondents in single parent families lived with mothers and there were 89.1% of such cases (172 respondents out of 193 in single parent family structure). Only 10.9% lived with the fathers. The common practice in Kenya is that children born out of marriage setting live with their mothers. Legally, in case of divorce children under the age of 18 years live with their mothers in most cases, thus contributing to the large number of respondents living with mothers only.

In this study, self-acceptance data was derived from subjects' responses to a self-acceptance scale. The self-acceptance scale consisted of 11 statements measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (6 points) to strongly disagree (1 point) hence a maximum of 66 points and a minimum of 11 points. The total scores of the scale for each student were computed and then converted into percentile. The

percentage values of the respondents' self-acceptance scores were used to compute the descriptive statistics of respondents' self-acceptance. Table 10 presents the results.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Self-acceptance

Variable	N	Percent	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness
Family Structure							
Single Parent	193	50.1	98.00	18.00	67.23	15.18	-.570
Two Parents	192	49.9	100.00	35.00	77.58	13.47	-.714
Sub Total	385	100.0	100.00	18.00	72.40	15.24	-.632
Never Married							
Never Married	135	35.1	98.00	29.00	69.93	12.90	-.541
Married							
Married	177	46.0	100.00	29.00	76.46	14.58	-.740
Divorced							
Divorced	31	8.1	92.00	18.00	63.42	15.04	-.946
Widowed							
Widowed	33	8.6	98.00	24.00	66.73	20.60	-.386
Remarried							
Remarried	9	2.3	98.00	64.00	81.44	11.51	-.278
Gender							
Male	194	50.4	98.00	18.00	72.45	15.72	-.672
Female	191	49.6	100.00	24.00	72.36	14.78	-.587
School Type							
Girls only	98	25.5	100.00	24.00	74.46	15.83	-.909
Boys only	74	19.2	98.00	38.00	77.43	14.55	-.659
Mixed Boys and Girls							
Mixed Boys and Girls	213	55.3	98.00	18.00	69.71	14.66	-.587
Boarding							
Boarding	172	44.7	100.00	24.00	75.83	15.34	-.839
Day							
Day	203	52.7	98.00	18.00	69.64	14.80	-.589
Mixed day and Boarding							
Mixed day and Boarding	10	2.6	85.00	53.00	69.50	10.86	-.113
Age							
Above age	6	1.6	76.00	45.00	58.83	11.20	.413
Ideal age	368	95.6	100.00	18.00	72.52	15.28	-.660
under age	11	2.9	98.00	53.00	76.00	12.60	-.148
Area of Residence							
Rural	181	47.0	98.00	18.00	69.30	15.76	-.657
Urban	204	53.0	100.00	32.00	75.16	14.24	-.550
Sub Total	385	100.0	100.00	18.00	72.40	15.24	-.632

The anticipated minimum and maximum self-acceptance percentage scores were 17 and 100 respectively. As shown in Table 10 the minimum and maximum scores for

the total group were 18.0 and 100.0 respectively, the range was therefore 82 scores. The sample self-acceptance mean score was 72.40 and the standard deviation was 15.24. The distribution of the students' self-acceptance score was large and negatively skewed as indicated by coefficient of skewness (-0.632). This shows that the mean score was less than the median, implying that more than half of the participants rated themselves above 72.40 on this scale. However, there were some respondents who scored very low as indicated by the wide range of 82 scores. The mean score, standard deviation and skewness of respondents from single parent and both parent families were $x=67.25$; Std dev= 15.18; $sk= -0.570$ and $x= 77.58$; Std dev= 13.47; $sk= -0.714$. Distribution of scores for the two groups was negatively skewed. However, the skewness for two parent family group was larger than that of single parent family group. This shows that there was a larger number of respondents above the mean from two parents' families compared to those in single parent families. Interestingly, respondents from remarried family substructure had the highest self-acceptance mean score (81.44) while those from divorce family substructure had the lowest self-acceptance mean score (63.42).

The data in Table 10 further shows that students from boarding schools reported the highest self-acceptance mean score (75.83) while those in mixed boarding and day schools reported the lowest self-acceptance mean score (69.50). Students in single gender schools reported higher self-acceptance means (boys only=77.43, girls only=74.46) compared to their counterparts in mixed gender schools (69.71). From these findings, it can be deduced that generally students in single gender schools performed better than those in mixed gender schools and that boys in single gender schools performed better than girls in single gender schools.

The self-acceptance mean score for male and female respondents was 72.45 and 72.36 respectively. This implies that boys and girls fared almost the same on self-acceptance scale. Interestingly, under-age category students reported the highest self-acceptance mean score (76.0) while the above-age category students reported the lowest self-acceptance mean score (58.8). Students from urban areas reported a higher self-acceptance mean score (75.20) than those in the rural areas (69.3).

The respondents' self-acceptance score was further used to categorize the respondents into three hierarchical groups/levels (low, moderate and high) for comparison purposes. The cut-off scores for levels low, moderate and high were 0-61, 62-83 and 84-100 respectively. The distribution of respondents across the three levels is shown in Table 11.

Table 10: Distribution of Respondents by Levels of Self-acceptance

Family Structure	Self-Acceptance Levels			Total
	High	Low	Moderate	
Single Parent	27(7.0)	70(18.2)	96(24.9)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	82(21.3)	30(7.8)	80(20.8)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)
Never Married	21(5.5)	39(10.1)	75(19.5)	135(35.1)
Married	72(18.7)	32(8.3)	73(19.0)	177(46.0)
Divorced	2(0.5)	17(4.4)	12(3.1)	31(8.1)
Widowed	9(2.3)	12(3.1)	12(3.1)	33(8.6)
Remarried	5(1.3)	0(0.0)	4(1.0)	9(2.3)
Sub Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)

Results in Table 11 shows that the majority of the students (71.7%) reported moderate and low levels of self-acceptance and that only 28.3% of the students reported high levels of self-acceptance. Results in Table 11 show that a higher percent of students in 88

two parent families (21.3%) compared to their counter parts in single parent families (7.0%) experienced high levels of self-acceptance. On the other, 18.2% of students in single parent families and 7.8% of their counterparts in two parent families expressed low levels of self-acceptance. From these results it can be deduced that more than two thirds of the students in public secondary schools in Kiambu County were therefore not happy with themselves and their achievements in life, were not confident and positive about themselves, did not like most of the aspects of their personality, were not able to accept their shortcomings and were low in self-awareness. This may explain the raising cases of emotional problems such depression, anxiety, anger, bullying and self-harming behaviours such alcohol and drug abuse, eating disorders, suicide and suicidal thoughts among students.

Study results further revealed that majority of students in married and never married parent families expressed moderate level (19%) while majority of students in divorced parent's families experienced low levels (4.4%) of self-acceptance. Interestingly, majority of students with remarried parents expressed high levels of self-acceptance and none (0.0%) experienced low self-acceptance. Majority of students from widowed parent families experienced low (3.1%) and moderate (3.1%) levels of self-acceptance. From these results, it can be deduced that divorce and widowhood have a negative influence on students' self-acceptance while remarrying seems to have a positive influence on self-acceptance. These results therefore, indicate that the number and marital status of parent(s) living with a child may have an influence on self-acceptance levels of a student.

Further analysis was done on students' self-acceptance levels by family structure across gender, age, area of residence and type of school attended. Results on levels of students' self-acceptance cross-tabulated by family structure and gender are presented in Figure 2.

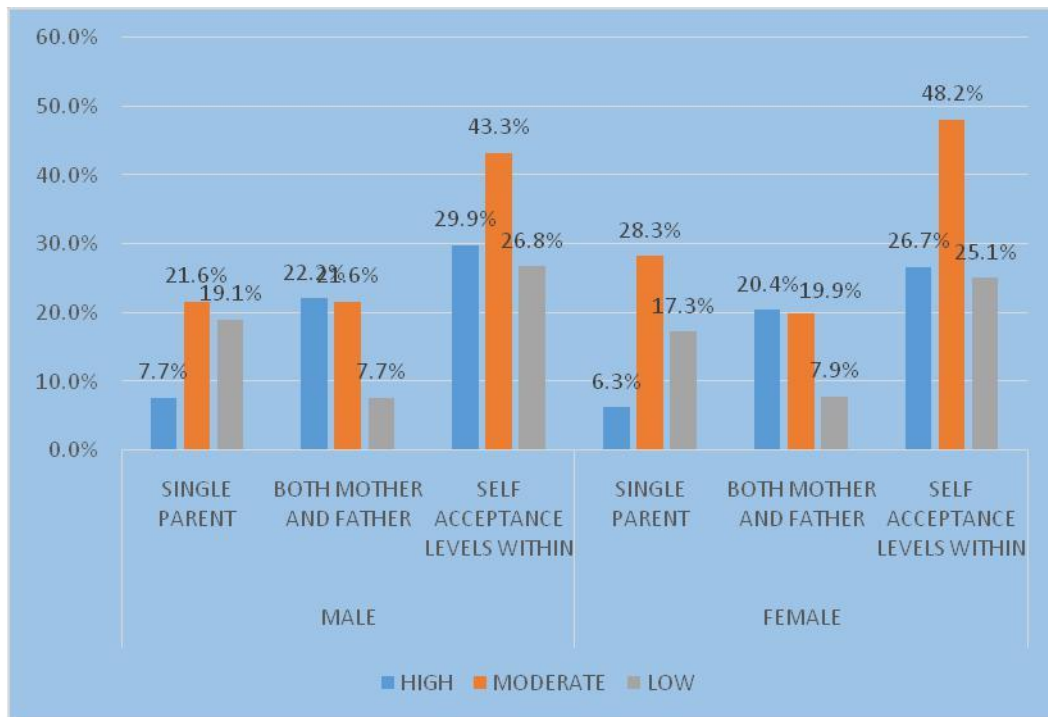


Figure 2: Distribution of respondents by Self-acceptance, Family Structure and Gender.

Findings in Figure 2 show that more boys (29.9%) than girls (26.7%) experienced high level of self-acceptance. From single parent families, girls performed poorer on self-acceptance than boys with only 6.3% and 7.7% respectively reporting high levels of self-acceptance. The same trend was observed for the respondents in two parent families where 20.4% of girls and 22.2% of boys reported high self-acceptance. Further analysis showed that boys in both parent families scored higher in self-acceptance than boys in single parent families. Similarly, girls in two parent families

were higher in self-acceptance compared to their counterparts in single parent families.

Study findings further revealed that boys out performed girls in all family structure subsets. However, boys living with remarried parents performed better than their counterparts in the other subsets while girls in married or intact families outperformed their counter parts in the other subsets. Boys and girls from divorce families performed the poorest across subsets. Generally, boys were higher than girls in self-acceptance across all family structures and boys in two parent families were better than boys in single parent families. Boys in remarried families reported the highest self-acceptance mean score of 89.75 overall while girls in married families reported the highest self-acceptance among all girls. Both male and female respondents in divorce families reported the lowest self-acceptance levels, 63.67 and 63.19 respectively. These results show that family structure has influence on students' self-acceptance and that the level of influence varies with the parental marital status and the student's gender. Divorced parental marital status seems to impact negatively to both boys' and girls' self-acceptance levels while remarriage seems to work to the benefit of boys. Results on distribution of respondents by family structure and age are presented on Table 12

Table 11: Distribution of respondents across family structures and age brackets.

Family Structure/Age	Above age	Ideal age	Under age	Total
Single Parent	2(33.3)	184(50.0)	7(63.6)	193(50.1)
Both Parents	4(66.7)	184(50.0)	4(36.4)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	6(100.0)	368(100.0)	11(100.0)	385(100.0)
Never Married	2(33.3)	130(35.3)	3(27.3)	135(35.1)
Married	3(50.0)	169(45.9)	5(45.5)	177(46.0)
Divorced	1(16.7)	28(7.6)	2(18.2)	31(8.1)
Widowed	0(0.0)	32(8.7)	1(9.1)	33(8.6)
Remarried	0(0.0)	9(2.4)	0(0.0)	9(2.3)
Sub-Total	6(100.0)	368(100.0)	11(100.0)	385(100.0)

Note. $N = 385$; () = % of the total

The data in Table 12 shows that 66.7% and 33.3% of the respondents in above age stratum were from two parents and single parent family structures respectively. On the other hand, the single parent family structure contributed a higher percentage (63.6%) compared to two parent structure (36.4%) of the under-age students. This could be as a result of single parents taking children to school before time due to family economic resource deficits to hire appropriate home care. Both single and two parent family structures contributed equally to the ideal age stratum, which is 47.8% each. Interestingly, all the students from the remarried family structure were in ideal age bracket and none of the students from widowed family structure were in above age bracket. Results on distribution of respondents by levels of self-acceptance, family structure and age are presented in Table 13.

Table 12: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-acceptance and Age

Family	Age	Self-acceptance Levels			Total
		High	Low	Moderate	
Single parent	Above age	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	1(0.5)	2(1.0)
	Ideal age	27(14.0)	67(34.7)	90(46.6)	184(95.3)
	Under age	0(0.0)	2(1.0)	5(2.6)	7(3.6)
	Total	27(14.0)	70(36.3)	96(49.7)	193(100.0)
Both parents	Above age	0(0.0)	3(1.6)	1(0.5)	4(2.1)
	Ideal age	79(41.1)	27(14.1)	78(40.6)	184(95.8)
	Under age	3(1.6)	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	4(2.1)
	Total	82(42.7)	30(15.6)	80(41.7)	192(100.0)
Total	Above age	0(0.0)	4(66.7)	2(33.3)	6(100.0)
	Ideal age	106(28.8)	94(25.5)	168(45.7)	368(100.0)
	Under age	3(27.3)	2(18.2)	6(54.5)	11(100.0)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)

Note. N=385; () = % of the total

Table 13 shows that only 28.8% of the respondents in ideal age and 27.3% of respondents in under age reported high level of self-acceptance. On the other hand, none of the respondents in the above age stratum reported high level of self-acceptance. From single parent family structure, students in ideal age stratum (14.0%) performed better than those in under age (0.0%) and above age (0.0%) strata. From both parent families, none of the above age students had high self-acceptance while 41.1% of students in the ideal age and 1.6% from under age brackets had high self-acceptance. Ideal age students in two parent families performed better than those in single parent families. Further analysis across the family structure subsets reveal that the ideal age students performed better than above and under age students in all subsets and that ideal age students from remarried ranked the highest on self-acceptance.

From the above findings, it can be deduced that age has an influence on students' self-acceptance and that the influence varies with family structure. Above age is more detrimental to student's self-acceptance compared to under age and the impact is more pronounced in single parent families. There are various causes of delay in schooling such as repeating classes due to poor academic performance, high absenteeism or failure to sit for end of term/year examination, dropping out of school at some point and late entry into school. All these factors may be related to family socio-economic challenges, which may in turn affect provision of basic needs for the children thus affecting their self-acceptance.

Self-acceptance of the respondents was still further analysed on the basis of area of residence to determine the extent to which this demographic factor might have moderate the influence of family structure on respondents' self-acceptance. Table 14 shows the distribution of students by family structure and area of residence.

Table 13: Distribution of respondents by Family Structure across Areas of Residence

Area of Residence	Rural	Urban	Total
Family Structure			
Single Parent	96(24.9)	97(25.2)	193(50.1)
Both Parents	85(22.1)	107(27.8)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	181(47.0)	204(53.0)	385(100.0)
Never Married	70(18.2)	65(16.9)	135(35.1)
Married	77(20.0)	100(26.0)	177(46.0)
Divorced	13(3.4)	18(4.7)	31(8.1)
Widowed	17(4.4)	16(4.2)	33(8.6)
Remarried	4(1.0)	5(1.3)	9(2.3)
Sub-Total	181(47.0)	204(53.0)	385(100.)

Note. N=385; () = % of the total.

Table 14 shows that 27.8% of the students in both parent family structure were living in urban area and 22.1% were living in rural area. In single parent family structure, the distribution was almost even with 25.2% living in urban areas and 24.9% living in rural areas. Across the family subsets, a higher percentage of students from never married (18.2%) and widowed (4.4%) family structures were living in rural areas compared to 16.9% and 4.2% respectively living in urban areas. On the other hand, a higher percentage of students from married (26.0%), divorce (4.7%) and remarried (1.3%) family structures were living in urban areas compared to 20.0%, 3.4% and 1.0% respectively living in rural areas. From these findings, it can be deduced that majority of the public secondary school students in Kiambu County were living in urban areas. This was probably because of either many parents working in the urban areas and hence residing there or divorced and reconstituted families renting houses and also working in the urban areas. Working parents are more likely to pay school fees on time, afford/provide additional educational materials for their children, provide for their basic needs more punctually and sufficiently and this could have an influence on the outcomes of the study variables. The area of residence also determines a student's access to family human and social capital resources, which are of importance in development of this study's dependent variables. Table 15 presents the distribution of respondents by family structure, self-acceptance and area of residence

Table 14: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-Acceptance and Area of residence

Family	Area of Residence	Self-Acceptance Levels			Total
		High	Low	Moderate	
Single parent	Rural	13(6.7)	42(21.8)	41(21.2)	96(49.7)
	Urban	14(7.3)	28(14.5)	55(28.5)	97(50.3)
Two parents	Rural	33(17.2)	19(9.9)	33(17.2)	85(44.3)
	Urban	49(25.5)	11(5.7)	47(24.5)	107(55.7)
Total	Rural	46(25.4)	61(33.7)	74(40.9)	181(100.0)
	Urban	63(30.9)	39(19.1)	102(50.0)	204(100.0)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Rural	12(8.9)	23(17.0)	35(25.9)	70(51.9)
	Urban	9(6.7)	16(11.9)	40(29.6)	65(48.1)
Married	Rural	27(15.3)	20(11.3)	30(16.9)	77(43.5)
	Urban	45(25.4)	12(6.8)	43(24.3)	100(56.5)
Divorced	Rural	1(3.2)	9(29.0)	3(9.7)	13(41.9)
	Urban	1(3.2)	8(25.8)	9(29.0)	18(58.1)
Widowed	Rural	4(12.1)	9(27.3)	4(12.1)	17(51.5)
	Urban	5(15.2)	3(9.1)	8(24.2)	16(48.5)
Remarried	Rural	2(22.2)	0(0.0)	2(22.2)	4(44.4)
	Urban	3(33.3)	0(0.0)	2(22.2)	5(55.6)
Total	Rural	46(11.9)	61(15.8)	74(19.2)	181(47.0)
	Urban	63(16.4)	39(10.1)	102(26.5)	204(53.0)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

The data in Table 15 shows 25.4% of respondents from rural areas and 30.9% from urban areas reported high levels of self-acceptance. Students living in urban areas from single and two parent families (7.3%, 22.5% respectively) were higher in self-acceptance compared to their counterparts in single and both parent families in rural areas (6.7%, 17.2% respectively). This implies that generally students living in rural areas were lower in self-acceptance levels compared to their counterparts in urban areas. This might have been probably caused by stigmatization and discrimination in various aspects, and labeling and stereotyping normally experienced in rural areas. Limited access to family resources leading to economic deprivation and denial of some rights and opportunities might have been in play too. Interestingly none (0.00%) of the respondents from remarried family structure in both rural and urban areas registered low self-acceptance. Furthermore, majority in this category (55.6%)

expressed high self-acceptance levels with a higher percentage being from urban areas (33.3%). Respondents living in rural areas from divorced families recorded the highest percentage (29.0%) in low levels of self-acceptance followed by those in widowed families (27.3%). The distribution of participants was further analysed by family structure and type of school attended. The findings are contained in Table 16.

