PUPILS' PERCEPTION OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS MOTIVATIONAL AND MODELLING STRATEGIES ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AMONGST PRIMARY SCHOOL ADOLESCENT GIRLS IN BARINGO COUNTY, KENYA

By

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DECLARATIONS

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the prior permission of the author and/or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Rose and our dear children Mercy, Symon, Vincent, Maureen and Bruce.

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ABSTRACT

Parents and teachers can be seen to play a key role in children's school attendance. This may be especially more pronounced in areas of hardship such as Baringo County, where treatment of children is differential along the gender divide. The purpose of this study was to establish pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modelling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County. The objectives were: To find out the influence of motivational strategies adopted by parents and teachers on school attendance; to establish the effect of teachers and parents modeling strategies on school attendance; to determine the difference in teacher motivational and modeling strategies based on teacher characteristics. The study adopted a survey research design using mixed methods approach and guided by Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory and Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Theory of Motivation. The study was based on the transformative paradigm. There were 656 primary schools in Baringo County with 140,011 pupils; 67,671 girls and 72,340 boys. The study targeted head teachers, class teachers and standard seven girls in public primary schools in the county. Multi-stage sampling was used to select 66 schools from the six sub-counties. All the head-teachers and class teachers from the selected schools participated in this study. Simple random sampling was used to select 30%(259) of the class seven pupils in each of the selected schools. Data was collected using questionnaire, interview schedule and document analysis Guide. Data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques which include frequencies, percentages and means. The hypotheses were tested using Chi-square at significance level of 0.05. The analysis of the qualitative data was through aggregating the words or images into categories of information. Data was presented using frequency tables and graphs. The motivational strategies were identified as provision of basic needs, creating a gender friendly learning atmosphere and allowing girls to participate in co-curricular activities. The modeling strategies included appreciation of all pupils despite individual and cultural differences, providing constructive feedback and encouraging them to think positively. The findings indicated a statistically significant relationship between parents' motivational strategies (χ^2 =274.90, df=8 and p = 0.000); teachers' motivational strategies (χ^2 =16.21, df=4 and p = 0.01); teachers' modeling strategies (χ^2 = 161.571, df =8 and p = 0.000); parents' modeling strategies (χ^2 = 383.668, df=8 and sig = 0.000) and girls' school attendance. The study recommended that parents should be encouraged to visit schools of their daughters frequently and create a good rapport with the teachers. The findings can be used by parents, teachers and policy makers to strategize on how to improve attendance of girls in primary schools in line with the need for sustainable development.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMNS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Land
DGHI	Duke Global Health Institute
EFA	Education For All
FAWE	Federation of African Women Educationists
FPE	Free Primary Education
GCN	Girl Child Network
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MSC-GH	Master of Science in Global Health
NELS	National Educational Longitudinal Survey
OVC	Orphaned and Vulnerable Children
PMS	Pre-menstrual Syndrome
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Education Fund
U.S.	United States
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Overview

Under this chapter the following were discussed: the background of the study, statement of the problem; objectives and research questions, research hypotheses, significance of the study, justification of the study, assumptions of the study, scope of the study ,limitations ,theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definitions of terms.

1.2 Background to the Study

Basic education is a fundamental right that all school going age children are entitled to regardless of their sex. According to Adebola, Anyachebelu and Madu (2012), the higher the level of girls' education status, the more developed a nation is. This is why the Kenyan government has been investing heavily in the education sector with the aim of achieving gender equity in basic education (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Since the World Declaration of Education for All (EFA) in 1990, many developing countries, Kenya included have been making strides to realize the universalization of primary education as well as to minimize illiteracy rates among their populations. Particularly, greater efforts have been made by governments worldwide to improve the education of women (Kipkulei, Chepchieng & Boit, 2012). Despite the government's concerted effort in introduction of Free Primary Education and Free Secondary Education, wastage among students has not stopped. Any system of education experiencing high dropout and repetition rates is wasteful because those students who drop out have not gained a lot and

furthermore they have consumed resources that would have been used by other students who are not in school because of them. The Koech Report (1999) asserts that the greatest challenge facing Kenya is that of ensuring access by eliminating all existing disparities, with particular reference to the education of girls, women and children in disadvantaged regions like arid and semi-arid lands (ASALS).

According to World Bank report (1995) cited by Adetunde and Akampae (2008) two-thirds of those who cannot read and write are women and that 60% of children not in school are girls. In Africa, girls' primary school enrolment accounts for only 57% of the school-age population as compared with 75% to boys (Adetunde & Akampae, 2008). Despite the critical role female education plays in the society, Kenya still witnesses gender disparity in all levels of education (Ministry of Education, 2015). Globally, 600 million adolescent girls struggle with widespread poverty, limited access to education and health services, and persistent discrimination and violence. Adolescent girls are among the most economically vulnerable groups, significantly more so than adult women or adolescent boys (Mulati, 1989). Adolescent girls typically lack access to financial capital and have more limited opportunities to gain the education, knowledge, and skills that can lead to economic advancement. Adolescent girls often lack social support, and community social norms create barriers to their economic advancement. This is true as asserted by the Koech Report (1999) that recognizes the government's effort to improve girls education by putting in place a policy that allows girls who dropout due to pregnancy to continue with their education later. It observes that the dropout rate for girls is higher than for boys in most areas in the country.

Only boys were allowed to go to school when formal education was introduced in Kenya. Girls were not allowed to go to school until 1917 when the first three (3) girls were admitted in the first government Indian school. This disparity for female participation continued such that by 1988 females in all secondary schools in Kenya were 30,895 as compared to males who were 216,047. This pointed to differential access to education by gender (Mulati, 1989).

Fatuma and Sifuna (2006) state that 40 % of the girls who entered Form One in 1973 were lost from the system by the time their class entered form four in 1976 compared to 26 % of the boys. Namunya, Bomet and Kiprop (2014) found out that the dropout of pupils in primary school in Katilu division of Turkana County which borders Baringo County rose from 5.0% in 2006 to 5.5 % in 2008. It is important to note that Baringo County is in arid and semi-arid land just like Katilu. This clearly shows that the number of girls that enter and remain in the education system is lower compared to that of the boys.

The development of any country needs the full participation of men and women. This is why the Kenya national development plan 2002- 2008, identifies women's roles, as being crucial by asserting that Kenya's pace of development can best be accelerated and sustained if the full creative and productive potential of both women and men are mobilized. The major challenge facing Kenya is how to reduce gender inequality and enhance women participation in economic activities (Republic of Kenya, 2003). A study by Muganda (1997) on the effects of dropping out of secondary school students in

Shinyalu- Kakamega District- Kenya, showed that though there was increased expenditure on education many children especially girls were still out of school. It argues that girls have limited access to school and that even those who join school do not complete basic education. In this study lack of school fees was identified as a major cause of girl's dropout at secondary. While 10 % of girls dropped out of school due to pregnancy, 90 % of those who dropped out were victims of inability to pay fees.

Chronic absenteeism and habitual truancy are important predictors of school performance, including high school graduation. Average daily attendance rates often mask the number of students who are chronically absent- which equate to missing ten percent of the school year or approximately 18 school days for any reason. A research by the Center for Evaluation and Education Policy at Indiana University in the United States of America indicates that students in Indiana's public school corporations who are chronically absent from school perform at lower levels on Indiana's student learning assessments. Further, students who are routinely absent are also more likely to drop out of high school prior to earning their high school diploma (Spradlin, Stephanie, Chen, Shi, Chen, Han, & Cierniak, 2012; Spradlin, Shi, Ciernack, Chen, & Han, 2012).

While students miss school for a variety of reasons, Balfanz and Byrnes (2012) suggest that the reasons for student absenteeism can be grouped into three categories. First, students miss school because they cannot attend school due to illness, family responsibilities, housing instability, the need to work, or involvement with the juvenile justice system. Second, students are absent because they will not attend school to avoid bullying, unsafe conditions, harassment, or embarrassment. These students avoid school

or refuse to attend to school because of the way they perceive the school environment. Finally, students are absent because they simply do not attend school. These students choose not to attend school "because they, or their parents, do not see the value in being there, they have something else they would rather do, or nothing stops them from skipping school. They lack motivation from their parents.