Table 15: Distribution of respondents by Family Structure across School Type

School Type	Girls Only	Boys Only	MBG	Total
Family Structure				
Single Parent	49(12.7)	34(8.8)	110(28.6)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	49(12.7)	40(10.4)	103(26.8)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	98(25.5)	74(19.2)	213(55.3)	385(100.0)
Never Married	32(8.3)	33(8.6)	70(18.2)	135(35.1)
Married	49(12.7)	32(8.3)	96(24.9)	177(46.0)
Divorced	7(1.8)	3(0.8)	21(5.5)	31(8.1)
Widowed	7(1.8)	5(1.3)	21(5.5)	33(8.6)
Remarried	3(0.8)	1(0.3)	5(1.3)	9(2.3)
Sub-Total	98(25.5)	74(19.2)	213(55.3)	385(100.0)
	Boarding	Day	MDB	Total
Single Parent	82(21.3)	105(27.3)	6(1.6)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	90(23.4)	98(25.5)	4(1.0)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	172(44.7)	203(52.7)	10(2.6)	385(100.0)
Never Married	64(16.6)	69(17.9)	2(0.5)	135(35.1)
Married	82(21.3)	90(23.4)	5(1.3)	177(46.0)
Divorced	10(2.6)	19(4.9)	2(0.5)	31(8.1)
Widowed	12(3.1)	20(5.2)	1(0.3)	33(8.6)
Remarried	4(1.0)	5(1.3)	0(0.0)	9(2.3)
Sub-Total	172(44.7)	203(52.7)	10(2.6)	385(100.0)

Note. $N = 385$; () = % of the total; MBG= Mixed Boys and Girls; MDB=Mixed Day and Boarding.

Data in Table 16 reveals that a higher percentage of students from single parent families (27.3%) were in day schools compared to 25.5% of students from two parent families. There were more students in boarding schools from two parent families (23.4%) than from single parent families (21.3%). Further analysis on family subset

revealed that majority of the students from never married (18.2%:17.9%) and married (23.4%: 24.9%) families were in day, mixed boys' and girls' schools. None (0.00%) of the students from remarried families was in mixed day and boarding schools, majority were in single gender schools. Generally, majority of students from single parent families were in day, mixed boys' and girls' schools. Some of the determining factors for the type of school a child is to attend is affordability. Due to lack/absence of one parent, single parents are more likely to suffer economic loss thus reducing their ability to sustain children in boarding schools since they are more expensive compared to day schools. Furthermore, majority of single parents are likely to be living with their parents in the rural areas where day schools are more and easily accessible thus opting for day schools. Tables 17a and 17b present results on cross tabulation of self-acceptance levels across family structure and school type. Results on self-acceptance, family structure and school type by gender are contained in Table 17a.

Table 17 a : Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Self-acceptance and School Type

Family Structure	By Gender	Self-acceptance Levels			Total
		High	Low	Moderate	
Single parent	Girls only	7(3.6)	13(6.7)	29(15.0)	49(25.4)
	Boys only	13(6.7)	9(4.7)	12(6.2)	34(17.6)
	MBG	7(3.6)	48(24.9)	55(28.5)	110(57.0)
Two parents	Girls only	27(14.1)	6(3.1)	16(8.3)	49(25.5)
	Boys only	19(9.9)	7(3.6)	14(7.3)	40(20.8)
	MBG	36(18.8)	17(8.9)	50(26.0)	103(53.6)
Total	Girls only	34(34.7)	19(19.4)	45(45.9)	98(100.0)
	Boys only	32(43.2)	16(21.6)	26(35.1)	74(100.0)
	MBG	43(20.2)	65(30.5)	105(49.3)	213(100.0)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Girls only	17(12.6)	14(10.4)	33(24.4)	64(47.4)
Married	Boys only	4(3.0)	24(17.8)	41(30.4)	69(51.1)
	MBG	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	2(1.5)
Married	Girls only	43(24.3)	13(7.3)	26(14.7)	82(46.3)
	Boys only	28(15.8)	18(10.2)	44(24.9)	90(50.8)
	MBG	1(0.6)	1((0.6))	3(1.7)	5(2.8)
Divorced	Girls only	0(0.0)	5(16.1)	5(16.1)	10(32.3)
	Boys only	2(6.5)	11(35.5)	6(19.4)	19(61.3)
	MBG	0(0.0)	1(3.2)	1(3.2)	2(6.5)
Widowed	Girls only	6(18.2)	3(9.1)	3(9.1)	12(36.4)
	Boys only	3(9.1)	9(27.3)	8(24.2)	20(60.6)
	MBG	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)	1(3.0)
Remarried	Girls only	1(11.1)	0(0.0)	3(33.3)	4(44.4)
	Boys only	4(44.4)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	5(55.6)
Total	Girls only	67(17.4)	35(9.1)	70(18.2)	172(44.7)
	Boys only	41(10.6)	62(16.1)	100(26.0)	203(52.7)
	MBG	1(0.3)	3(0.8)	6(1.6)	10(2.6)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)

Note. N=385; () = % of the total MBG= Mixed Boys and Girls

Data in Table 17a shows that only 20.2% of the students from the mixed gender schools had high level of self-acceptance while in single gender schools, 43.2% of students in boys only and 34.7% of students in girls' only schools had high level of self-acceptance. Single sex schools are known to be free of social pressures from opposite sex and helps to prevent the opposite sex from influencing one's self-image. By removing distractions and experiencing this positive environment, students can

then develop a constructive attitude about themselves, their academics
and their social 99

interaction leading to higher levels of self-acceptance. This might have been the reason as to why a higher percentage of the students in the single sex schools compared to mixed sex schools experienced high self-acceptance.

An analysis on family structure subsets revealed that a higher percentage (12.6%) of respondents attending girls' only schools compared to those attending boys only schools (3.0%) from never married families expressed high levels of self-acceptance. A similar trend was observed for respondents in married families (24.3% in girls only and 15.5% in boys only) and in widowed families (18.2% in girls only and 9.1% in boys only) reporting high level of self-acceptance. On the other hand, a higher percentage of respondents in boys only schools (44.4%) compared to those in girls only (11.1%) from remarried families reported high level of self-acceptance. None (0.00%) of the respondents from divorced families schooling in girls only schools reported high level of self-acceptance. Male students from remarried homes and female students from married families schooling in single gender schools reported the highest self-acceptance mean scores (86.00 and 79.43 respectively), while both male and female students from divorce homes reported the lowest self-acceptance mean scores (68.67 and 62.57 respectively). On the other hand, both male and female students from remarried homes schooling in mixed gender schools scored the highest self-acceptance mean scores (91.00 and 85.50 respectively) while both male and female students from divorce homes schooling in mixed gender schools recorded the lowest mean scores (62.42 and 63.67 respectively). Cross tabulation of self-acceptance, family structure and school residential status yielded the findings shown on Table 17b.

Table 17 b: Distribution of students by family structure, School residential Status and Self-acceptance

Family Structure	By Residential Status	Self-acceptance Levels			Total
		High	Low	Moderate	
Single parent	Boarding	20(10.4)	22(11.4)	40(20.7)	82(42.5)
	Day	7(3.6)	45(23.3)	53(27.5)	105(54.4)
	MDB	0(0.0)	3(1.6)	3(1.6)	6(3.1)
Two parents	Boarding	47(24.5)	13(6.8)	30(15.6)	90(46.9)
	Day	34(17.7)	17(8.9)	47(24.5)	98(51.0)
	MDB	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	3(1.6)	4(2.1)
Total	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Boarding	17(12.6)	14(10.4)	33(24.4)	64(47.4)
Married	Day	4(3.0)	24(17.8)	41(30.4)	69(51.1)
	MDB	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	2(1.5)
Married	Boarding	43(24.3)	13(7.3)	26(14.7)	82(46.3)
	Day	28(15.8)	18(10.2)	44(24.9)	90(50.8)
	MDB	1(0.6)	1(0.6)	3(1.7)	5(2.8)
Divorced	Boarding	0(0.0)	5(16.1)	5(16.1)	10(32.3)
	Day	2(6.5)	11(35.5)	6(19.4)	19(61.3)
	MDB	0(0.0)	1(3.2)	1(3.2)	2(6.5)
Widowed	Boarding	6(18.2)	3(9.1)	3(9.1)	12(36.4)
	Day	3(9.1)	9(27.3)	8(24.2)	20(60.6)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)	1(3.0)
Remarried	Boarding	1(11.1)	0(0.0)	3(33.3)	4(44.4)
	Day	4(44.4)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	5(55.6)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)
Total	Boarding	67(17.4)	35(9.1)	70(18.2)	172(44.7)
	Day	41(10.6)	62(16.1)	100(26.0)	203(52.7)
	MDB	1(0.3)	3(0.8)	6(1.6)	10(2.6)
	Total	109(28.3)	100(26.0)	176(45.7)	385(100.0)

Note. N=385; () = % of the total Key: MDB- Mixed Day and Boarding.

Table 17b shows that a higher percentage of students in boarding schools (39.0%) than students in day schools (20.2%) reported high self-acceptance while 10.0% of the students in mixed day and boarding schools reported high self-acceptance. In the both parent family stratum, a higher percentage of students in boarding schools (24.6%) scored high in self-acceptance compared to students in day (17.7%) and mixed day and boarding (0.5%). Similar trend was observed for students in single parent family structure where 10.4%, 3.6% and 0.0% of students in boarding, day and mixed day and boarding schools respectively reported high level of self-acceptance. Students

from two parent families in boarding schools scored higher on self-acceptance compared to students in boarding schools from single parent families. Male students from remarried homes and female students from married families in boarding schools reported the highest self-acceptance mean scores (86.00 and 79.44 respectively), while both male and female students from divorce homes reported the lowest self-acceptance mean scores (68.67 and 62.57 respectively). On the other hand, both male and female students from remarried family structure schooling in mixed day and boarding schools scored the highest self-acceptance mean scores (91.00 and 85.50 respectively). Contrary, male students from divorce families schooling in mixed day and boarding schools recorded the highest self-acceptance mean score of 82.00 points.

In boarding schools, students may be able to learn independence and sufficient sense of self. Boarding schools also provide a more enclosed and stable environment for a student within all the student's educational and social settings. This could have been the reason why more students from boarding schools were reporting high self-acceptance. However, students in boarding schools from single parent homes did not perform as well as those from two parent homes in boarding schools. This shows that perhaps other factors were in play, factors such as provision of basic items, promptness in school fees and parental involvement in school activities and provision of extra learning resources.

4.3.6 Family Structure and Interpersonal Relationships

The second objective of the study sought to establish the influence of family structure on students' interpersonal relations in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. To establish this, respondents' interpersonal relationships were measured through an interpersonal relationships scale and the scores were analysed. In this study, interpersonal relationships data was derived from subjects' responses to an interpersonal relationships scale consisting of 14 statements measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (6 points) to strongly disagree (1 point). The total scores of the scale for each student were computed and then converted into percentiles. The percentage values of the respondents' interpersonal relationships scores were used to compute the descriptive statistics of respondents' interpersonal relationships. The results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Interpersonal Relationships

Family Structure	N	Percent	Max	Min	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
Single Parent	193	50.1	99.00	31.00	73.13	12.48	-.648
Two Parents	192	49.9	99.00	31.00	75.04	12.85	-.544
Total	385	100.0	99.00	31.00	74.08	12.69	-.580
Never							
Married	135	35.1	94.00	42.00	72.92	11.30	-.510
Married	177	46.0	99.00	31.00	74.95	13.13	-.537
Divorced	31	8.1	99.00	39.00	72.32	14.50	-.809
Widowed	33	8.6	94.00	31.00	75.73	13.90	-1.25
Remarried	9	2.3	95.00	60.00	74.44	12.96	.647
Gender							
Male	194	50.4	98.00	18.00	72.45	15.72	-.672
Female	191	49.6	100.0	24.00	72.36	14.78	-.587
School Type							
Girls only	98	25.5	96.00	31.00	75.63	12.20	-.915
Boys only	74	19.2	99.00	44.00	76.09	12.18	-.508
MBG	213	55.3	99.00	31.00	72.67	12.96	-.463
Boarding	172	44.7	99.00	31.00	75.89	12.05	-.740
Day	203	52.7	99.00	31.00	72.44	12.98	-.456
MDB	10	2.6	94.00	49.00	76.30	14.27	-.676
Total	385	100.0	99.00	31.00	74.08	12.69	-.580

Note: N=385 KEY: MBG=Mixed Boys & Girls; MDB=Mixed Day & Boarding

Results presented in Table 18 shows that the minimum and maximum scores for the total group were 31.00 and 99.00 respectively. The anticipated minimum and maximum scores were 17 and 100 respectively. The total group mean score and standard deviation was 74.08 and 12.69 respectively. The distribution of the students' interpersonal relationships score was negatively skewed as indicated by coefficient of skewness -0.580. This shows that the mean score was less than the median, implying that over 50% of the participants scored above 74.08 on interpersonal relationships scale. The mean score, standard deviation and skewness of respondents from single parent group were $x = 73.13$; $std\ dev = 12.48$; $sk = -0.648$ and for two parents group $x = 75.04$; $std\ dev = 12.85$; $sk = -0.544$. Distribution of scores for the two groups was negatively skewed. However, the skewness for single parent group was larger than that of both parents group. The mean score for single parent group was lower than the total group mean and the both parent group mean. This shows the respondents in single parent families reported lower levels of interpersonal relations than the respondents in both parent families.

From Table 18, male respondents had a slightly higher interpersonal relationships mean score (72.45) compared to the female respondents (72.36). The data in Table 18 further shows that students from mixed boarding and day schools reported the highest interpersonal relationships mean score (76.30) while those in day schools reported the lowest interpersonal relationships mean score (72.44). Students in single gender schools reported higher interpersonal relationships means (boys only=76.09, girls only=75.63) compared to their counterparts in mixed gender schools (72.67). From these findings, it can be deduced that generally students in single gender schools performed better than those in mixed gender schools and that boys in single gender schools performed slightly better than girls in single gender schools.

For comparison purposes, the respondents' interpersonal relationships score was used to categorize the respondents into three hierarchical groups/levels (poor, fair and good). The cut-off scores for levels poor, fair and good interpersonal relationships were 0-66, 67-81 and 82-100 respectively. Table 19 presents the distribution of respondents across the three levels.

Table 19: Levels of Interpersonal Relationships

Family Structure	Interpersonal Relationships Levels			Total
	Fair	Good	Poor	
Single Parent	88(22.9)	49(12.7)	56(14.5)	193(50.1)
Both Parents	79(20.5)	61(15.8)	52(13.5)	192(49.9)
Sub-Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)
Never Married	63(16.4)	30(7.8)	42(10.9)	135(35.1)
Married	71(18.4)	58(15.1)	48(12.5)	177(46.0)
Divorced	16(4.2)	8(2.1)	7(1.8)	31(8.1)
Widowed	14(3.6)	12(3.1)	7(1.8)	33(8.6)
Remarried	3(0.8)	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	9(2.3)
Sub Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)

Note. N = 385; () % of the total

Results in Table 19 shows that the percentage of students with poor interpersonal relations (28.1%) and those that reported good interpersonal relations was almost equal (28.6%). Forty-three-point four percent (43%) of the students reported fair interpersonal relations. From these results it can be deduced that more than two thirds of the students in public secondary schools in Kiambu County had few close friends, spent less time with friends, shared less with teachers and friends about their concerns and did not enjoy being in school. This may explain raising cases of lack of emotional

control among students as manifested by the numerous school strikes and arson attacks in Kiambu County as reported by Kageni (2012). Majority of the respondents from remarried families (1.0%) reported poor interpersonal relationships while majority of never married(16.4%) and married(18.4) reported fair interpersonal relationships.

The study further sought to examine students' interpersonal relationships levels by family structure across gender, age, area of residence and type of school attended. Results from cross tabulation of interpersonal relationships levels, family structure and gender are presented in Figure 3.

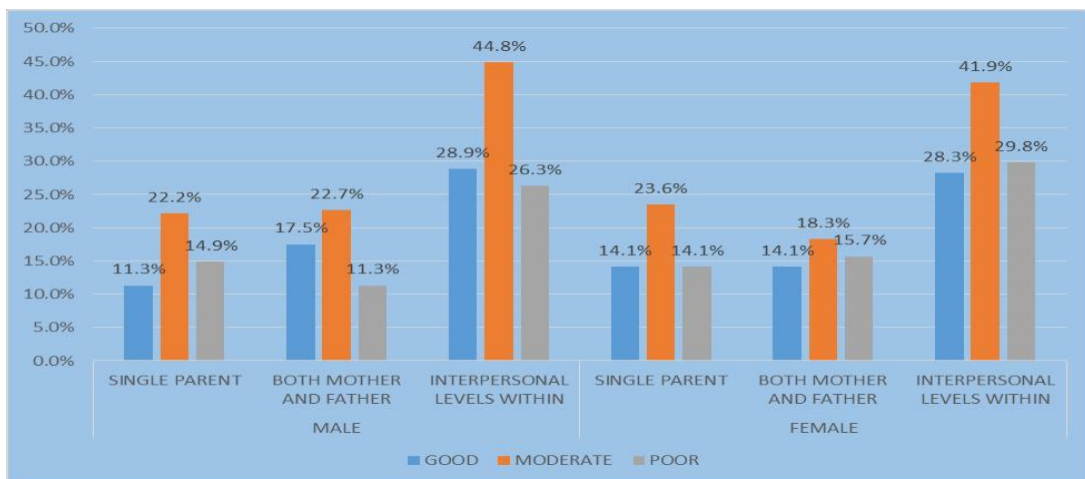


Figure 3: Distribution of respondents by Interpersonal Relationships, Family Structure and gender

Findings in Figure 3 show that a slightly higher percentage of boys (29.9%) than girls (26.7%) reported good interpersonal relationships. From single parent families, girls (14.1%) performed better than boys (11.3%) on interpersonal relations. Contrastingly, from both parent families, boys (17.5%) performed better than girls (14.1%) on interpersonal relations. Further analysis showed that a higher percentage of boys (17.5%) in both parent families were good in interpersonal relations than boys (11.3%) in single parent families. Interestingly, equal percentage of girls in single and

both parents reported good interpersonal relations. Compared to girls, boys in married, widowed and remarried performed better in interpersonal relations. On the other hand, girls in never married families outperformed boys. In divorced families, boys and girls performed equally on interpersonal relations. None of the girls in remarried families reported good interpersonal relations. Table 20 presents results on distribution of respondents by levels of interpersonal relationships, family structure and age.