The development of positive relationships between the teacher and students and between the students themselves will contribute to educational success (Clark, 2003). Utay and Utay (2005) opine that student's adjustment to school may be affected by the teacher's supportive behaviors. Teachers need to provide an atmosphere for the students which encourage success for their efforts and achievements (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). Scholars have also suggested that it may be effective to engage parents as part of the team working in support of improved student attendance (Sheverbush, Smith, & DeGruson, 2000). Sheverbush *et al.,(*2000) specifically note the importance of emphasizing solutions that come from families as opposed to schools.

Existing research suggests that the effect of missing school may include course failure, disengagement from school, lower test scores, persistent patterns of chronic absenteeism or truancy in subsequent grades, as well as the increased risk of dropping out (Chang & Romero, 2008; Romero & Lee, 2007; Balfanz & Byrnes, 2012). Additionally, students who are chronically absent or truant are more likely to develop serious mental health issues, engage in drug and alcohol use, and become violent or participate in criminal behaviors (Kearney, 2008). Parents and teachers therefore can be seen to play a key role in children's school attendance. This may be especially more pronounced in areas of

hardship such as Baringo County, where treatment of children is differential along the gender divide. There was therefore need to carry out a study in order to establish the strategies used by parents and teachers to encourage adolescent girls to attend school.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Statistics from Baringo County Education office (2014) show that there are 656 primary schools with 140,011 pupils out of which 67,671 are girls and 72,340 are boys. In 2013, there were 71,989 boys and 67,373 girls and in 2012, there were 71,773 boys and 67,182 girls in primary schools in Baringo County. A study by Serem (2014) showed that the dropout rate for boys in rural primary schools in Baringo County was 34.12% while for the girls was 37.31%. In the urban primary schools, the dropout rate for boys was 29.93% while for girls was 32.01%.

Further, repetition rates for boys and girls in rural areas were 34.12% and 37.31% respectively. The repetition rate in the urban was 29.93% for boys and 32.01% for girls. This means that the enrolment of boys is higher than that of girls. The differential enrolment points to a problem with girl's education in the County that needs to be solved. This might have been due to various reasons. According to Clark (2003), the development of positive relationship between teachers and students and between the students themselves will contribute to education success. Utay and Utay (2005) opine that student's adjustment to school may be affected by the teacher supportive behaviors.

Teachers need to provide an atmosphere for the students which encourage success for their efforts and achievements (Kozminsky and Kozminsky, 2003). Scholars have also

suggested that it may be effective to engage parents as part of the team working in support of improved student attendance (Sheverbush, Smith and DeGruson, 2000). A study done by Kipkulei, Chepchieng, Chepchieng and Boit (2012) established that there is low girl participation in primary schools in Baringo County. It's against this background that the study sought to investigate pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance among primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in order to understand how the behavior of teachers and parents influence education of girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study were:

(i) To find out the influence of motivational strategies adopted by parents on school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

(ii) To determine the impact of motivational strategies adopted by teachers on school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

(iii) To assess the effect of teacher modeling strategies on school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

(iv) To establish the extent to which parents' modeling strategies influence school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

(v) To determine the difference in teacher motivational strategies based on teacher characteristics.

(vi) To establish the difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher characteristics.

1.6 Research Questions

The major question was: How do parental- and teacher- motivational and modeling strategies influence adolescent girls' school attendance in Baringo County?

The subsidiary research questions were:

(i) What is the influence of motivational strategies adopted by parents on school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County?

(ii) What is the impact of motivational strategies adopted by teachers on school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County?

(iii) In which way do teacher modeling strategies affect school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County?

(iv) To what extent do parental modeling strategies influence school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County?

(v) How do teacher motivational strategies differ in relation to teacher characteristics?

(vi) What is the difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher characteristics?