Table 16: Distribution of students by family structure, Interpersonal relationships and age

Family Structure	Age	Interpersonal Relations			Total
		Fair	Good	Poor	
Single parent	Above age	2(1.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.0)
	Ideal age	79(40.9)	49(25.4)	56(29.0)	184(95.3)
	under age	7(3.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(3.6)
Two parents	Above age	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	3(1.6)	4(2.1)
	Ideal age	75(39.1)	60(31.2)	49(25.5)	184(95.8)
	under age	3(1.6)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	4(2.1)
Total	Above age	3(0.8)	0(0.0)	3(0.8)	6(1.6)
	Ideal age	154(40.0)	109(28.3)	105(28.3)	368(95.6)
	under age	10(2.6)	1(0.3)	0(0.0)	11(2.9)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Above age	1(0.7)	0(0.0)	1(0.0)	2(1.5)
	Ideal age	59(43.7)	30(22.2)	41(30.4)	130(96.3)
	under age	3(2.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(2.2)
Married	Above age	1(0.6)	0(0.0)	2(1.1)	3(1.7)
	Ideal age	66(37.3)	57(32.2)	46(26.0)	169(95.5)
	under age	4(2.3)	1(0.6)	0(0.0)	5(2.8)
Divorced	Above age	1(3.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.2)
	Ideal age	13(41.9)	8(25.8)	7(22.6)	28(90.3)
	under age	2(6.5)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.5)
Widowed	Ideal age	13(39.4)	12(36.4)	7(21.2)	32(97.0)
	under age	1(3.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)
Remarried	Ideal age	3(33.3)	2(22.2)	4(44.4)	9(100.0)
	Above age	3(0.8)	0(0.0)	3(0.8)	6(1.6)
Total	Ideal age	154(40.0)	109(28.3)	105(27.3)	368(95.6)
	under age	10(2.6)	1(0.3)	0(0.0)	11(2.9)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)

Note. N = 385; () % of the total

Data in Table 20 show that only 28.6% of the respondents reported good interpersonal relationships. Majority of the respondents (43.4%) reported moderate levels while 28.1% reported poor levels. The data in Table 20 further shows that only 0.3%, 29.6% and 0.0% of respondents in under age, ideal age and above age brackets reported as having good interpersonal relationships. From two parent family group, the ideal age students (31.2%) performed better than under age students (0.5%). Above age student performed the lowest where none (0.0%) of students reported good interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, 25.4% of students in ideal age reported good interpersonal relationships while none of the under and above age students reported good interpersonal relationships from single parent families. Across all family structure subsets, ideal age students performed better than under age and above age students. Findings further showed that no under age and above age students from never married, divorced and widowed families reported good interpersonal relations while 0.6% of students in under age bracket from married families reported good interpersonal relations. Cross tabulation of interpersonal relationships, family structure and school type classified by gender yielded the findings shown on Table 21a.

Table 21 a: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Interpersonal Relationships and School Type

Family Structure	By Gender	Interpersonal			Total
		Fair	Good	poor	
Single parent	Girls only	23(11.9)	17(8.8)	9(4.7)	49(25.4)
	Boys only	17(8.8)	8(4.1)	9(4.7)	34(17.6)
	MBG	48(24.9)	24(12.4)	38(19.7)	110(57.0)
Two parents	Girls only	19(9.9)	15(7.8)	15(7.8)	49(25.5)
	Boys only	16(8.3)	16(8.3)	8(4.2)	40(20.8)
	MBG	44(22.9)	30(15.6)	29(15.1)	103(53.6)
Total	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)
Never	Girls only	11(8.1)	16(11.9)	5(3.7)	32(23.7)
Married	Boys only	16(11.9)	7(5.2)	10(7.4)	33(24.4)
	MBG	36(26.7)	7(5.2)	27(20.0)	70(51.9)
Married	Girls only	20(11.3)	14(7.9)	15(8.5)	49(27.7)
	Boys only	12(6.8)	15(8.5)	5(2.8)	32(18.1)
	MBG	39(22.0)	29(16.4)	28(15.8)	96(54.2)
Divorced	Girls only	7(22.6)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	7(22.6)
	Boys only	2(6.5)	0(0.0)	1(3.2)	3(9.7)
	MBG	7(22.6)	8(25.8)	6(19.4)	21(67.7)
Widowed	Girls only	2(6.1)	2(6.1)	3(9.1)	7(21.2)
	Boys only	3(9.1)	2(6.1)	0(0.0)	5(15.2)
	MBG	9(27.3)	8(24.2)	4(12.1)	21(63.6)
Remarried	Girls only	2(22.2)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	3(33.3)
	Boys only	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	1(11.1)
	MBG	1(11.1)	2(22.2)	2(22.2)	5(55.6)
Total	Girls only	42(10.9)	32(8.3)	24(6.2)	98(25.5)
	Boys only	33(8.6)	24(6.2)	17(4.4)	74(19.2)
	MBG	92(23.9)	54(14.0)	67(17.4)	213(55.3)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)

Note. N = 385; () % of the total Key: MBG- Mixed Boys and Girls; MDB-Mixed Day and Boarding

Data in Table 21a show that 28.6% of the respondents had good interpersonal relationships. Almost equal percentages of students in girls only (32.7%) and boys' only (32.4%) schools reported good interpersonal relationships while 25.4% of the students from mixed boys' and girls' schools reported good interpersonal relationships. From both parent families, a higher percentage of students in mixed boys' and girls' schools (15.6%) compared to the students in boys' only schools (8.3%) and girls' only schools (7.8%) reported good interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, 12.4%, 4.1% and 8.8% of students in mixed boys and girls, boys only and girl only schools from single parent families reported good interpersonal relationships.

Boys from both parent families and in boys' only schools (8.3%) performed better than their counterparts in girls' only schools(7.8%) while girls from single parent families in girls' only schools(8.8) performed better than their counterparts in boys' only schools(4.1) on interpersonal relationships levels. However, students in boys' only (8.3%) and in mixed boys and girls (15.6%) schools from both parent families performed better than students in boys' only (4.1%) and mixed boys and girls (12.4%) schools from single parent families. Contrastingly, students in girls' only schools (8.8%) from single parent families performed better than students in girls' only schools (7.8%) from both parent families. Across the family structure subsets, a higher percentage of the respondents in girls only from never married families (11.9%) reported good interpersonal relations while a higher percentage of the students from the married(16.4%) and divorced (25.8%)families in mixed boarding and day schools recorded good interpersonal relationships. None (0.00%) of the respondents in single gender schools from divorced and remarried families reported good interpersonal relations. From these findings, it is clear that students in mixed boarding and day school across family structures ranked highest in percentages of respondents with good interpersonal relations across the family structures. It can further be deduced that single sex schools were less favorable for: girls from both parent homes (intact or remarried families), boys in remarried families, and boys in single parent homes.

An exploration of Family structure, interpersonal relationships and school type (by residential status) revealed the resulted presented on Table 21b.

Table 21 b:Distribution of students by family structure, Interpersonal Relations and School Type

Family Structure	By Residential Status	Interpersonal			Total
		Fair	good	poor	
Single parent	Boarding	39(20.2)	25(13.0)	18(9.3)	82(42.5)
	Day	48(24.9)	22(11.4)	35(18.1)	105(54.4)
	MDB	1(0.5)	2(1.0)	3(1.6)	6(3.1)
Two parents	Boarding	36(18.8)	31(16.1)	23(12.0)	90(46.9)
	Day	41(21.4)	28(14.6)	29(15.1)	98(51.0)
	MDB	2(1.0)	2(1.0)	(0.0)0	4(2.1)
Total	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Boarding	26(19.3)	23(17.0)	15(11.1)	64(47.4)
	Day	37(27.4)	6(4.4)	26(19.3)	69(51.1)
	MDB	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	2(1.5)
Married	Boarding	33(18.6)	29(16.4)	20(11.3)	82(46.3)
	Day	35(19.8)	27(15.3)	28(15.8)	90(50.8)
	MDB	3(1.7)	2(1.1)	0(0.0)	5(2.8)
Divorced	Boarding	9(29.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.2)	10(32.3)
	Day	7(22.6)	7(22.6)	5(16.1)	19(61.3)
	MDB	0(0.0)	1(3.2)	1(3.2)	2(6.5)
Widowed	Boarding	5(15.2)	4(12.1)	3(9.1)	12(36.4)
	Day	9(27.3)	8(24.2)	3(9.1)	20(60.6)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)	1(3.0)
Remarried	Boarding	5(15.2)	4(12.1)	3(9.1)	12(36.4)
	Day	9(27.3)	8(24.2)	3(9.1)	20(60.6)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)	1(3.0)
Total	Boarding	75(19.5)	56(14.5)	41(10.6)	172(44.7)
	Day	89(23.1)	50(13.0)	64(16.6)	203(52.7)
	MDB	3(0.8)	4(1.0)	3(0.8)	10(2.6)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)

Note. N = 385; () % of the total

KEY: MDB – Mixed Day and Boarding; SRS – School Residential Status

The findings in Table 21b reveal that compared to students in day (24.6%) and boarding (32.6%) schools, a higher percentage of students in mixed day and boarding (40.0%) reported as having good interpersonal relationships. In both parent and single parent family structures, students in boarding schools performed better than students in day and mixed day & boarding schools. However, students in boarding and day schools from both parent families performed better than those from single parent

families. On the hand, students in mixed day and boarding schools from single and both parent families performed the same. Across the family structure subsets, students in day schools from married, divorced, widowed and remarried performed better than those in boarding and mixed day and boarding schools while from never married families, students in boarding schools performed better than students in day and mixed day and boarding. None (0.00%) of the respondents in boarding schools from divorced families reported good interpersonal relations. Likewise, none (0.00%) of the respondents in mixed day and boarding schools from widowed and remarried families reported good interpersonal relations. Respondents' interpersonal relations levels were further cross tabulated across family structure and area of residence. Table 22 presents the results.

Table 22: Distribution of students by family structure, Area of residence and Interpersonal Relationships

Family Structure	Area of Residence	Interpersonal Relations			Total
		Fair	Good	Poor	
Single parents	Rural	42(21.8)	24(12.4)	30(15.5)	96(49.7)
	Urban	46(23.8)	25(13.0)	26(13.5)	97(50.3)
Two parents	Rural	31(16.1)	25(13.0)	29(15.1)	85(44.3)
	Urban	48(25.0)	36(18.8)	23(12.0)	107(55.7)
Total	Rural	73(19.0)	49(12.7)	59(15.3)	181(47.0)
	Urban	94(24.4)	61(15.8)	49(12.7)	204(53.0)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Rural	32(23.7)	15(11.1)	23(17.0)	70(51.9)
Married	Urban	31(23.0)	15(11.1)	19(14.1)	65(48.1)
	Rural	27(15.3)	22(12.4)	28(15.8)	77(43.5)
Married	Urban	44(24.9)	36(20.3)	20(11.3)	100(56.5)
	Rural	6(19.4)	4(12.9)	3(9.7)	13(41.9)
Divorced	Urban	10(32.3)	4(12.9)	4(12.9)	18(58.1)
	Rural	7(21.2)	7(21.2)	3(9.1)	17(51.5)
Widowed	Urban	7(21.2)	5(15.2)	4(12.1)	16(48.5)
	Rural	1(11.1)	1(11.1)	2(22.2)	4(44.4)
Remarried	Urban	2(22.2)	1(11.1)	2(22.2)	5(55.6)
	Rural	73(19.0)	49(12.7)	59(15.3)	181(47.0)
Total	Urban	94(24.4)	61(15.8)	49(12.7)	204(53.0)
	Total	167(43.4)	110(28.6)	108(28.1)	385(100.0)

Note. N = 385; () % of the total

Table 22 show that a higher percentage of students in urban areas (15.8%) than in rural areas (12.7%) reported good interpersonal relationships. In single and both parent family structures, students in urban areas performed better than students in rural areas. However, students in rural (13.0%) and urban(18.8%) areas from both parent families performed better than students in rural(12.4%0 and urban (13.0%)areas from single parent families in interpersonal relationships. Across the

family structure subsets, a higher percentage of students in married families living in urban areas (20.3%) compared to those in rural areas (12.4%) reported good interpersonal relations while a higher percentage of students from widowed families living in rural areas (21.2%) compared to 15.2% of those in urban areas reported good interpersonal relations. Equal numbers of respondents living in rural and urban areas from never married (11.1%:11.1%), divorced (12.9%:12.9%) and remarried (11.1%:11.1%) reported good interpersonal relations. From these results, it can be deduced that urban areas are more favourable for respondents living in married families while rural areas are more favourable for respondents living in widowed families.

4.3.7 Family Structure and Social Integration

The third objective sought to determine the influence of family structure on students' social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. To determine this, respondents' social integration scores were analysed. Social integration data was derived from subjects' responses to a social integration scale consisting of 11 statements measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree(6 points) to strongly disagree(1 point), resulting to a maximum of 66 points and a minimum of 11 points. The total scores of the scale for each student were computed and then converted into percentiles. The percentage values of the respondents' social integration scores were used to compute the descriptive statistics of respondents' social integration. The results are presented in Table 23.

Table 173: Descriptive Statistics for Participants Social Integration

Variable	N	Percent	Max	Min	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
Family Structure							
Single Parent	193	50.1	100.00	25.00	70.47	14.07	-.692
Two Parents	192	49.9	100.00	25.00	71.06	13.48	-.732
Total	385	100.0	100.00	25.00	70.76	13.76	-.711
Marital Status							
Never Married	135	35.1	95.00	30.00	70.96	12.36	-.690
Married	177	46.0	100.00	25.00	70.56	14.059	-.657
Divorced	31	8.1	90.00	25.00	72.23	16.32	-1.360
Widowed	33	8.6	100.00	33.00	69.82	15.46	-.450
Remarried	9	2.3	88.00	48.00	70.33	14.58	-.180
Total	385	100.0	100.00	25.00	70.76	13.76	-.711
Gender							
Male	194	50.4	100.00	25.00	71.27	13.41	-.679
Female	191	49.6	100.00	25.00	70.25	14.12	-.734
School Type							
Girls only	98	25.5	100.00	30.00	69.11	14.22	-.619
Boys only	74	19.2	95.00	25.00	71.65	13.30	-.622
MBG	213	55.3	100.00	25.00	71.21	13.71	-.786
Boarding	172	44.7	100.00	25.00	70.20	13.76	-.664
Day	203	52.7	100.00	25.00	71.15	13.76	-.777
MDB	10	2.6	92.00	48.00	72.60	14.80	-.452

Key: MBG= Mixed Boys and Girls; MDB= Mixed Day and Boarding

As shown in Table 23, the minimum score was 25.0 while the maximum score was 100.0. The anticipated minimum and maximum scores were 17 and 100 respectively. The mean score for the whole group was 70.76 and the standard deviation was 13.76. The coefficient of skewness was found to be -0.711, a negatively skewed distribution.

This shows that the respondents' social integration mean score was less than the median implying that a bigger proportion of the participants rated themselves above the mean score on this scale, that is majority scored above the mean. The mean score for respondents from both parent families was slightly higher (71.06%) than that of respondents from single parent families (70.47%). Respondents from divorced families recorded the highest mean score (72.23%), the largest standard deviation (16.32) and skewness (- 1.360) while those from widowed families recorded the lowest mean score (69.82%). Although respondents from remarried families recorded the lowest maximum score of 88.0%, they recorded the highest minimum of 48.0% and the smallest range of 40.0% and skewness of .180.

For comparison purposes, the respondents' social integration score was used to categorize the respondents into three hierarchic groups based on level of social integration; poorly integrated (low level), fairly integrated (average level) and well-integrated (high level). The cut-off scores for low, average and high were 0-63, 64-82 and 83-100 respectively. The distribution of respondents across the levels is shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Respondents Levels of Social Integration

Family Structure	Social Integration Levels			Total
	Well	Fair	Poor	
Single Parent	48(12.5)	93(24.2)	52(13.5)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	50(13.0)	89(23.1)	53(13.8)	192(49.9)
Total	98(25.5)	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	385(100.0)
Never Married	34(8.8)	69(17.9)	32(8.3)	135(35.1)
Married	43(11.2)	83(21.6)	51(13.2)	177(46.0)
Divorced	10(2.6)	14(3.6)	7(1.8)	31(8.1)
Widowed	8(2.1)	14(3.6)	11(2.9)	33(8.6)
Remarried	3(0.8)	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	9(2.3)
Sub Total	98(25.5)	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the Total

It is observed from Table 24 that 47.3% of the respondents were average while 27.3% were low in social integration levels. From this data it is clear that only 25.5% of the respondents were high on social integration. This therefore, implies that almost three quarters of the respondents out of the total sample were not well integrated socially into the school community. These results then imply that majority of the public secondary school students in Kiambu County were experiencing low sense of belonging and connectedness to school community. Low social integration leads to increased conflicts in the community. This may perhaps explain the reason for numerous unrests in public secondary school in Kiambu County as echoed by (Kageni, 2012).

The data in Table 24 also shows that respondents in single and both parents family performed almost equal on all levels of social integration. However, further analysis revealed differences in levels of social integration among respondents across family structure subsets. The findings revealed that a larger proportion of respondents from

never married (17.9%), married (21.6%), divorce (3.6%) and widowed (3.6%) reported average levels compared to 8.8%, 11.2%, 2.6% and 2.1% respectively who reported high levels of social integration. Contrastingly, a higher percentage of respondents from remarried families (0.8%) reported high levels of social integration compared to 0.5% who reported average levels. However, majority of respondents from remarried families (1.0%) were poorly integrated socially. This indicates that the dynamics that lead to the formation of these family structure subsets may have varying amount of influence on social integration levels of the students and that remarriage might have a bigger negative impact on social integration of students.