1.7 Research Hypotheses

This study sought to test the following hypotheses:

HO_1: Parents' motivational strategies have no statistically significant influence on adolescent girls' school attendance in primary Schools in Baringo County.

HO_2: Teachers' motivational strategies have no statistically significant influence on adolescent girls' school attendance in primary Schools in Baringo County.

HO_3: Teachers' modeling strategies have no statistically significant influence on adolescent girls' school attendance in Primary schools in Baringo County.

HO_4: Parents' modeling strategies have no statistically significant influence on adolescent girls' school attendance in Primary schools in Baringo County.

HO_5: There is no statistically significant difference in teacher motivational strategies based on teacher characteristics.

HO_6: There is no statistically significant difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher characteristics.

HO_7: There is no statistically significant influence of motivational strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on adolescent girls' age.

HO_8: There is no statistically significant influence of modeling strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on adolescent girls' age.

1.8 Significance of the study

The role of women in economic development is very crucial and yet they lag behind in access and participation in education. The findings of this study may therefore help highlight motivational behavior that may improve girl child involvement in education. Also the findings of this study may create awareness among parents, teachers, policy makers and the ministry of education on the motivational and modeling strategies that encourage adolescent girls to attend school. The findings may be useful in understanding how the behavior of teachers and parents influence education of adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo county. It is also believed that the data generated may constitute part of the knowledge pool from which future research can borrow and form a basis for further related research.

1.9 Justification of the Study

Statistics from Baringo County Education office (2014) show that more boys than girls are in school (72,340 against 67,671). The dropout and the repetition rate of the adolescent girls stands at 37. 13% compared to adolescent boys which stands at 34.12% (Serem, 2014). Three quarters of the county is classified as ASAL hence providing an environment with challenges such as insecurity, hunger and rugged terrain that might affect the girls' school attendance. It therefore means that other factors come into play to contend with the situation. Based on this assumption, the study sought to establish the role that motivational and modeling strategies employed by the teachers and parents influence school attendance.

1.10 Assumptions of the study

The study was based on the following assumptions: all respondents would be co-operative in providing the required information; that the respondents would read and understand the questionnaire; that the relevant and updated records would be obtained from schools and County education office; that the findings would be found useful by Ministry of education, parents, teachers and the entire stakeholders fraternity; and that the findings would improve the school attendance of the adolescent girls.

1.11 Scope a of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies influencing school attendance amongst adolescent girls in Baringo County. The study was conducted in public primary schools in Baringo County, Kenya (See Appendix VII). The required information was obtained from standard seven girls, their class teachers and head teachers. The information collected was both quantitative and qualitative in nature. The independent variables were parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies (This included attending school meetings, rewarding children, setting learner goals, understanding and being supportive).The dependent variable was school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls. Data was obtained concerning what parents and teachers did to encourage adolescent girls to attend school. Information on what parents did was basically the perception of the girls. The items focused on motivational and modeling strategies. The study was conducted between September and November, 2015.

1.12 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited by the following factors: The harsh climatic conditions and accessibility to schools was a challenge. To overcome this, the researcher used motorbikes in areas where there were motorable roads. In areas where there were no roads the researcher trekked to access the sampled schools. Due to the high temperatures during the afternoon hours, the researcher visited the sampled schools in the morning. There was security risk accessing some of the sampled schools especially in East Pokot and Marigat Sub-Counties. To overcome this, the researcher sought for assistance from the Sub-County Commissioners who were able to accord the researcher with the necessary security. Also the researcher used research assistants who were trained for this research from their relevant areas.

1.13 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by Albert Bandura's(1997) Social Learning Theory and Porter and Lawler's expectancy theory of motivation.

1.13.1 Social Learning Theory

According to Albert Bandura's(1997) Social Learning Theory, models influence learning primarily through their informative function. Learning through observation is not a simple matter of imitation. It is an active judgmental and constructive process. Through exposure, observers acquire symbolic representations of different ways of doing things and these ideas serve as guides for their own behavior. Observational learning is governed by four interrelated processes: Attentional processes, retention processes, motor reproduction processes, and motivational processes (Bandura, 1997).