Further analysis was done on family structure and social integration across gender, age, area of residence and type of school attended. Cross tabulation of respondents' social integration levels, family structure and gender yielded the results as presented in Figure 4

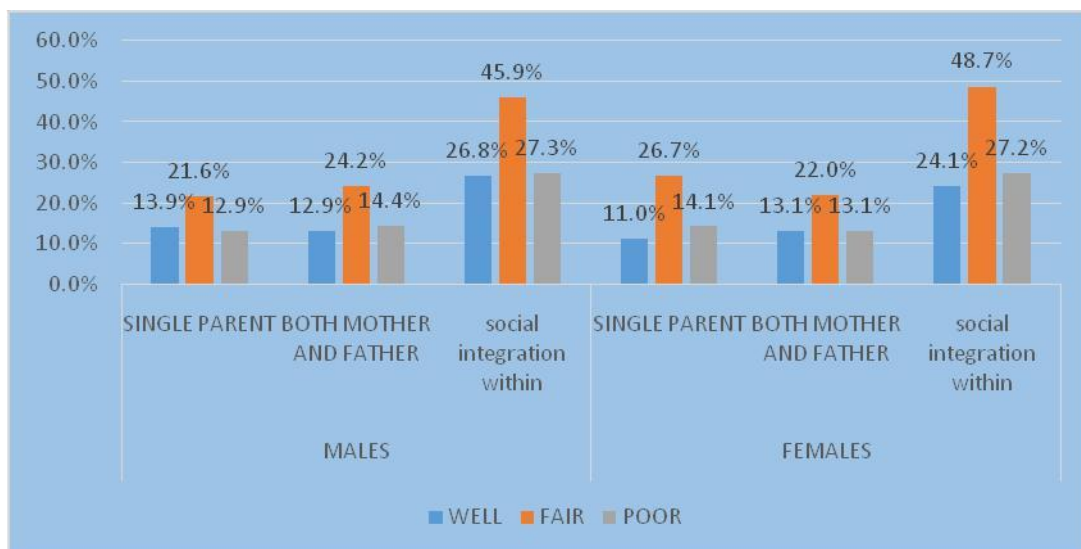


Figure 4 Distribution of students by family structure, gender and Social Integration

As shown in Figure 4 male respondents performed better than female respondents as indicated by a 26.8% and 24.1% respectively that were well integrated in to the school

community. Contrastingly, a higher percentage(27.3%) of male respondents compared to 26.9% of female respondents were poorly integrated. In both parent family structure, male and female respondents performed the same with 13% of respondents in each group reporting as being well integration into the school community. On the other hand, 14.0% of male respondents were well integrated compared to 10.9% of female respondents in single parent family structure. Further analysis shows that a higher percentage of male respondents (14.0%) from single parent families were well integrated compared to 13.0% of male respondents from both parent family structure. Furthermore, a higher percentage of female respondents (13.0%) from both parent families were well integrated compared to 10.9% of females from single parent families.

An analysis of social integration levels within family structure subset revealed that 33.3%, 32.3%, 25.2%, 24.3% and 24.2% of respondents from remarried; divorced; never married; married and widowed respectively were well integrated socially. Twenty-two-point two percent (22.2%) of male respondents from remarried families were well integrated compared to their counterparts in divorced (19.4%), widowed (18.2%), never married (13.3%) and married (11.3%) family structures. On the other hand; 13%, 12.9%, 11.9%, 11% and 6.1% of female respondents from married, divorced, never married, remarried and widowed families respectively were well integrated socially. From the above data it can deduced that male students in remarried families and female students in married families were better in social integration compared to their counterparts in the other family structure subsets. Respondents' social integration levels and family structure were analysed across age. The results are presented in Table 25.

Table 25: Distribution of students by family structure, age and Social Integration

Family Structure	Age	Social Integration			Total
		Fair	Poor	Well	
Single parent	Above age	1(0.5)	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	2(1.0)
	Ideal age	90(46.6)	49(25.4)	45(23.3)	184(95.3)
	under age	2(1.0)	2(1.0)	3(1.6)	7(3.6)
	Total	93(48.2)	52(26.9)	48(24.9)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Above age	1(0.5)	3(1.6)	0(0.0)	4(2.1)
	Ideal age	85(44.3)	50(26.0)	49(25.5)	184(95.8)
	under age	3(1.6)	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	4(2.1)
	Total	89(46.4)	53(27.6)	50(26.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Above age	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	0(0.0)	6(1.6)
	Ideal age	175(45.5)	99(25.7)	94(24.4)	368(95.6)
	under age	5(1.3)	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	11(2.9)
	Total	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	98(25.5)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Above age	0(0.0)	2(1.5)	0(0.0)	2(1.5)
Married	Ideal age	68(50.4)	29(21.5)	33(24.4)	130(96.3)
	under age	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	3(2.2)
Married	Above age	1(0.6)	2(1.1)	0(0.0)	3(1.7)
	Ideal age	79(44.6)	48(27.1)	42(23.7)	169(95.5)
	under age	3(1.7)	1(0.6)	1(0.6)	5(2.8)
Divorced	Above age	1(3.2)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.2)
	Ideal age	13(3.2)	7(22.6)	8(25.8)	28(90.3)
	under age	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.5)	2(6.5)
Widowed	Ideal age	13(39.4)	11(33.3)	8(24.2)	32(97.0)
	under age	1(3.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)
Remarried	Ideal age	2(22.2)	4(44.4)	3(33.3)	9(100.0)
Total	Above age	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	0(0.0)	6(1.6)
	Ideal age	175(45.5)	99(25.7)	94(24.4)	368(95.6)
	under age	5(1.3)	2(0.5)	4(1.0)	11(2.9)
	Total	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	98(25.5)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

As shown on Table 25, none (0.0%) of the respondents in the above age category reported being well integrated while 25.5% and 1.0% of respondents from ideal and under age categories reported as being well integrated socially. In single and both parent family structures, ideal age respondents performed better than the underage respondents. However, the ideal age students from both parent families (25.5%) performed better than those from single parent families (23.3%) on social integration. Contrastingly, the under-age students from single parent families (1.6%) performed better than counterparts from both parent families (0.5%).

A further analysis revealed that in the ideal age category 33.3%, 25.8%, 24.4% 24.2%, 23.7% of respondents from remarried, divorced, never married, widowed and married families respectively were well integrated while 6.5%, 0.7% and 0.6% of respondents in under age category from divorced, never married and married families were well integrated. All the above age respondents from never married families reported poor social integration while all of the above age respondents from divorce families reported fair social integration. On the other hand, all under age respondents from divorce families were well integrated socially while all under age respondents from widowed families reported as fairly integrated. From this information, it can be deduced that ideal age students from remarried families and under age students from divorce families were highest in social integration while ideal age and under age students in both parent families were lowest on social integration. Analysis of social integration, family structure and type of school attended resulted to the data presented on Table 26a and 26b.

Table 26 a: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Social Integration and School Type

Family	By Gender	Social Integration Levels			Total
		Fair	Poor	Well	
Single parent	Girls only	23(11.9)	17(8.8)	9(4.7)	49(25.4)
	Boys only	14(7.3)	8(4.1)	12(6.2)	34(17.6)
	MBG	56(29.0)	27(14.0)	27(14.0)	110(57.0)
	Total	93(48.2)	52(26.9)	48(24.9)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Girls only	22(11.5)	13(6.8)	14(7.3)	49(25.5)
	Boys only	16(8.3)	14(7.3)	10(5.2)	40(20.8)
	MBG	51(26.6)	26(13.5)	26(13.5)	103(53.6)
	Total	89(46.4)	53(27.6)	50(26.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Girls only	45(45.9)	30(30.6)	23(23.5)	98(100.0)
	Boys only	30(40.5)	22(29.7)	22(29.7)	74(100.0)
	MBG	107(50.2)	53(24.9)	53(24.9)	213(100.0)
	Total	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	98(25.5)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total MBG= Mixed Boys and Girls

Findings in Table 26a reveal that a higher percentage of respondents in boys' only schools (29.7%) were well integrated compared to respondents in girls' only (23.5%) and in mixed boys and girls (25.6%) schools. From the single parent family structure, a higher percentage of respondents in mixed boys' and girls' schools (14.0%) were well integrated compared to respondents in boys only (6.2%) and girls only (4.7%). On the other hand, respondents from both parent family structure in boys' only schools (5.2%) performed the lowest while the respondents in mixed boarding and day schools(13.5%) were leading in the percentage of the well-integrated. Respondents in girls' only schools from both parent family structure (7.3%) performed better than respondents from single parent families(4.7%). However, respondents in boys only and mixed boarding and day schools from single parent families performed better than respondents from both parent families.

Analysis on family subsets showed that 11.1%, 4.4%, 6.8%,9.7% and 3.0% of respondents from remarried, never married,married,divorced and widowed families respectively schooling in girls only schools were well integration while 4.2% (never married), 6.7% (married),9.9% (divorced) and 3.1% (widowed) of respondents schooling in boys only schools were well integrated. Table 26b presents the findings on social integration, family structure and school's residential status.

Table 26 b: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Social Integration and School type

Family Structure	Residence	Social Integration Levels			Total
		Fair	Poor	Well	
Single parent	Boarding	36(18.7)	25(13.0)	21(10.9)	82(42.5)
	Day	55(28.5)	25(13.0)	25(13.0)	105(54.4)
	MDB	2(1.0)	2(1.0)	2(1.0)	6(3.1)
	Total	93(48.2)	52(27.0)	48(24.9)	193(100)
Two parents	Boarding	39(20.3)	27(14.1)	24(12.5)	90(46.9)
	Day	47(24.5)	26(13.5)	25(13.0)	98(51.0)
	MDB	3(1.6)	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	4(2.1)
	Total	89(46.4)	53(27.6)	50(26.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Boarding	75(43.6)	52(30.2)	45(26.2)	172(100.0)
	Day	102(50.2)	51(25.1)	50(24.6)	203(100.0)
	MDB	5(50.0)	2(20.0)	3(30.0)	10(100.0)
	Total	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	98(47.3)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total MBD=Mixed Day and Boarding

Results in Table 26b show that a higher percentage of students in mixed day and boarding schools (30.0%) than in boarding (26.2%) and day (24.6%) school students were well integrated in school. From the results, it is also clear that a higher percentage of students in day schools from both parents (13.0%) and single parent (13.0%) families were well integrated socially compared to those in boarding (12.5%: 10.9%) and mixed day and boarding schools (0.5%: 1.0%). Across family subsets, students in day schools from all subset apart from never married were better integrated than their counterparts in boarding, and mixed day and boarding schools. Contrastingly, the highest percentage of well-integrated students in boarding school category was from the never married family structure. An analysis of family structure, area of residence and social integration gave the findings presented on Table 27.

Table 27: Distribution of Students by Family Structure, Area of Residence and Social Integration

Family	Area of Residence	Social Integration Levels			Total
		Fair	Poor	Well	
Single parent	Rural	51(26.4)	21(10.9)	24(12.4)	96(49.7)
	Urban	42(21.8)	31(16.1)	24(12.4)	97(50.3)
	Total	93(48.2)	52(26.9)	48(12.0)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Rural	35(18.2)	27(14.1)	23(12.0)	85(44.3)
	Urban	54(28.1)	26(13.5)	27(14.1)	107(55.7)
	Total	89(46.4)	53(27.6)	50(26.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Rural	86(47.5)	48(26.5)	47(26.0)	181(100.0)
	Urban	96(47.1)	57(27.9)	51(25.0)	204(100.0)
	Total	182(47.3)	105(27.3)	98(25.5)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

Findings in Table 27 indicate that 26.0% and 25.0% of respondents from rural and urban areas respectively were well integrated. The findings further reveal that there was no difference in the levels of integration for respondents residing in rural and urban areas from single parent family. However, a difference was recorded for the respondents from both parents where 14.1% from urban and 12.0% from rural areas were well integrated. A further analysis revealed that there were differences in levels of social integration for rural and urban students across and within subsets of family structure. The following were results of the respondents' social integration high level in rural and urban areas respectively across the family structure subsets: never married (15.6%, 9.6%), married (9.6%, 14.7%), divorce (9.7%, 22.6%), widowed (12.1%, 12.1%) and remarried (22.2%, 11.1%). Among well integrated respondents living in urban areas, students from divorce families reported the highest percentage (22.6%) while students from never married reported the lowest percentage (9.6%) in social integration. On the other hand, students from remarried families reported the highest percentage of well-integrated (22.2%) among those living in the rural areas while students from married families recorded the lowest percentage (9.6%). From these results, it can be deduced that urban areas were more favourable for social integration

of respondents from divorce families while rural areas were more favourable for social integration of respondents from remarriage families.

4.3.8 Family structure and Academic Performance

The fourth objective of the study aimed to establish whether family structure influences the academic performance of public secondary school students in Kiambu County. The participants' 2017 KCSE results were used to measure the academic performance of the students. The KCSE mean scores were analyzed to get the range, mean, standard deviation, and skewness. The KCSE performance grades were used to group the participants. The anticipated minimum and maximum mean scores were 7 and 84 respectively. The results on means scores are presented in Table 28.

Table 28: Summary Statistics for Participants Academic performance

Family Structure	N	Percent	Max	Min	Mean	Std. Dev	Skewness
Single Parent	193	50.1	74.00	7.00	25.69	13.63	.779
Two Parents	192	49.9	74.00	8.00	27.11	14.33	.730
Total	385	100.0	74.00	7.00	26.40	13.98	.755
Never							
Married	135	35.1	74.00	8.00	26.93	14.48	.720
Married	177	46.0	74.00	8.00	26.80	14.17	.781
Divorced	31	8.1	44.00	7.00	21.77	10.69	.395
Widowed	33	8.6	53.00	10.00	26.90	13.51	.703
Remarried	9	2.3	48.00	11.00	24.67	14.16	.613
Gender							
Male	194	50.4	74.00	7.00	26.80	15.42	.871
Female	191	49.6	54.00	8.00	25.99	12.37	.446
School Type							
Girls only	98	25.5	54.00	16.00	34.71	9.81	.081
Boys only	74	19.2	74.00	9.00	39.86	13.52	.449
MBG	213	55.3	56.00	7.00	17.89	8.90	1.71
Boarding	172	44.7	74.00	9.00	36.90	11.81	.524
Day	203	52.7	56.00	7.00	17.87	9.03	1.71
MDB	10	2.6	28.00	10.00	18.80	6.81	.449

Key MBG= Mixed Boys and Girls; MDB= Mixed Day and Boarding

As shown on Table 28, the minimum score was 7.00 while the maximum score was 74.00. The mean score was 26.4 and the standard deviation was 14. The coefficient of skewness was found to be 0.755 meaning that majority of the students were below the mean score. Data in Table 28 further show that the academic performance mean score for respondents from both parents' families (27.11 points) was slightly higher than that of the respondents from single parent families (25.69 points). Across the family structure subsets, respondents from never married families recorded the highest mean score (26.93) closely followed by respondents from widowed families (26.90). Respondents from divorce families recorded the lowest mean score of 21.77 points.

Using the KCSE performance grades, the respondents were categorized into three levels of performance; above average performance or high (grades A and B), average performance (grade C), and below average performance or low (grades D and E). Distribution of respondents by family structure and academic performance levels is presented on Table 29.

Table 29: Distribution of Students by Levels of Academic Performance

Family Structure	Academic performance Levels			Total
	Average	Above Average	Below Average	
Single Parent	53 (13.8)	7(1.8)	133(34.5)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	59(15.3)	12(3.1)	121(31.4)	192(49.9)
Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)
Never Married	41(10.6)	9(2.3)	85(22.1)	135(35.1)
Married	54(14.0)	9(2.3)	114(29.6)	177(46.0)
Divorced	7(1.8)	0(0.0)	24(6.2)	31(8.1)
Widowed	7(1.8)	1(0.3)	25(6.5)	33(8.6)
Remarried	3(0.8)	0(0.0)	6(1.6)	9(2.3)
Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

Table 29 reveals that majority of the students (66.0%) scored below average and only 4.4% scored above average. This academic performance was considered low. Data on Table 29 show that a higher percentage of students from both parent families (3.1%) attained above average (high) academic performance compared to 1.8% of respondents from single parent families. On the other hand, a higher percentage of respondents from single parent families (34.5%) had below average (low) performance compared to 31.4% of respondents from the both parent families. Analysis across family structure subsets show that a higher percentage of respondents from never married (2.3%) and married (2.3%) families compared to respondents from divorce (0.0%), remarried (0.0%) and widowed (0.3%) families attained high academic performance.

Further analysis was done on academic performance levels and family structure across respondents' gender, age, type of school and area of residence. The information on the analysis of the respondents' family structure, gender and academic performance levels is presented in Table 30.

Table30: Distribution of students by family structure, gender and Academic Performance

Family	Gender	Academic performance Levels			Total
		Average	High	Low	
Single parent	Male	25(13.0)	5(2.6)	64(33.2)	94(48.7)
	Female	28(14.5)	2(1.0)	69(35.8)	99(51.3)
	Total	53(27.5)	7(3.6)	133(68.9)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Male	27(14.1)	11(5.7)	62(32.3)	100(52.1)
	Female	32(16.7)	1(0.5)	59(30.7)	92(47.9)
	Total	59(30.7)	12(6.2)	121(63.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Male	52(26.8)	16(8.2)	126(64.9)	194(100.0)
	Female	60(31.4)	3(1.6)	128(67.0)	191(100.0)
	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)
Never Married	Male	19(14.1)	8(5.9)	42(31.1)	69(51.1)
	Female	22(16.3)	1(0.7)	43(31.9)	66(48.9)
Married	Male	24(13.6)	8(4.5)	54(30.5)	86(48.6)
	Female	30(16.9)	1(0.6)	60(33.9)	91(51.4)
Divorced	Male	4(12.9)	0(0.0)	11(35.5)	15(48.4)
	Female	3(9.7)	0(0.0)	13(41.9)	16(51.6)
Widowed	Male	4(12.1)	0(0.0)	16(48.5)	20(60.6)
	Female	3(9.1)	1(3.0)	9(27.3)	13(39.4)
Remarried	Male	1(11.1)	0(0.0)	3(33.3)	4(44.4)
	Female	2(22.2)	0(0.0)	3(33.3)	5(55.6)
Total	Male	52(13.5)	16(4.2)	126(32.7)	194(50.4)
	Female	60(15.6)	3(0.8)	128(33.2)	191(49.6)
	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

The data in Table 4.30 reveal that 8.2% and 1.6% of male and female respondents respectively scored high on academic performance. Data further show that students from both parent families (6.2%) performed better than students from single parent families (3.6%). Generally, boys outperformed girls in single and both parent family structures. However, boys from both parent families performed better than boys from single parent families while girls from single parent families performed better than the girls from two parent families. From Table 30, it can be deduced that boys performed better than girls in the 2017 KCSE examinations in Kiambu County and that boys in both parent families were the best in academic performance. An analysis across subsets revealed that 6.7% of students from never married, 5.1% (married) and 3.0%

(widowed) scored high in academic performance. Within gender,

boys (5.9%) in 128

never married families performed better than boys in the other subsets while girls in widowed families (3.0%) performed better than girls in the other subsets. None of the students in the remarried and divorce families attained high academic performance level. The results on distribution of respondents by family structure, age and academic performance levels are shown in Table 31.

Table31:Distribution of students by family structure, age and Academic Performance

Family	Age	Academic Performance Levels			Total
		Average	High	Low	
Single parent	Above age	1(0.5)	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	2(1.0)
	Ideal age	49(25.4)	7(3.6)	128(66.3)	184(95.3)
	Under age	3(1.6)	0(0.0)	4(2.1)	7(3.6)
	total	53(27.5)	7(3.6)	133(68.9)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Above age	0(0.0)	1(0.5)	3(1.6)	4(2.1)
	Ideal age	57(29.7)	11(5.7)	116(60.4)	184(95.8)
	Under age	2(1.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.0)	4(2.1)
	total	59(30.7)	12(6.2)	121(63.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Above age	1(16.7)	1(16.7)	4(66.7)	6(100.0)
	Ideal age	106(28.8)	18(4.9)	244(66.3)	368(100.0)
	Under age	5(45.5)	0(0.0)	6(54.5)	11(100.0)
	total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

Data from Table 31 shows that the above age students (16.7%) performed better academically compared to students in ideal age (4.9%) and under age students (0.00%). This could be an indication that a student's age may have an association with academic performance. The data further reveal that none of the students in above age and under age categories from single parent families attained high academic performance. In both parent family structure, a higher percentage of respondents in ideal age (3.6%) score high on academic performance compared to the above age

respondents (0.05%). Respondents in ideal age from both parent families (5.7%) performed better than respondents in ideal age from single parent families (3.6%). Across family structure subsets, 6.7%, 4.5% and 3.0% in the ideal age bracket from never married, married and widowed respectively had high level of academic performance. From the data provided, it can be observed that generally under and above age students across the family structures underperformed and that students in ideal age from both parent families performed the best. Besides the analysis of the respondents in academic performance levels across gender and age, their academic performance was also compared across type of school attended. Table 32 displays the distribution of respondents by family structure, academic performance and the schools' residential status.

Table 32 a: Distribution of students by family structure, School residential Status and Academic Performance

Family Structure	By Residential Status	Academic Performance			Total
		Average	High	Low	
Single parent	Boarding	50(25.9)	6(3.1)	26(13.5)	82(42.5)
	Day	3(1.6)	1(0.5)	101	105(54.4)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	6(3.1)	6(3.1)
Both parents	Boarding	50(26.0)	11(5.7)	29(15.1)	90(46.9)
	Day	9(4.7)	1(0.5)	88(45.8)	98(51.0)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.1)	4(2.1)
Total	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)
Never	Boarding	40(29.6)	7(5.2)	17(12.6)	64(47.4)
Married	Day	1(0.7)	2(1.5)	66(48.9)	69(51.1)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.5)	2(1.5)
	Boarding	45(25.4)	9(5.1)	28(15.8)	82(46.3)
Married	Day	9(5.1)	0(0.0)	81(45.8)	90(50.8)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(2.8)	5(2.8)
	Boarding	6(19.4)	0(0.0)	4(12.9)	10(32.3)
Divorced	Day	1(3.2)	0(0.0)	18(58.1)	19(61.3)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(6.5)	2(6.5)
	Boarding	6(18.2)	1(3.0)	5(15.2)	12(36.4)
Widowed	Day	1(3.0)	0(0.0)	19(57.6)	20(60.6)
	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(3.0)	1(3.0)
	Boarding	3(33.3)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	4(44.4)
Remarried	Day	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(55.6)	5(55.6)
	Boarding	100(26.0)	17(4.4)	55(14.3)	172(44.7)
	Day	12(3.1)	2(0.5)	189(49.1)	203(52.7)
Total	MDB	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	10(2.6)	10(2.6)
	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

MDB= Mixed Day &Boarding

Table 32a indicates that students in boarding schools out performed students in day and mixed day & boarding schools, and with a big margin as shown by the percentages of students who scored high in academic performance. The findings show that only 1.0% of the students in day schools and none (0.0%) of the students in mixed day & boarding schools attained high academic performance compared to 9.9% of students from boarding schools. From single parent family structure, students in boarding schools (3.1%) performed better than respondents in day schools (0.5%) and mixed boarding & day schools (0.0%). A similar trend was observed for respondents from both parent family structure where 5.7%, 0.5% and 0.0% of respondents in boarding, day, and mixed day and boarding schools respectively attained high academic performance. The findings further showed that students from both parent families schooling in boarding schools (6.2%) performed better than their counterparts from single parent families (3.6%). Across family structure subsets, students in boarding schools from never married (5.2%) and married (5.1%) families performed better than those from widowed (3.0%), divorced (0.0%) and remarried (0.0%), who attained high level academic performance. This implies that boarding schools may be providing more conducive learning environment for the students from never married families than for those from divorce and remarried families. Table 32b presents the analysis of students' distribution by academic performance, school type (by gender) and family structure.

Table 32 b: Distribution of students by family structure, School Type and Academic Performance

Family Structure	By Gender	Academic Performance			Total
		Average	High	Low	
Single parent	Girls only	28(14.5)	2(1.0)	19(9.8)	49(25.4)
	Boys only	20(10.4)	10(5.2)	10(5.2)	40(20.8)
	MBG	9(4.7)	1(0.5)	93(48.4)	103(53.6)
Total	Girls only	58(15.1)	3(0.8)	37(9.6)	98(25.5)
	Boys only	42(10.9)	14(3.6)	18(4.7)	74(19.2)
	MBG	12(3.1)	2(0.5)	199(51.7)	213(55.3)
Never Married	Girls only	22(16.3)	1(0.7)	9(6.7)	32(23.7)
	Boys only	18(13.3)	6(4.4)	9(6.7)	33(24.4)
	MBG	1(0.7)	2(1.5)	67(49.6)	70(51.9)
Married	Girls only	28(15.8)	1(0.6)	20(11.3)	49(27.7)
	Boys only	17(9.6)	8(4.5)	7(4.0)	32(18.1)
	MBG	9(5.1)	0(0.0)	87(49.2)	96(54.2)
Divorced	Girls only	3(9.7)	0(0.0)	4(12.9)	7(22.6)
	Boys only	3(9.7)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	3(9.7)
	MBG	1(3.2)	0(0.0)	20(64.5)	21(67.7)
Widowed	Girls only	3(9.1)	1(3.0)	3(9.1)	7(21.2)
	Boys only	3(9.1)	0(0.0)	2(6.1)	5(15.2)
	MBG	1(3.0)	0(0.0)	20(60.6)	21(63.6)
Remarried	Girls only	2(22.2)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)	3(33.3)
	Boys only	1(11.1)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	1(11.1)
	MBG	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	5(55.6)	5(55.6)
Total	Girls only	58(15.1)	3(0.8)	37(9.6)	98(25.5)
	Boys only	42(10.9)	14(3.6)	18(4.7)	74(19.2)
	MBG	12(3.1)	2(0.5)	199(51.7)	213(55.3)
	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total MBG=mixed Boys & Girls

The data in Table 32b show that boys' only schools ranked first with 18.9% of the students attaining high academic performance followed by girls' only schools (3.1%) and mixed boys' and girls' schools (0.9%). From both parent family structure, students in boys' only (5.2%) schools performed better than students in girls' only (0.5%) and mixed boarding and day (0.5%) schools. A similar trend was observed for respondents from single parent family structure where 2.1%, 1.0% and 0.5 % of respondents in boys only, girls' only and mixed boarding and day schools respectively

attained high academic performance. However, students in boys' only schools from both parent families performed better than their counterparts in single parent families.

Across family structure subsets, students in boys' only schools from never married (4.4%) and married (4.5%) families performed better than those from widowed, divorced and remarried where no student attained high level academic performance. From the above findings, it can be deduced that students in single sex schools performed better than those in mixed schools, and boys' only schools performed better than girls' only schools in the 2017 KCSE examinations in Kiambu County. The trends of these results are similar to those of academic performance levels cross tabulated with school residential statuses. The reason for this is that, in Kiambu County almost all of the single sex schools are boarding while almost all mixed gender schools are day. Therefore, the factors contributing to better performance in boarding schools also apply to single gender schools. Academic performance was further cross tabulated with family structure and students' area of residence. The results are as shown In Table 33.

Table33:Distribution of students by family structure, Area of residence and academic Performance

Family Structure	AoR	Academic Performance Levels			Total
		average	High	Low	
Single parent	Rural	20(10.4)	4(2.1)	72(37.3)	96(49.7)
	Urban	33(17.1)	3(1.6)	61(31.6)	97(50.3)
	Total	53(27.5)	7(3.6)	133(68.9)	193(100.0)
Two parents	Rural	24(12.5)	6(3.1)	55(28.6)	85(44.3)
	Urban	35(18.2)	6(3.1)	66(34.4)	107(55.7)
	Total	59(30.7)	12(6.2)	121(63.0)	192(100.0)
Total	Rural	44(24.3)	10(5.5)	127(70.2)	181(100.0)
	Urban	68(33.3)	9(4.4)	127(62.3)	204(100.0)
	Total	112(29.1)	19(4.9)	254(66.0)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total AoR= Area of Residence

From Table 33 it is clear that students from rural areas(5.5%) performed better than their counterparts in urban area(4.4%). There was no difference in academic performance of students in rural and urban areas from both parent families. On the hand, students from single parent families in rural areas (2.1%) performed better than those in urban areas (1.6%). Students from never married families living in urban areas (3.7%) performed better than those who were living rural areas (3.0%) while students from married families living in rural area (2.8%) performed better than those in urban area (2.3%). However, students in rural areas from both parent families (3.1%) performed better than the respondents in rural areas from single parent families. The same trend applied for the respondents in urban areas.

The study further sought to find out whether some selected schooling factors may have moderated the academic performance of public secondary school students in Kiambu County. The selected factors were promptness in school fees payment, parental involvement, support and participation in their children’s education. The data was collected through a questionnaire containing four questions aimed at establishing

parental involvement, support and participation in their children’s education, and promptness in school fees payment.

The first question sought to find out the promptness in paying school fees. The students were asked to indicate whether their school fees were paid on time or not.

Table 34 presents the responses to the question.

Table 34: School Fees Payment Promptness and Parental Support

Family structure	School Fees Payment		Total	Parental Support		Total
	Yes	No		Yes	No	
Single Parent	119(30.9)	74(19.2)	193(50.1)	155(40.3)	38(9.9)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	125(32.5)	67(17.4)	192(49.9)	164(42.6)	28(7.3)	192(49.9)
Total	244(63.4)	141(36.6)	385(100.0)	319(82.9)	66(17.1)	385(100.0)
Never Married	86(22.3)	49(12.7)	135(35.1)	109(28.3)	26(6.8)	135(35.1)
Married	115(29.9)	62(16.1)	177(46.0)	154(40.0)	23(6.0)	177(46.0)
Divorced	18(4.7)	13(3.4)	31(8.1)	26(6.8)	5(1.3)	31(8.1)
Widowed	20(5.2)	13(3.4)	33(8.6)	25(6.5)	8(2.1)	33(8.6)
Remarried	5(1.3)	4(1.0)	9(2.3)	5(1.3)	4(1.0)	9(2.3)
Total	244(63.4)	141(36.6)	385(100.0)	319(82.9)	66(17.1)	385(100.0)

Note: N=385; () % of the total

The data on Table 34 reveal that generally most parents paid school on time with 63.4 % of the students reporting so. However, 36.6% of the students’ fees was not paid on time. From both parent families, 32.5% of the students had their fees paid on time while 17.4% reported late fees payment. On the other hand, 30.9% of the in the single parent families had their fees paid on time while 19.2% reported late fees payment. These results indicate that a higher percentage of parents in both parent family structure in Kiambu County paid fees on time compared to parents in single parent family structure. Conversely, a slightly higher percentage of single parents (19.2%) paid fees late compared to parents in both parent families (17.4%).

The second question sought to determine the parents' support on student's academic performance. The students were asked to indicate whether or not their parents encouraged them and provided them with extra learning materials. The results on Table 34 show that 82.9% of the parents encouraged and provided their children with extra learning material. Parental support was found to be good and almost the same across family structures with 42.6% and 40.3% of students from both and single parent families respectively reporting as having received parental support. This may perhaps explain the similar academic performance levels for students in both family structures.

The third question sought to establish the level of parents' assistance on student's school assignments. Table 35 presents the results.

Table 35: Parental school Assignments Assistance

Family Structure	Parental Assistance			Total
	Always	Rarely	Not At All	
Single Parent	33(8.6)	81(21.0)	79(20.5)	193(50.1)
Two Parents	31(8.1)	75(19.5)	86(22.3)	192(49.9)
Total	64(16.6)	156(40.5)	165(42.9)	385(100.0)

Table 35 show that only 16.6% of the parents assisted their children on school assignments while 42.9% of the parents did not assist on assignment at all. Interestingly, a slightly higher percentage of single parents (8.6%) assisted their children with school assignments compared to parents in both parent families (8.1%). On the other hand, a slightly higher percentage of parents in both parent families (22.3%) compared to single parents (20.5%) did not assist their children on assignments at all. This low parental assistance on school assignment may have contributed to the observed low performance in 2017 KCSE in the County.

The fourth question sought to identify the level of parental involvement in students' school activities such as visiting, meetings, prize giving and academic consultation days. The study findings show that 56.9% of the parents always attended the school activities while 5.2% never attend at all. Parental involvement on school activities for both family structures was almost the same with 57.8% and 56.0% of the parents from both and single parent homes respectively always attending the school activities.

4.4 Hypothesis Testing and Discussion of Inferential Results

This section presents the study null hypotheses that were formulated in line with the study objectives, test statistic used for each hypothesis, the findings and the discussion of the findings.

4. 4.1 Influence of Family structure on Self-acceptance

In line with the first objective of the study which sought to find out the influence of family structure on self-acceptance of public secondary school students in Kiambu County, the first null hypothesis was formulated and stated as follows:

H₀₁: There is no significant influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance.

To test this hypothesis the data was subjected to Kruskal-Wallis H test, also known as one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on ranks test at 0.05 level of significance.

The results are presented in Table 36a.

Table 36 a:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	193	154.08			
Both Parents	192	232.12	47.39	1	.000
Total	385				
Never Married	135	169.31			
Married	177	224.54			
Divorced	31	126.26	36.928	4	.000
Widowed	33	165.03			
Remarried	9	260.50			
Total	385				

*P< 0.005

a. Krusal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure

The results in Table 36a showed that there was a statistically significant difference in self-acceptance scores between single and both parent family structures, $\chi^2 (1) = 47.4$, $p = .000$ with a mean rank self-acceptance of 154.08 for single parent family structure and 232.12 for both parent family structure. There was also a statistically significant difference in self-acceptance scores between the family structure subsets (by parental marital status), $\chi^2 (4) = 36.93$, $P = .000$ with a mean rank self-acceptance score of 169.31 for Never married families, 224.54 for Married families, 126.26 for Divorce families, 165.03 for Widowed families and 260.50 for Remarried families.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = 47.4$ which is greater than the critical $\chi^2=3.841$ at 1 degree of freedom and calculated $\chi^2 = 36.93$ which is greater than the critical $\chi^2= 9.488$ at 4 degrees of freedom, it implies that the null hypothesis that there is no significant influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance is rejected at the 5% level of

significance. These results are consistent with the descriptive results of this study where respondents in single parent families reported a lower self-acceptance mean rank score (154.08) compared to their counterparts in both parent families (232.12). The students' self-acceptance mean ranks by parental marital status are 224.54 for Intact families, 260.50 for Remarried families, 126.26 for Divorce families, 165.03 for Widowed families and 169.31 for Never married families. This further implies that there is sufficient statistical evidence that the number of parents and their marital status significantly influences the level of students' self-acceptance.

The implication of this finding is that students in single parent families, irrespective of the pathway to single parenting, are at a higher risk of developing negative self-concept compared to those in two parent families. Among single parent families, divorced family students reported the lowest self-acceptance mean ranks score. Among two parent families, reconstituted family students reported the highest self-acceptance mean ranks score. From these findings, it can be then be deduced that divorce is detrimental to self-acceptance development and remarrying is beneficial to self-acceptance development of children.

These findings are agreeable with studies by Alex (2015), Wałęcka-Matyja (2014), Alami et al. (2014), Mabizu et al. (2014), Ahiaoma (2013), Azuka-Obieke (2013), Falana et al. (2012) and Szczęsna (2005). They all reported that single parent family structure had a negative influence on development and levels of students' self-acceptance and self-esteem. On parental marital status the current study findings was consistent with the study by Wałęcka-Matyja (2014) that parental marital influences the self-concept of a child but was inconsistent with the finding that intact family

students scored higher on self-acceptance compared to those in remarried families. Studies by Azuka-Obieke (2013), Alami et al. (2014) and Mabizu et al. (2014) attributed the negative effect to mainly inadequate family resources and poor parenting practices such as poor parent-child relationships, low parental involvement, disorderly and negative nurturing home environment at times associated with single parenting.

However, the findings of the current study are inconsistent with studies by Kinga et al (2014) and ShailaScraj (2004). Some of the inconsistency between the findings of the current study and the findings of these previous studies may be explained by the fact that the earlier studies controlled for moderating and intervening variables such as parenting style and school environment which was not the focus of the current study. For instance, Kinga et al. (2014) reported no statistically significant difference in level of self-esteem of public secondary school students by family structure. However, their study findings showed that the level of self-esteem of a student was influenced by the composite interaction of other factors such as the type of parents-children relationship, teaching conditions and the school environment and not family structure *persee*.

ShailaScraj (2004) linked the insignificant influence of family structure on students' self-concept to quality of parenting. His study findings revealed that students of both family structures received on average the same quality of parenting. This implies that if children born and brought up in single parent homes are given quality parenting, they too may develop high self-acceptance levels. Consequently, children in two parent families and brought up using poor parenting styles may develop low self-acceptance levels.

Further analysis of the influence of family structure on self-acceptance moderated by student's gender and type of school attended gave results as reported in Tables 36b and 36c.