A number of variables influence attentional processes. This is where an observer (student) pays attention to a model (Teacher or Parent). Some of these have to do with the characteristics of the model, others with the nature of the activity, and still others with the subject. Some models are more noticeable than others and thus more readily copied. Charismatic models command considerable attention; whereas person's low interpersonal attractiveness tends to be ignored. Bandura points out that certain associations determine the types of activities individuals will be exposed to. The people with whom one regularly associates limit and structure the kinds of behaviors that one will observe. This is why the current study sought to establish the extent in which parents and teachers modeling enhances school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The parental modeling strategies identified include: Having a secure relationship with their daughters, emphasizing solutions that come from families as opposed to school, referring chronically absent girls to a school counselor, establishing a contact person at school for parents to work with and developing a partnership between family, school and community. Teachers modeling strategies included: being confidants of pupils, having a secure relationship with pupils, being patient and sensitive to interest and feelings of pupils and creating a comfort corner for pupils and teachers to share feelings, thoughts and ideas.

A second system involved in observational learning is the retention process. This is the situation where the observer (student) retains what he or she has learned from the model (Teacher or Parent) and encodes in the long-term memory. When an individual observes someone's behavior without immediately performing the response, it should be

represented in some way in order to use it as a guide for action on later occasions. The third mechanism of modeling involves motor production process. This is where the observer (student) reproduces in form of action what he or she has learned from the model (Teacher or Parent). In order to imitate a model, an individual has to convert the symbolic representation of the behavior into the appropriate actions. The response has to be carried out in space and time in the same way that the original behavior was.

The skills that pupils learn through observational learning are perfected slowly through a process of trial and error. Pupils follow the behavior of a model and then seek to improve their approximations through adjustment and feedback. The final system involved in observational learning is made up of motivational processes. This refers to a situation where the observer (Student) is motivated. For modeling to be effective the student must be motivated. Social learning theory distinguishes between acquisition, what a person has learned and can do, and performance, what a person actually does. People do not enact everything that they learn. Pupils are more likely to engage in a modeled behavior if it leads to consequences that they value and less likely to engage in it if the results are punitive. This requires parents and teachers to engage in activities that can motivate the learners especially the girl-child to attend school.

Proper motivation not only brings about the actual performance of the behavior but it also influences the other processes involved in observational learning. When pupils are not motivated to learn something, they do not pay attention and so there is little they select to retain. Moreover, pupils are not willing to practice hard or to engage in the kind of trial- and -error activities necessary for the successful reproduction of a task. Thus, motivation

emerges as a primary component in learning through observation. This concept was used in this study to determine the motivational strategies adopted by both parents and teachers to promote school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County.

Parent motivational strategies included: attending parent-teacher conferences, involvement in academic affairs of their daughters, supervising their daughters when doing assignments and rewarding them materially or by praise. Teachers motivational strategies included: creating realistic learner beliefs, making learning stimulating, setting learner goals and enhancing language related values. The issue therefore is on what among the listed or any other that parents and teachers practice in Baringo County.

Social learning theory emphasizes on extrinsic reinforcement which is external. Extrinsic reinforcement is clearly effective in creating behavioural change and has an important role to play in early development. Encouragements in this study are expected to come from the teachers and parents in terms of rewards and other actions of encouragement. This might vary from one school to another or from one person to another. This was used to find out the motivational strategies employed by parents and teachers to influence enrolment and continued school attendance.

1.13.2 Porter and Lawler's Expectancy theory of Motivation

This study was also guided by Porter and Lawler's Expectancy theory of Motivation. Lyman Porter and Edward Lawler came up with a comprehensive theory of motivation, combining various aspects and using two additional variables in their model. Though built in large part on Vroom's expectancy model, Porter and Lawler's model is a more complete model of motivation. This model has been practically applied also in their study

of managers. This is a multi variate model which explains the relationship that exists between job attitudes and job performance. In the case of school attendance the main aim is to increase school attendance of adolescent girls. The people to motivate these adolescent girls to attend school are teachers and parents. According to this model, individual behaviour is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and in the environment. Individuals are assumed to be rational human beings who make conscious decisions about their behaviour in the organizations like the school setting. Individuals have different needs, desires and goals. On the basis of their expectations, individuals decide between alternate behaviours and such decided behaviour will lead to a desired outcome like school attendance of adolescent girls.