Table 36 b:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures across gender

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure: Gender	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Male					
Never Married	69	87.30	19.751	4	.001
Married	86	111.59			
Divorced	15	67.60			
Widowed	20	80.75			
Remarried	4	166.25			
Total	194				
Female					
Never Married	66	82.23	20.77	4	.000
Married	91	113.50			
Divorced	16	59.22			
Widowed	13	86.50			
Remarried	5	101.70			
Total	191				

*P< 0.05

a. Krusal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure and student's Gender

The results in Table 36b further revealed a significant difference on influence of family structure on student's self-acceptance scores across gender. The results for male respondents are $\chi^2 (4) = 19.751$, $p = .001$ with a mean rank self-acceptance score of 87.30 for Never married families, 111.59 for Married families, 67.60 for Divorce families, 80.75 for Widowed families and 166.25for Remarried families and results for female students are $\chi^2 (4) = 20.77$, $p = .000$ with a mean rank self-acceptance score of 82.23 for Never married families, 113.50 for Married families, 59.22 for Divorce families, 86.50 for Widowed families and 101.70 for Remarried families.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = 19.75$ and $\chi^2 = 20.77$ which are greater than the critical $\chi^2=9.488$ at 4 degree of freedom, it further implies that there is sufficient statistical evidence that indeed family structure influences student's self-acceptance level and that this influence varies by student's gender. The implication of this finding is that divorce had the greatest negative influence on both male and female student's self-acceptance levels, remarrying was favourable for male student's self-acceptance levels and intact families were more favourable for girl's self-acceptance. These results therefore, indicate that family relations are more important to girls' Self-acceptance. For boys, family structural factors are more important for their self-acceptance.

The findings of the current study are inconsistent with the study by Mandara & Murray (2000), whose posted an insignificant influence of parental divorce on African American adolescents' self-esteem of girls but reported a statistically significance influence on boys. This difference in findings could be as a result of difference in study focus on moderating variables such as race which was not the concern for the current study. Table 36c presents the results of students' self-acceptance score between family structures cross tabulated with type of school attended.

Table 36 c:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Self -Acceptance Scores between Family Structures across schools attended

Descriptions				Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family structure	ToS	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	Girls Only	49	104.01	18.47	2	0.00
	Boys Only	34	129.54			
	MBG	110	83.82			
Two Parent	Girls Only	49	108.93	4.563	2	0.102
	Boys Only	40	100.63			
	MBG	103	88.99			
Single parent	Boarding	82	114.37	13.85	2	0.001
	Day	105	83.90			
	MDB	6	88.83			
Two parents	Boarding	90	105.75	5.063	2	0.080
	Day	98	89.01			
	MDB	4	72.00			

Note. df = degrees of freedom; MBG = Mixed Boys and Girls; MBD=Mixed Day and Boarding ToS = Type of School

The results in Table 36c further still revealed a significant difference on influence of single parent family structure on student’s self-acceptance scores across school attended classified by residential status and gender. The results for respondents in single parent homes self-acceptance scores across schools categorized by gender are $\chi^2 (2) = 18.47, p = .000$ with a mean rank self-acceptance score of 104.01 for girls only, 129.54 for boys only and 83.82 for mixed boys’ and girls’ schools; $\chi^2 (2) = 13.85, p = .001$ with a mean rank self-acceptance score of 114.37 for boarding, 83.90 for day and 88.83 for mixed day and boarding schools.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = 18.47$ and 13.85 which are greater than the critical $\chi^2=5.991$ at 2 degrees of freedom, it further still implies that there is sufficient statistical evidence that the family structure has influence on student self-acceptance level and that the extent of influence varies by type of school a child attend. Single gender boarding school students reported higher levels of self-acceptance compared to those

in day mixed gender schools. From the findings, single gender boarding schools were found favourable for self-acceptance development of boys from single parent homes. From descriptive statistics, mixed day and boarding schools were the found less favourable for self-acceptance growth of students in two parent families.

The results of the current may not be compared entirely with results of previous studies on account that the current study discusses an additional variable of family structure. However, results of the influence of school type on student's self-acceptance discussed in isolation/absence of family structure are consistent with those of Alex (2015), and Akin and Ceyhan (2005) but disagrees with those of Guglielmi (2011) and Pahlke et al. (2014). Although Akin and Ceyhan (2005) and Alex (2015) studied school type by ownership and sponsorship respectively, their results still showed a significant difference in students' levels of self-acceptance by school type. Guglielmi (2011). However, Pahlke et al. (2014) found no significant difference in self-concept by school type -gender.

4.4.2 Influence of Family Structure on Interpersonal relationships

To determine whether family structure has any influence on students' interpersonal relationships, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

Ho2: There is no significant influence of family structure on public secondary school students' interpersonal relationships.

To test this hypothesis the data was subjected to Kruskal-Wallis H test at $\alpha=0.05$ level of significance. Table 37a presents the test results.

Table 37 a: Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Interpersonal Relationships Scores between family structures

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	193	184.96	2.022	1	.155
Two Parents	192	201.08			
Total	385				
Never Married	135	180.15	4.260	4	.372
Married	177	201.16			
Divorced	31	182.42			
Widowed	33	213.98			
Remarried	9	184.78			
Total	385				

*P> 0.005

a. Kruskal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure

The results in Table 37a showed that there was no statistically significant difference in interpersonal relationships scores between single and two parents family structures, $\chi^2 (1) = 2.02$, $p = .155$ with a mean rank interpersonal relationship of 185.0 for Single parent family structure and 201.08 for Both parent family structure. There was also no statistically significant difference in interpersonal relationships scores between the family structure subsets, $\chi^2 (4) = 4.26$, $P = .372$ with a mean rank interpersonal relationship score of 180.15 for Never married families, 201.16 for Married families, 182.42 for Divorce families, 213.0 for Widowed families and 184.78 for Remarried families.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = 2.02$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2=3.841$ at 1 degree of freedom and calculated $\chi^2 = 4.26$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2= 9.488$ at 4 degrees of freedom, it implies that the null hypothesis that there is no significant influence of family structure on student's interpersonal relationships is not rejected at

the 5% level of significance. This further implies that there is no statistical evidence that family structure significantly influences the level of students' interpersonal relationships.

From descriptive statistics in Table 37a, students in single parent homes had lower levels of interpersonal relationships compared to those in two parent homes. Across the family structure sub-sets, students from widowed families reported the highest interpersonal relationships mean ranks scores followed by those in intact families while those in never married families reported the lowest mean ranks score followed by those in divorce families. Children of divorced homes are more likely to have experienced marital conflicts, are more likely to suffer economic and residential instabilities which are known to negatively affect interpersonal relationships development of children. Although descriptively there is difference in mean scores of interpersonal relationships between family structures, inferentially the difference is statistically insignificant.

These results are congruent with the study conducted in Kenya by Kimani (2007), who reported that parental marital status did not influence students' interpersonal relationships. However, he observed that duration lived in single parenthood status and gender of the single parent had influence on the levels of interpersonal relationships of students significantly and the parental support, guidance and care were key in the development of students' interpersonal relationships.

However, the findings of the current study are contrary to those by Sultan & Kanwal (2013), Pitner et al. (2012), Ahiaoma (2013) and Ngari (2015). In his study, Ahiaoma (2013) found that divorce had negative effect on interpersonal relation of students and this negative effect was associated with economic challenges which led to low

involvement in class activities More research by Sultan and Kanwal (2013) confirmed that mother-led single parent homes provided higher nurturance for peer relationships nurturance than father-led single parent homes. Pitner et al. (2012) examined interpersonal relationships among African American and white college students and reported that African Americans scored higher on measures of loneliness compared to whites and that they also rated the members of their social network as less similar to themselves. Ngari (2015) reported that parental marital status, parental gender and parental socio-economic status significantly influenced the interpersonal relationships development of secondary school students in Meru South Sub- County in Kenya. From these studies, it appears that the contradictory findings of the current study results with those of Sultan and Kanwal (2013), Pitner et al. (2012), Ahiaoma (2013) and Ngari (2015) may be attributed to differences in study variable characteristics measured, control of moderating variables such as parental socio-economic status, gender of the single parent and the focus of the studies, which was not the concern of the current study.

Although from Table 37a there is no significant difference in students' interpersonal relationships between family structures when looked across student's gender, Table 37b show significant difference in interpersonal relationships scores for male students across single parent family structures. There is no significant difference in interpersonal relationships scores for female students. This means that girls in all family structures scored almost the same.

Table 37 b: Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Interpersonal Relationships Scores between Family Structures across gender

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure: Gender	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Male					
Never Married	69	80.07	11.82	4	.019
Married	86	106.42			
Divorced	15	83.70			
Widowed	20	120.53			
Remarried	4	108.38			
Total	194				
Female					
Never Married	66	98.78	.999	4	.910
Married	91	95.65			
Divorced	16	99.09			
Widowed	13	86.50			
Remarried	5	80.50			
Total	191				

*P< 0.05

a. Kruskal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure and student's Gender

The results in Table37b indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in interpersonal relationships scores between the family structure by parental marital status for male students, $\chi^2 (4) = 11.82$, $P = .019$ with a mean rank interpersonal relationship score of 80.07 for Never married families, 106.42 for Married families, 83.70 for Divorce families, 120.53 for Widowed families and 108.38 for Remarried families. The implication of these results is that boys in never married and divorce families are at a higher risk of developing poor interpersonal relationships compared to their counterparts in other family structures. This could be as a result of lack of role modelling for boys in never married homes and perhaps learning of poor interpersonal skills for those in divorce homes. Male students in widowed families reported the highest interpersonal relationships mean ranks among students in single parent homes.

This finding gives an indication that cause of single parent marital status plays an important role for interpersonal relationships of boys. This further gives an indication that perhaps the effect of divorce on girls' interpersonal relationships may be temporal but long lasting for boys. Therefore, schools should pay attention on school activities and programs that improve the interpersonal relationships of students and more so, for those boys living with never married and divorced single parents. Boys in reconstructed homes reported the highest mean rank score overall. This further give an indication that the structure of a family (number of parents) is important for boys' interpersonal relationship development. Girls in divorce families recorded the highest interpersonal relationships mean score where those in the reconstituted families reported the lowest mean scores. From these results, it can then be deduced that family relations are key for girls' interpersonal relationships development.

This finding is consistent with the study by Hetherington et. al. (2010), which reported that divorce had negative influence for both girls and boys and that the effects on girls was temporal but long lasting for boys. Similar results had been reported by an earlier study by Paschall et al. (2003). However, contrary findings to those of the current study were reported by Guidubaldi and Perry (1985). Their study findings revealed a no significant difference by family structure for girls and reported a positive effect for boys of divorce homes. From their study, Guidubaldi and Perry (1985) found that boys in divorce homes had greater contact with friends than boys in intact families. These results echoed those of an earlier study by Kurdek et al. (1981), which reported that the children's relationships with peers had improved after divorce and attributed this to getting opportunities for peer discussions on experiences, some of whom had similar experiences. Guidubaldi and Perry (1985) and Kurdek et al.

(1981) controlled for moderating variable, time spent in the family structure, which could have led to the contrary finding of the current study.

4.4.3 Family Structure and Social Integration

The third objective sought to establish the influence of family structure on social integration. The following null hypothesis was advanced:

Ho3: There is no significant influence of family structure on student's social integration in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya. To test this hypothesis the data was subjected to Kruskal-Wallis H test and resulted presented in Table 38.

Table 38:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Social Integration Scores between family structures

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	193	192.05	.028	1	.866
Both Parents	192	193.96			
Total	385				
Never Married	135	192.71	1.677	4	.795
Married	177	190.25			
Divorced	31	217.21			
Widowed	33	187.44			
Remarried	9	188.33			
Total	385				

*P> 0.005

a. Krusal-Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure

The results in Table 38 showed that there was no statistically significant difference in social integration scores between single and both parent family structures, $\chi^2(1) = 0.028$, $p = 0.866$ with a mean rank social integration score of 192.05 for single parent and 193.96 for both parent family structure. There was also no statistically significant

difference in social integration scores between the family structure subsets, $\chi^2(4)=1.677$, $P=0.795$ with a mean rank social integration score of 192.71 for Never married families, 190.25 for Married families, 217.21 for Divorce families, 187.44 for Widowed families and 188.33 for Remarried families.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = .028$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2=3.841$ at 1 degree of freedom and calculated $\chi^2 = 1.677$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2= 9.488$ at 4 degrees of freedom, it implies that the null hypothesis that there is no significant influence of family structure on student's social integration is not rejected at the 5% level of significance. This further implies that there is no statistical evidence that family structure significantly influences the level of students' social integration in school. From descriptive results in Table 38, students from divorce homes reported the highest social integration mean ranks score while those in widowed families reported the lowest mean ranks score. Although descriptively there was differences in mean ranks scores by family structures, inferentially the difference was insignificant. This means that family structure had no significant influence on social integration levels of public secondary school students in Kiambu County at 5% level of significance.

This finding is inconsistent with earlier studies by Kinga et al. (2015), Mabizu et al. (2014), Falana et al. (2012), Kimani & Kombo (2010), Gracia and Herrero (2004), Markowitz (2014), Markowitz and Ryan(2016). The difference in the findings could be as a result of control of moderating and intervening factors by the other researchers, which was not a concern of the current study. For instance, studies by Mabizu et al. (2014) in Swaziland, Falana et al. (2012) in Nigeria, and Kinga et al. (2015) in Kenya reported a negative influence of single parenting on students' social integration. These studies focused on moderating and intervening variables such as

stigmatization and discrimination in the society and school because of father absence; lack of basic things such as uniform, food and proper shelter; negative labeling and stereotyping by classmates, teachers, school administration and the community at large; identity crisis which negatively affects the social integration in to the wider community; use of coping strategies such as secrecy, partial disclosure or social withdrawal thus constricting social network and support of these children; increased devaluation of self and feelings of shame and guilt which in turn made them withdraw from social activities and friends; social exclusion by children from two parent families because of not belonging to the mainstream family structure. This perhaps explain the reason as to why the current study results contradicted those of earlier studies.

4.4.4 Family Structure and Academic Performance

The fourth hypothesis sought to establish the influence of family structure on academic performance and the following null hypothesis was advance and tested:

Ho4: There is no significant influence of family structure on student's academic performance in public secondary schools in Kiambu, Kenya. Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to test this hypothesis. Results are shown in Table 39a.

Table 39 a:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Academic Performance Scores between family structures

Descriptions			Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family Structure	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	193	187.64	.898	1	.343
Both Parents	192	198.39			
Total	385				
Never Married	135	195.91	3.697	4	.449
Married	177	196.25			
Divorced	31	157.63			
Widowed	33	200.86			
Remarried	9	178.44			
Total	385				

*P > 0.005

a. Krusal-Wallis Test b. Grouping Variable: Family Structure

The results in Table 39 showed that there was no statistically significant difference in academic performance scores between single and both parent family structures, $\chi^2(1) = 0.898$, $p = 0.343$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 187.64 for single parent and 198.39 for both parent family structure. There was also no statistically significant difference in academic performance scores between the family structure subsets, $\chi^2(4) = 3.697$, $P = .449$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 195.91 for Never married families, 196.25 for Married families, 157.63 for Divorce families, 200.86 for Widowed families and 178.44 for Remarried families.

From the calculated $\chi^2 = .898$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2 = 3.841$ at 1 degree of freedom and calculated $\chi^2 = 3.697$ which is less than the critical $\chi^2 = 9.488$ at 4 degrees of freedom, it implies that the null hypothesis that there is no significant influence of family structure on student's academic performance is retained at the 5% level of significance. This further implies that there is no sufficient statistical evidence that family structure significantly influences the level of students' academic performance. Therefore, family structure had no significant influence on academic

performance of public secondary school students who sat for 2017 KCSE exam in Kiambu County.

These findings are congruent with studies by Madime (2005); Ferrell (2009); Ushie et al. (2012); Amofa (2013); Ntitika (2014), all of whom reported no significant influence of family structure on students' academic performance. However, the current study findings are incongruent with studies by Lange et al. (2014), Pappa (2013), Tillman (2007), Obiamaka (2014), Falana et al. (2012), Uwaifo (2012) Ahiaoma (2013). Ngure and Amollo (2017), Korir and Kipkemboi (2014), Nato (2016), Munini (2010) Fawole (2014), Egunsola (2014), Mabuza (2014), Salami and Alawode (1999), Azuka-Obieke (2013), Amoakohene (2013), Abudu and Fuseini (2013), Chalachew and Hari Lakshmi (2013), all of whom found a negative influence of family structure on students' academic performance in different countries. The difference in the current study results and those of earlier studies could be as a result of differences in study variables, samples, focus and selected control variables, location of the study.

For instance, Lange et al. (2014) focused on the school's share of single-parent families and reported that attending a school with a large number of children from single-parent families had negative effect on children's educational performance. Falana et al. (2012) studied relationship between intellectual capacity and single parent family structure and reported a negative relationship. Uwaifo (2012) used a sample of university students and reported a significant difference between the academic performance of students across family structures. Egunsola (2014) reported a statistically significant relationship between parental marital status and students' academic performance in Agricultural Science while Fawole (2014) reported a statistically significant difference in Mathematics performance of students across

family structures in favour of those in two parent homes. Another study by Ngure and Amollo (2017) controlled for socio-economic status of parents and reported a significant relationship between parental marital status and academic achievement of preschool children.

Although from Table 39a there is no significant difference in students' academic performance between family structures when looked across schools attended, Table 39b show significant difference in academic performance scores between family structures across schools attended.

Table 39 b:Kruskal Wallis Test Analysis for difference in the Academic Performance Scores between Family Structures across schools attended

Descriptions				Test Statistic ^{a,b}		
Family structure	ToS	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	Df	Asymp. Sig.
Single Parent	Girls Only	49	141.24	99.680	2	0.00
	Boys Only	34	145.91			
	MBG	110	62.17			
Both Parent	Girls Only	49	129.57	90.955	2	0.00
	Boys Only	40	146.46			
	MBG	103	61.36			
Single parent	Boarding	82	144.81	106.551	2	0.001
	Day	105	59.90			
	MDB	6	92.92			
Both parents	Boarding	90	135.69	85.107	2	0.000
	Day	98	62.90			
	MDB	4	38.00			

Note. df = degrees of freedom; MBG = Mixed Boys and Girls; MBD=Mixed Day and Boarding ToS = Type of School

The results in Table 39b indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in academic performance scores between family structures across schools attended classified by gender for single parent homes, $\chi^2 (2) = 99.680$, $p = .000$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 141.24 for girls only, 145.91 for boys only and 62.17 for mixed boys' and girls' schools; and for both parent homes, $\chi^2 (2) = 90.955$,

$p = .000$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 129.57 for girls only, 146.46 for boys only and 61.36 for mixed boys' and girls' schools; and also across schools attended classified by residential status for single parent homes, $\chi^2 (2) = 106.551$, $p = .000$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 144.81 for boarding, 59.90 for day and 92.92 for mixed day and boarding schools, and for both parents; $\chi^2 (2) = 85.107$, $p = .000$ with a mean rank academic performance score of 135.69 for boarding, 62.90 for day and 38.00 for mixed day and boarding schools.

Results in Table 39b further show that students schooling in single-sex schools achieved higher academic performance mean rank score than those schooling in mixed gender (Co-ed) schools. Girls from single parent homes and in single-sex schools reported a higher academic performance mean rank score than their counterparts in two parent homes. On the other hand, boys from both parent homes attending single-sex schools achieved a slightly higher academic performance mean rank score than their counterparts in single parent homes. Results in Table 39b further showed that students in boarding schools scored a higher mean rank score compared to students in day, mixed day and boarding schools. Students from two parent families and schooling in mixed day and boarding schools recorded the lowest mean rank score while students from single parent homes schooling in boarding schools recorded the highest mean rank score. This gives an indication that influence of structure on academic performance varies with type of school attended.

The results of the current may not be compared entirely with results of previous studies on account that the current study discusses an additional variable of family structure. However, results of the influence of school type on student's academic performance discussed in isolation/absence of family structure are inconsistent with

the Meta-Analysis study by Pahlke et al. (2014), which did not find any statistically significant effects of single-sex and coeducational schools on students' academic performance but are in congruence with those of Jackson (2016), Okon and Archibong (2015), Huntington (2006), Bosire (2008), Leonie and Lesley (1997). They reported a significant difference in academic performance by school type.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first part presents the summary of the findings, second section presents the conclusions of the study while the third and final section presents the recommendations for both policy issues and further research.

5.2 Summary

The study was designed to investigate the influence of family structure on students' self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance in public secondary schools. In the exploratory part of the study, the interaction effect between type of school; student's gender and age; and family structure on the levels of self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance were studied.

In summary,

1). The results of Kruskal Wallis test indicated that family structure had a statically significant influence on self-acceptance scores of the year 2017 form four public secondary school students' in Kiambu county at 5% level of significance. There was a significant difference in students' self-acceptance scores within family structures for both boys and girls. Divorce was found to have a negative influence on self-acceptance scores for both boys and girls, and the negative effect was more intense for boys. Parental remarriage had a positive influence on boy's self-acceptance development. Intact family had a positive influence on girl's self-acceptance levels. There was a significant difference in students' self-acceptance scores within single parent family structures across schools attended. There was no significant difference in students' self-acceptance scores within both parent family structures across schools

attended. Single-sex schools were found favourable for self-acceptance development of boys in single parent homes. Boarding schools were too found favourable for students in single parent homes. Majority of the above age students were from both parent homes while majority of the under-age students were from single parent home. None of the above age students reported high level of self-acceptance. Majority of the respondents reported moderate and low levels of self-acceptance.

ii). Family structure had statistically insignificant influence on interpersonal relationships scores at 5% level of significance. There was a statistically significant difference in students' interpersonal relationships scores within family structures for boys but not for girls. Divorced and never-married homes were found to impact negatively on boys' interpersonal relationships. However, divorce was found to have a positive influence for girls. Widowed families were found to impact positively on boys' interpersonal relationships. Remarriage was found beneficial to boys' interpersonal relationships development but detrimental for girls' interpersonal relationships. None of the above age students reported good level of interpersonal relationships. None of the under-age students in single parent homes reported good level of interpersonal relationships. Single sex schools were found to be less favourable for: girls from both parent homes (intact or remarried families), boys in remarried families, and boys in single parent homes.

iii). Family structure had statistically insignificant influence on social integration scores at $\alpha = 0.05$. There was no statistically significant difference in means of students' social integration by gender at $\alpha = 0.05$. There was statistically insignificant difference in social integration levels within family structures across schools attended.

iv). Family structure had a null influence on academic performance (2017 KCSE examination scores) of students in Kiambu county at $\alpha = 0.05$. There was no statistically significant difference in means of students' academic performance within family structures across gender. There was a statistically significant difference in academic performance within family structures across schools attended. There was a significant difference in academic performance mean for students in boarding and day schools across all family structures. Single-sex schools were found to have a positive influence for girls in single parent homes. Mixed boarding and day schools were found to impact negatively on academic performance of students across all family structures, and the negative effect was greater for students in both parent families. Boarding schools had a significant positive influence on students' academic performance across all family structures, and the influence was greater for students in single parent homes.

5.3 Conclusions

The results of this study have presented evidence of the existence of statistically insignificant influence of family structure on interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance. However, evidence of a statistically significant influence of family structure on self-acceptance has been presented. Variation in influence of family structure by school type on self-acceptance and academic performance; and variation by student's gender on interpersonal relationships has been presented.

Based on the findings of this study and the preceding analysis, it can be concluded that in relation to the dependent variable of self-acceptance there is significant difference among the students in both parents and those in single parent families.

Generally, majority of the respondents reported moderate and low levels of self-160

acceptance. This implies that majority of students in public secondary schools in Kiambu County were not happy with themselves and their achievements in life, were not confident and positive about themselves, did not like most of the aspects of their personality, were not able to accept their shortcomings and were low in self-awareness

According to the hierarchy of needs theory that was adopted in this study, lack of or deficit in lower-level needs may lead to negative world view, negative attitudes towards self and life thus hamper development of self-acceptance. Due to lack of one parent, students in single parent homes are more like face economic challenges which may in turn lead to difficulties in meeting the physiological, safety and security, and belongingness needs thus negatively affecting their self-acceptance levels.

That more than two thirds of the students in public secondary schools in Kiambu County were not happy with themselves and their achievements in life, were not confident and positive about themselves, did not like most of the aspects of their personality, were not able to accept their shortcomings and were low in self-awareness. Divorce and widowhood have a negative influence on students' self-acceptance while remarrying seems to have a positive influence on self-acceptance. That family structure has influence on students' self-acceptance and that the level of influence varies with the parental marital status and the student's gender. Divorced parental marital status seems to impact negatively to both boys and girls' self-acceptance levels while remarriage seems to work to the benefit of boys.

Remarrying was found to provide conducive environment for self-acceptance development of boys while intact/ married families were found to provide favourable environment for self-acceptance growth of girls. However, divorce was found detrimental for both girls and boys self-acceptance levels.

From the above findings, it can be inferred that age has an influence on students' self-acceptance and that the influence varies with family structure. Above age is more detrimental to students' self-acceptance compared to under age and the impact is more pronounced in single parent families. Single parenting was unfavourable for under age and above students' interpersonal relationships development. Single sex schools were less favourable for interpersonal relationship development of girls from both parent home and for boys in single parent homes. Remarrying was favourable for boys' social integration. Single gender schools and boarding schools were found to be favourable for girl's social integration of girls from single parent home. Living in urban areas was found to be favourable for social integration of children of divorce and unfavourable for students from never married families. Remarried families were found more favourable for those living in the rural areas.

This means that irrespective of parental marital status, parental gender and time spent in single parent home, if children in these homes got sufficient parental support, proper guidance and care they could develop good interpersonal relationships. Schools should therefore take an active role in informing parents on importance of good parenting and also teaching them proper parenting styles.

Students in single parent homes had lower levels of interpersonal relationships compared to those in two parent homes. Therefore, schools should pay attention on school activities and programs that improve the interpersonal relationships of students and more so, for those in single parent homes.

5.4 Recommendations

The researcher, guided by the findings, conclusions and the theories of hierarchy of needs and social learning theories made recommendations related to policy and further research.

5.4.1 Policy Recommendations

1. The study found that single parenting negatively and significantly influenced self-acceptance. Counsellors or psychologists to assist students with low self-acceptance. School personnel also need to provide counsel and joint support to the single parents in raising well-adjusted and successful children. Teachers, counsellors, educational psychologist and administrators need to understand that children raised in struggling families need schools that are warm, nurturing, structured and authoritative. The single parents should also be counselled on social and psychological needs of their children so that their academic work will not suffer at school.

2. There was no significant influence of family structure on interpersonal relationships and social integration. However, the overall levels were low and therefore school should intensify opportunities for positive social engagement, support, and formation of friendships in schools; and strengthen the institutional culture to better foster positive interpersonal relationship development and interactions for all students.

3. There was no significant influence of family structure on academic performance. However, the academic performance was low. Since school type (by residential status or by gender) was found to significantly moderate the influence of family structure on academic performance, teachers and parents in public schools should work together in creating conducive learning environments for enhancing academic performance of students from all family structures. Strategies that increase parental involvement and participation in school activities should be used. Single-sex and boarding schools were

found to positively and significantly moderate the influence of family structure on academic performance. Policy on type of school to facilitate boarding setup to reduce the parenting influence and support gender streaming in mixed gender schools to improve academic performance of girls should be put in place.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Further Research

- i). There is need for further research in this area since contradicting and mixed findings have been reported, particularly on the influence of family structure on self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships and academic performance
- ii). There is need for research on moderating variables(gender of single parent, parental social-economic status, marital conflicts) of influence family structure on interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance
- iii) In addition, more local studies should be conducted on different types of samples such as primary school pupils, university students as well as on special needs populations for more research literature on the variables of this study to guide policy formulations in education,

REFERENCES

- Abiero, I., Mukiri, C., Mwatemb, O. R., & Ashioya, G. (2014). *The relationship between self-esteem and academic performance among secondary school students in Ruiru constituency, Kiambu County* (Unpublished Bachelors project), Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya
- Abudu, A. M. & Fuseini, M. N. (2013). Influence of single parenting on pupils' academic performance in basic schools in the wa municipality. *International Journal of Education Learning and Development*. 1(2), 85-94.
- Ahiaoma, I. (2013). The psycho-social effect of parental separation and divorce on adolescents: Implications for counselling in Surulere local government area of Lagos state. *International Journal of Psychology and Counselling*, 6-7.
- Akanbi, M. I. (2014). Impact of Divorce on Academic Performance of Senior Secondary Students in Ilorin Metropolis, Kwara State. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4, (19).
- Akin, Y. D., & Ceyhan, E. (2005). Investigation of Public and Private High School Students Self-Acceptance Levels According to Perceived Social Support Levels from Family, Friends and Teachers. *Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences, Anadolu University*, 5(2), 69-88.
- Alami A, Khosravan Sh, Sadegh Moghadam L, Pakravan F, Hosseini F. (2014). Adolescents' Self-Esteem in Single and Two-Parent Families. *IJCBNM*, 2(2), 69-76.
- Alex, A. (2015). A study on self-acceptance of children belonging to single parent and intact parent families of Malappuram district in Kerala. *International Journal of economics and business review*. 3 (1).
- Amato, P.R. & Keith, B. 1991. Parental divorce and the well-being of children: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin* 110(1), 26-46.
- Amato, P. R. 2001. Children of divorce in the 1990s: an update of the Amato-Keith (1991) meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Psychology* 15(3), 355-370.
- Amato, P.R. (2005). The impact of family formation changes on the cognitive, social and emotional well-being of the next generation. *Future of Children*, 15(2), 75-96
- Amofa, R. A. (2013). Effects of single parenting on adolescents' academic performance (Unpublished Master's thesis), University of Cape Coast.
- Anderman, E.M. (2002). School effects on psychological outcomes during adolescence. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94(5) 795-809.
- Apondi, C. O (2005). *Factors leading to students' unrest in secondary schools and the need for guidance and counselling in Kamukunji constituency, Nairobi* (Unpublished Master's thesis). Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya

- Azuka-Obieke, U. (2013). Single-parenting, psychological wellbeing and academic performance of adolescents in Lagos Nigeria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Social Studies*, 4(1), 112-117.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. New York: General Learning Printers
- Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting style on adolescent competence and Substance use. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 11(1), 56-95.
- Baumrind, D. (2005). Patterns of parental authority and adolescent autonomy. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 108, 61-69.
- Becker, B. E., & Luthar, S. S. (2002). Socioemotional factors affecting achievement outcomes among disadvantaged students: Closing the achievement gap. *Educational Psychologist*, 37, 197 – 214
- Biblarz, T.J., & Raftery, A.E. (1999) Family Structure, Educational Attainment, and Socioeconomic Success: Rethinking the Pathology of Matriarchy. *American Journal of Sociology*, 105(2): 321-365
- Bosire, J., Mondon, H., & Barmao, A. (2008). Effect of streaming by gender on student achievement in mathematics in secondary schools in Kenya. *South African Journal of Education*, 28, 595-607.
- Buchmann, C., & Hannum, E. (2001). Education and Stratification in Developing Countries: A Review of Theories and Research. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 27, 77-102.
- Clark, Cynthia. (2013). Stress, coping, healing and the quest for civility. *Imprint*. 60. 34-9.
- Cavanagh, E. S., & Fomby, P. (2012). Family instability, school context and the academic careers of adolescents. *Journal of Sociology in Education*, 85(1): 81-97.
- Ceyhan, A. & Ceyhan, E. (2011). Investigation of university students' self-acceptance and learned resourcefulness: a longitudinal study. *Higher Education*, 61(6), 649-661
- Cicognani, E., Pirini, C., Keyes, C., Joshanloo, M., Rostami, R., & Nosratabadi, M. (2008). Social participation, sense of community and social well-being: A study on American, Italian and Iranian university students. *Social Indicators Research*, 89, 97–112.
- Child Trends. [Accessed April 7, 2014]; Family Structure: Indicators on Children and Youth. 2013 http://www.childtrends.org/wpcontent/uploads/2011/12/59_Family_Structure.pdf
- Cui, M., & Fincham, F. D. (2010). The Differential Effects of Parental Divorce and Marital Conflict on Young Adult Romantic Relationships. *Personal Relationships*, (17) 340.

- Chala Chew, A. A. and Lakshmi, V. H. (2013). Assessing Children Academic Achievement as Correlates with Parents' Marital Status: The Case of Junior High School Students in Addis Ababa. *International Journal of Social Science and Interdisciplinary Research*, 2(2).
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (Eds.). (2002). *Handbook of self-determination research*. University of Rochester Press.
- Demo, D. H. and Acock, A. C. (1988). The Impact of Divorce on Children. *Journal of Marriage & Family*, 50(3), 619-648.
- Doris, A., & O'Neill, D., & Sweetman, O. (2006)). *Gender, Single-Sex Schooling and Maths Achievement*. IZA Discussion Papers 6917, Institute of Labor Economics
- Eizirik, M., Bergmann, D. S. (2004). Father absence and its influence on child and adolescent development: A case report. *Revista de Psiquiatria do Rio Grande do Sul*, 26(3), 330–336.
- Egunsola, A. O. E. (2014). Influence of home environment on academic performance of secondary school students in Agricultural science in Adamawa State Nigeria. *Journal of Research & Methoding Education*, 4(4), 46-53
- Falana, B. A., Bada, F. O., & Ayodele, C. J. (2012). Single-parent family structure, psychological, social and cognitive development of children in Ekiti State. *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 2(2), 158-164.
- Farid, Faisal & Akhtar, M. (2013). Self-esteem of secondary school students in Pakistan. *Middle East Journal of Scientific Research*. 14. 1325-1330.
- Fawole, V. O. (2014). *Impact of single-parenting on senior secondary school students' academic performance in mathematics in Ondo west local government area of Ondo state* (Unpublish Masters project) ,Obafemiawolowo University.
- Ferrell, R. T. (2009). *The effects of single-parent households versus two-parent households on student academic success, attendance, and suspensions* (Unpublished PhD Dissertation), Lindenwood University.
- Githuthwa, D. K (2013). *The suicidal tendencies and its psychological implications on secondary students of Gatundu district, Kiambu county* (Unpublished Project) Mount Kenya University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Gilborn, L., Louis, A., Jonathan, B., Linda, D., Kyle, J., Mark, K., Tricia, S., & Leslie, M. S. (2006). *Orphans and vulnerable youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe: An exploratory study of psychosocial well-being and psychosocial support*. Horizons Final Report. Washington, DC: Population Council.
- Gracia, E. & Herrero, J. (2004). Determinants of Social Integration in the Community: An Exploratory Analysis of Personal, Interpersonal and

- Situational Variables. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 14, 1 - 15.
- Gerstel, N. (1988). Divorce, Gender, and Social Integration. *Gender and Society*, 2(3), 343-367.
- Gerstel, N. (2011). Rethinking Families and Community: The Color, Class, and Centrality of Extended Kin Ties. *Sociological Forum*, 26(1), 1-20.
- Goni, U., Yaganawali, S. B., Ali, H. K., & Bularafa, M. W. (2015). Gender difference in students' academic performance in colleges of education in Borno state, Nigeria: Implications for Counselling. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(32), 107–114.
- Guidubaldi, J. & Perry, J. (1985). Divorce and mental health sequelae for children: A two- year follow-up of a nationwide sample. *Journal of the American Academy Child Psychiatry*, 24,531- 537.
- Guglielmi, A. (2011). *Girls' Self-Esteem Rates in Single Sex & Coed High Schools*. (Unpublished Senior Theses), Trinity College, Hartford.
- Hetherington, E.M, Cox, M., & Cox, R, (1979). "Family Interaction and Social Emotional and Cognitive Development of Children Following Divorce", In V. Vaughn & T. Barzelton (Eds.), *The Family: Setting Priorities New York: science and Medicine*.
- Hickman, D. (2007). The Social Context of Divorce and its Impact on Adolescent Psychological Well-being. (Honors). College of Human Ecology, Cornell University
- Hughes, J. & Kwok, O. (2007). Influence of Student- teacher and parent– teacher relationships on lower achieving readers' engagement and achievement in the primary grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(1), 39 – 51
- Is, Engin&Özgan, Habib. (2018). Examination of the perceptions of secondary school students on social integration. *European Journal of Education studies*,10.5281/zenodo.1064918.
- Kageni, E (2012). *Causes of High Incidence of Examination Malpractice Among Secondary in Nairobi County* (Unpublished project), Mount Kenya University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Kaguthi, J. (2006). *Drug Abuse in Nairobi Province and Nationally, with Specific Reference to Educational Institutions*. Nairobi, Kenya UNDCP.
- Kahunga, J.M. (2013). *Factors contributing to Bullying among Students in Public Secondary Schools in Kiambu district, Kenya*. (Unpublished Masters),Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya
- Kalantarkousheh, S. M. (2012)) Gender as a Moderator in the Association of Self-Acceptance and Autonomy of Iranian University Students. *Journal of Teaching and Education*, 1(6),39–46.

- Kalter, A., Neil, D., Riemer, B., Brickman, A., & Chen, W. (1985). Implications of parental divorce for female development. *Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry*, 24: 538-544.
- Kamuti, J. M. (2015). *Influence of home environment on academic performance of students in public secondary schools in Kitui west sub county* (Unpublished Master's thesis), South Eastern Kenya University, Kenya.
- Kimani, J. M. (2007). *Influence of parental marital status on self-esteem, discipline and interpersonal relationships among secondary school students within Nakuru municipality* (Unpublished Master thesis), Egerton University, Kenya.
- Kinga, T. N., Kimani, J. M., & Muriithi, W. (2014). A Comparative Study of Levels of Self Esteem among Students of Single and Dual Parent Families. the Case of Students in Selected Secondary Schools in Nakuru Municipality, Kenya. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*. 4 (1), 55-58.
- King'endo, M. (2010). *Incidence and Extent of Substance Abuse among Secondary School Students in Nairobi Province, Kenya: Implications for Specialised Intervention* (Unpublished PhD Thesis), Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Keyes, C.L.M. (2006). Mental health in adolescence: Is America's youth flourishing? *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 7(3), 395-402.
- Knoester, C., & Haynie, D. (2005). Community Context, Social Integration into Family, and Youth Violence. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(3), 767-780.
- Kumar, A. (1998). Academic self-concept scale. *Journal of Psychological Researches*, 42 (1), 1-8.
- Kurdek, L. A., Blisk, D., & Siesky, A. E. (1981). Correlates of children's long-term adjustment to their parents' divorce. *Developmental Psychology*, 17(5), 565-579.
- Link, B. (1987). Understanding Labeling Effects in the Area of Mental Disorders: An Assessment of the Effects of Expectations of Rejection. *American Sociological Review*, 52(1), 96-112.
- Mabuza, N. (2014). Single Parenting and Its Effects on the Psychosocial Development of Children in Swaziland. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5 (23), 2252
- Magnuson, K., & Berger, L. M. (2009). Family Structure States and Transitions: Associations with Children's Wellbeing During Middle Childhood. *Journal of marriage and the family*, 71(3), 575-591.
- Mandara, J., & Murray, C. (2000). Effect of Parental Marital Status, Income and Family Functioning on African American Adolescent Self-Esteem. *Journal of Family Psychology*. 14(3), 475-490
- Markowitz, Anna & Ryan, Rebecca. (2016). Father Absence and Adolescent Depression and Delinquency: A Comparison of Siblings Approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*. 78, 1300- 1314.

- Maslow, A. H. (1954). The instinctoid nature of basic needs. *Journal of Personality*, 22, 326–34
- Mellem, L. S. (2008) *Sense of coherence as a mediator of stress among high school students in Tromsø, Norway* (Unpublished Master) Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Tromsø.
- Moime, W. M. (2009). *The effect of orphanhood on the psychological development of pre-primary and primary school learners*. (Unpublished Doctoral thesis). University of South Africa, Pretoria.
- Munini, S. M (2010). *Influence of single parenthood on pre-school children's academic performance in kirinyaga district: a case study of Mwea division* (Unpublished Master's thesis), University of Nairobi, Kenya
- Mwaba Sidney, O.C.&Kusanthan, T. &Menon,J. A. (2015). Gender Differences in Academic Performance: A Case of Psychology Students at the University of Zambia: *Studies in Social Sciences and Humanities, Research Academy of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 131-138.
- Mwiiigi, J. W. (2014). *The impact of gender differences on student's academic performance in secondary schools in Ndumberi Division, Kiambu County, Kenya In science subjects and languages* (Unpublished thesis) University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Mst. ShailaScraj, A (2004). Self-concept and Family Structure: A Comparison between the children of joint and Nuclear Families. The Dhaka University studies.
- Among Secondary School Students in Bungoma East Sub-County, Kenya. *International Journal of Secondary Education*. 4(2),12-22.
- Ngari, E.N. (2005). *Analysis of the significance of single and dual parenthood on the development of interpersonal relationships among secondary school learners in Meru-south sub county, Kenya*. (Unpublished Masters project) Mount Kenya University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Ngure,W.W.&Amollo, P. O (2017). Influence of Parental Marital Status on Academic Achievement of Preschool Children in Embakasi, Nairobi, Kenya. *Research Publish Journals*. | 37.
- NACADA (2014). *Alcohol and Drug Abuse in Kenya. Final National Baseline Survey, on Substance Abuse in Kenya*. Government Printer, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Ntitika, J. L. (2014). *Parental characteristics influencing students' academic performance in public secondary schools in Isinya district, Kenya* (Unpublished Master's thesis), University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2013). Engagement with and at school. In PISA 2012 Results: Ready to learn: Students' engagement, drive and self-beliefs(Volume III). PISA: OECD Publishing: 39–62. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201170> (Accessed 2016-17-03).

- Ogecha, I. (2014). Influence of Family on Teenage Sexual Behaviour: A Case of Primary School Pupils in Nakuru Town, Nakuru County, Kenya. Mount Kenya University Institutional Repository <https://erepository.mku.ac.ke>
- Obiamaka, V. O.(2014). Relationship Between Academic Achievement of In-School Adolescents From Divorced / Separated Homes and Two-Structured (Intact) Homes. *Research Journal in Organizational Psychology & Educational Studies*, 3(3) 189-194
- Okon, C. E., & Archibong, U. I. (2015). School Type and Students' Academic Performance in Social Studies in Junior Secondary Certificate Examination (JSC). *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 4(2), 421.
- Ozgan, H. & Aksab, S (2018). The Examination of the Social Integration Perceptions of Undergraduate Students. *Journal of Education and Training Studies. Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 6(3), 26-34
- Pahlke, E., Hyde, J. S., & Allison, C. M. (2014). The effects of single-sex compared with coeducational schooling on students' performance and attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), 1042–1072.
- Pappa, V.S. (2013). Relationships between Parents' Marital Status and the Psychological Well-being of Adolescents in Greece. *J Psychol Psychother* 3, 110.
- Paschall, M. J., Ringwalt, C. L., & Flewelling, R. L. (2003). Effects of parenting, father absence, and affiliation with delinquent peers on delinquent behavior among African-American male adolescents. *Adolescence*, 38(149), 15
- Pearlin, L., & Johnson, J. (2015). Marital Status, Life-Strains and Depression. *American Sociological Review*, 42(5), 704-715.
- Pitner, R., Scott, L., & Deloach McCutcheon, K. (2012). When Deficits are Misplaced: A Comparison Between African American and White College Students on Qualitative and Structural Dimensions of Interpersonal Relationships. *Journal of African American Studies*, 16(3), 511-536.
- Putnam, R. D. (2007). Diversity and community in the twenty-first century the 2006 Johan Skytte Prize Lecture. *Scandinavian Political Studies*, 30, 137
- Richter, L., Foster, G. & Sherr, L. (2006). *Where the heart is: meeting the psychosocial needs of young children in the context of HIV/AIDS*. The Hague, The Netherlands: Bernard van Leer Foundation.
- Roska, J., & Potter, D. (2011). Parenting and academic achievement: Intergenerational transmission of educational advantage. *Journal of Sociology in Education*, 84, 299-318
- Ross, L. T., & Miller, J. R. (2009). Parental divorce and college students: The impact of family unpredictability and perceptions of divorce. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage*, 50(4), 248-259.

- Ryan, R., & Claessens, A., & Markowitz, A. (2014). Associations Between Family Structure Change and Child Behavior Problems: The Moderating Effect of Family Income. *Child Development*, 86. 10.1111/cdev.12283.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069-1081.
- Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. H. (2006). Best news yet on the six-factor model of well-being. *Social Science Research*, 35(4), 1103–1119.
- Salami, S., & Alawode, E. (2000). Influence of single-parenting on the academic achievement of adolescents in secondary schools: implications for counselling. *Ilorin Journal of Education*, 20, 1-8
- Santrock, John W. (1975). Father absence, perceived maternal behavior, and moral development in boys. *Child Development* 46, 753-757.
- Santrock, J.W. (2006). *Life span development*. Contemporary learning series. USA: McGraw- Hill.
- Scaggs, J. (2009). *Effects of School Discipline on Students Social Bonds*. University of Missouri A review of family processes and intervention research. *Social Service Review*, 71, 382–420.
- Schmidt, J.A., Shumow, L. & Kackar, H. (2007). Adolescents' Participation in Service Activities and Its Impact on Academic, Behavioral, and Civic Outcomes. *J Youth Adolescence* 36, 127–140.
- Şimşek, H., Şimşek A.S. (2013). Level of Social Integration in High School Students in Southeastern Anatolia. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 198, 73-95
- Stolberg, A. L., & Anker, J. M. (1984). Cognitive and Behavioral Changes in Children Resulting from Parental Divorce and Consequent Environmental Changes. *Journal of Divorce*, 7(2), 23-39.
- Sultan, S., & Kanwal, F. (2013). Moderating Effects of Personality Traits in Relationship Between Religious Practices and Mental Health of University Students. *J Relig Health* 59, 2458–2468.
- Szczęsna, H. (2005). The importance of the father for the development of self-acceptance and the development of youth in the light of their own]. In: Contemporary Polish family-her condition and prospects, 406-418.
- Tillman, K.H. (2007). Family structure pathways and academic disadvantage among adolescents in stepfamilies. *Sociological Inquiry*, 77, 383 – 424
- Turner, R. J., & Turner, J. B. (1999). Social integration and support. In C. C. Aneshensel, S. Carol, & J. C. Phelan (Eds.), *Handbook of the sociology of mental health*. New York: Kluwer/Plenum.

- Upadyaya, K., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2013). Development of school engagement in association with academic success and well-being in varying social contexts. A review of empirical research. *European Psychologist* 18 (2), 136–147.
- Ushie, M. A., Emeka, J. O., Ononga, G. I., Owolabi, E. O. (2012). Influence of Family Structure on Students' Academic Performance in Agege Local Government Area, Lagos State, Nigeria. *European Journal of Educational Studies* 4(2), 177-187
- Uwaifo V. O. (2012). The Effects of Family Structures on the Academic Performance of Nigerian University Students. *Global Journal of human social science*, 121 (5)
- White, L. B. (2004). The Psychological Well-being and Academic Achievement of Children Raised by Single Parents. Unpublished Thesis. University of Wisconsin Stout. Country-, school-, and student-level analyses. *Journal of Family Psychology* 21(3), 510-9.
- Wałęcka-Matyja, Katarzyna. (2014). Adolescent personalities and their self-acceptance within complete families, incomplete families and reconstructed families. *Polish Journal of Applied Psychology*. 12. 10.1515/pjap-2015-0004.
- Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. (1974). *The effects of parental divorce: The adolescent experience*. In E. J. Anthony & C. Koupernik (Eds.), *The child in his family: Children at psychiatric risk*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Wyman, P. A., Cowen, E. L. A., Hightower, D., & Pedro-Carroll, J. L. (1985) Perceived Competence, Self-Esteem, and Anxiety in Latency-Aged Children of Divorce, *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 14(1), 20-26.

APPENDICES

Appendix A:

Students' Consent Form to Participate in the Study

This is a research study designed to investigate how family structure influences student's self-acceptance, interpersonal relationships, social integration and academic performance. The findings

will help to provide better guidelines for; guidance and counselling services, choice of appropriate school activities to enhance psychosocial well-being of students and; teaching learning activities to enhance academic performance.

I would like to request you to complete this research questionnaire and help in this noble task. Remember that all the information you give will be treated with ultimate confidentiality.

Kindly sign in the space provided if you agree to participate in the study.

(.....) I agree to participate in this study.

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in the study.

Yours Respectfully,

KimaruGraceann

Ph. D student, Maasai Mara University

Appendix B:
Students' Questionnaire

Part I: Person Information

Please read the following questions carefully and fill in the blank spaces or put a tick (√) in the box where appropriate.

1. Indicate your gender Male [] Female []

2. How old are you?

A	B	C	D	E
15 years	16 years	17 years	18 years	Others specify

3. I live with Father Mother Both father and mother

4. Place of residence Rural Urban

5. Marital status of parents Single Married Divorced Widowed

6. School type by gender Girls only Boys only Mixed boys & girls

7. School type by residence Boarding Day Mixed day & boarding

8. What is your Index number? _____ (last 3 digits only)

Part II: Student's Interpersonal Relationships Scale

The following set of statements deals with how you might feel about your relationship with other people. Please tick {√} **only one** of the responses that best describes the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Please remember that there are neither right nor wrong answers.

1=*Strongly Disagree*; 2= *Moderately Disagree*; 3=*Slightly Disagree*; 4= *Slightly Agree*;
 5= *Moderately Agree*; 6= *Strongly Agree*

Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
Most people see me as loving and affectionate.						
Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me						
I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns						
I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends						
It is important to me to be a good listener when close friends talk to me about their problems						
I don't have many people who want to listen when I need to talk						
I feel like I get a lot out of my friendship						
People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others						
I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others						
I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.						
I feel good about the relationships I hold with other people.						
I like being in the company of my classmates						
I don't ask for assistance from my teachers when I have a problem						
I hardly make friends						

Part III: Student’s Self-acceptance Scale.

The statements below relate to you feel about yourself and your life. Supplied also are six options corresponding to these statements. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with of the following 10 statements by ticking {√} only one answer for each statement.

1=*Strongly Disagree*; 2= *Moderately Disagree*; 3=*Slightly Disagree*; 4= *Slightly Agree*; 5= *Moderately Agree*; 6= *Strongly Agree*

Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.						
In general, I feel confident and positive about myself						
I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.						
I like most aspects of my personality						
In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.						
My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves.						
When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am.						
I can accept my shortcomings						
Other students are better than me in all aspects						
I Understand myself well						
Most people I know like me the way I wish						

Part IV: Student’s Social Integration Scale.

Below are statements that relate to how you feel belonging to your school community. Please indicate by putting a tick {√} the response that shows the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements.

1=*Strongly Disagree*; 2= *Disagree*; 3= *Disagree slightly*; 4= *Agree Slightly*; 5= *Agree*;
 6= *Strongly Agree*

Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
You don't feel you belong to anything you would call a community in your school						
You feel like you are an important part of your school						
If you had something to say, you believe students in your school would listen to you						
You feel close to other students in your school						
You see your school as source of comfort						
If you had something to say, you don't think your schoolmates would take you seriously						
You believe other students in your school value you as a person						
I do my homework alone						
I am never comfortable while in school						
I like sharing with my friends whenever I am in need						
My schoolmates never appreciate my ideas and views						

Part V: Student's Schooling Behavior

The questions below relate to your schooling related activities. Please answer the questions by choosing the appropriate responses from the given choices or by supplying the relevant responses in blank spaces provided where necessary.

1. Is your school fees paid on time? Yes No

2. Are you given extra school materials and encouragement by your parent?

Yes No

3. How often do your parents assist you on school assignments?

Always Rarely Not all

4. How often do your parents attend school related activities such as visiting, meetings, academic consultations? Always Most of the times Rarely Not at all

5. Do you participate in any club/movement in school? Yes No

Thank You for Your Cooperation

Appendix C:

Research Permission from Maasai Mara University Post- Graduate Studies



MAASAI MARA UNIVERSITY
(OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR, POSTGRADUATE STUDIES)

TEL. No.0722346 419
Email: graduatestudies@mmarau.ac.ke

P. O. Box 861-20500
NAROK, KENYA

REF: MMU/AA0328/45/2016/VOL1 (19)

DATE: 21st June, 2017

Council Secretary,
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH PERMIT: REG. NO. DE04/4009/12 – GRACEANN WANJIRU KIMARU

I wish to recommend the above candidate for a permit to enable her collect data for her research. She defended her proposal at the School of Education successfully and has made the necessary corrections. The title is *“Influence of Family Structure on Academic Performance and Selected Psychosocial Factors among Public Secondary School Students in Kiambu County, Kenya.”*

She therefore qualifies for a permit to conduct research. Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Tanui'.

Prof. Edward K. Tanui
Ag. DIRECTOR POSTGRADUATE STUDIES



Appendix D:

Research Authorization from Kiambu County Director of Education



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
State Department of Education

Telephone: Kiambu (office) 020-2044686
FAX NO. 020-2090948
Email: directoreducationkiambu@yahoo.com

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KIAMBU COUNTY
P. O. Box 2300
KIAMBU

When replying please quote

REF: KBU/CDE/HR/4/VOL.III/ 1(14)

12TH JULY, 2017

GRACEANN WANJIRU KIMARU
MAASAI MARA UNIVERSITY
P.O BOX 861-20500
NAROK

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Reference is made to the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation letter Ref. No NACOSTI/P/17/25815/17985 and dated 7th July, 2017.

The above named has been authorized to carry out research on "*Influence of family structure on academic performance and selected psychosocial factors among public secondary school students in Kiambu County, Kenya*" for a period ending 6th July, 2018.

Please accord her the necessary assistance.

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KIAMBU COUNTY
P. O. Box 2300-00900
KIAMBU

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KIAMBU COUNTY
P. O. Box 2300-00900
KIAMBU

LEAH ROIKO
FOR: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KIAMBU

Appendix E :
Research Authorization from National Council For Science, Technology, and
Innovation (Nacosti)



**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349,3310571,2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245,318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

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

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/17/25815/17985**

Date: **7th July, 2017**

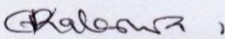
Graceann Wanjiru Kimaru
Maasai Mara University
P.O. Box 861-20500
NAROK.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“Influence of family structure on academic performance and selected psychosocial factors among public secondary school students in Kiambu County, Kenya,”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Kiambu County** for the period ending **6th July, 2018.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Kiambu County** before embarking on the research project.

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


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

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Kiambu County.

The County Director of Education
Kiambu County.

Appendix F:
NACOSTI Research Permit

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: **Permit No : NACOSTI/P/17/25815/17985**
MS. GRACEANN WANJIRU KIMARU **Date Of Issue : 7th July,2017**
of MAASAI MARA UNIVERSITY, **Fee Received :Ksh 2000**
12306-400 NAIROBI,has been permitted
to conduct research in Kiambu County
on the topic: INFLUENCE OF FAMILY
STRUCTURE ON ACADEMIC
PERFORMANCE AND SELECTED
PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS AMONG
PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS
IN KIAMBU COUNTY, KENYA.

for the period ending:
6th July,2018


.....
Applicant's
Signature



.....
Director General
National Commission for Science,
Technology & Innovation

Appendix G:

A map of Kiambu County