According to Porter and Lawler Model of Motivation, before people put forth any effort, they will also try to assess the probability of a certain level of effort leading to a desired level of performance and the possibility of that performance leading to certain kinds of rewards. There are two types of rewards according to Porter and Lawler namely extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards are the external rewards given by others in the organization in the form of money, recognition or praise. Intrinsic rewards are internal feelings of job self-esteem and sense of competence that individuals feel when they do a good job. It reflects the desire to do something because it is enjoyable. In the case of school attendance, intrinsic motivation refers to the internal urge that makes a girl to go to school without any external force. This is the situation where a girl enjoys attending school. In the case of school attendance also, extrinsic rewards are those rewards given by teachers and parents to motivate girls so as to attend school .These include provision of basic needs which include food, smart uniform, sanitary towels, creating a gender

friendly learning environment and praise. Based on the valence of the reward and the effort reward probability, people can decide to put in certain level of work effort. Effort leads to performance like increased school attendance of adolescent girls. The expected level of performance will depend upon the amount of effort, the abilities and traits of the individual and his role perceptions. The way parents and teachers motivate adolescent girls will determine their increase in school attendance.

Porter and Lawler model is a departure from the traditional analysis of satisfaction and performance relationship. In practice, we find that motivation is not a simple cause and effect relationship rather it is a complex phenomenon. Porter and Lawler model has definitely made a significant contribution to the better understanding of motivation. In relation to the current study, parents and teachers' motivational strategies were thought to have a bearing on the school attendance of the primary school adolescent girls. This theory was applicable in this study as the study was concerned with establishing the motivational strategies employed by parents and teachers to enhance the school attendance of adolescent girls in primary schools in the county.

1.14 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study can be referred to as a motivational and modelling strategy and attendance model {MMSAM}. The model is developed based on social learning theory and Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Theory of Motivation. The MMSAM is conceptualized to consist of the following domains: motivational strategies, modelling strategies, individual characteristics and school attendance. The domains are as follows:

Motivational Strategies

These are the strategies in which parents and teachers use in order to increase the school attendance of the girl child. The parental motivational strategies include attending of school meetings, supervising children when doing assignments and rewarding the children whenever they do well in school. Teachers' motivational strategies include taking good care of pupils, rewarding them in school and setting learning goals.

Modelling strategies

Teachers modelling strategies include being confidants of their pupils and giving opportunities to pupils to share and listen. Parents modelling strategies include being supportive and sharing responsibilities.

Individual Characteristics

These are mediating variables and in this model they are conceptualized to be personality traits of the participants. In this study, pupils and teachers' characteristics were focused. The teachers' characteristics were age, sex, academic qualification and teaching experience. The girls' individual characteristic considered in this study was age.

School Attendance

This is the dependent variable which is the ability of the pupils to go to school, progress in school and receive education. The main independent variable is parental and teacher motivational and modelling strategies and the dependent variable is school attendance. The pupils' and teachers' characteristics can influence the school attendance of the adolescent girls. The study established a relationship between parental and teacher motivational and modelling strategies and school attendance. School attendance of the

girl child is therefore a function of parents and teachers' motivational and modelling strategies and individual characteristics of the girls and teachers.

Therefore, the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables can be presented using the following expressions:

SA = f{pms, tms, pmds, tmds, ic, E}

Where:

SA= school attendance {DV}, f=function of, pms=parental motivational strategy, tms=teacher motivational strategy, pmds=parental modelling strategy, tmds=teachers modelling strategy, ic=individual characteristics {mv}, E is some error.

School attendance is a function of parental motivational strategy, teacher motivational strategy, parental modelling strategy, teacher modelling strategy and individual characteristics. This is illustrated in figure 1.1. This model is important in that it shows the important levels that are needed so as to increase school attendance of pupils in schools.

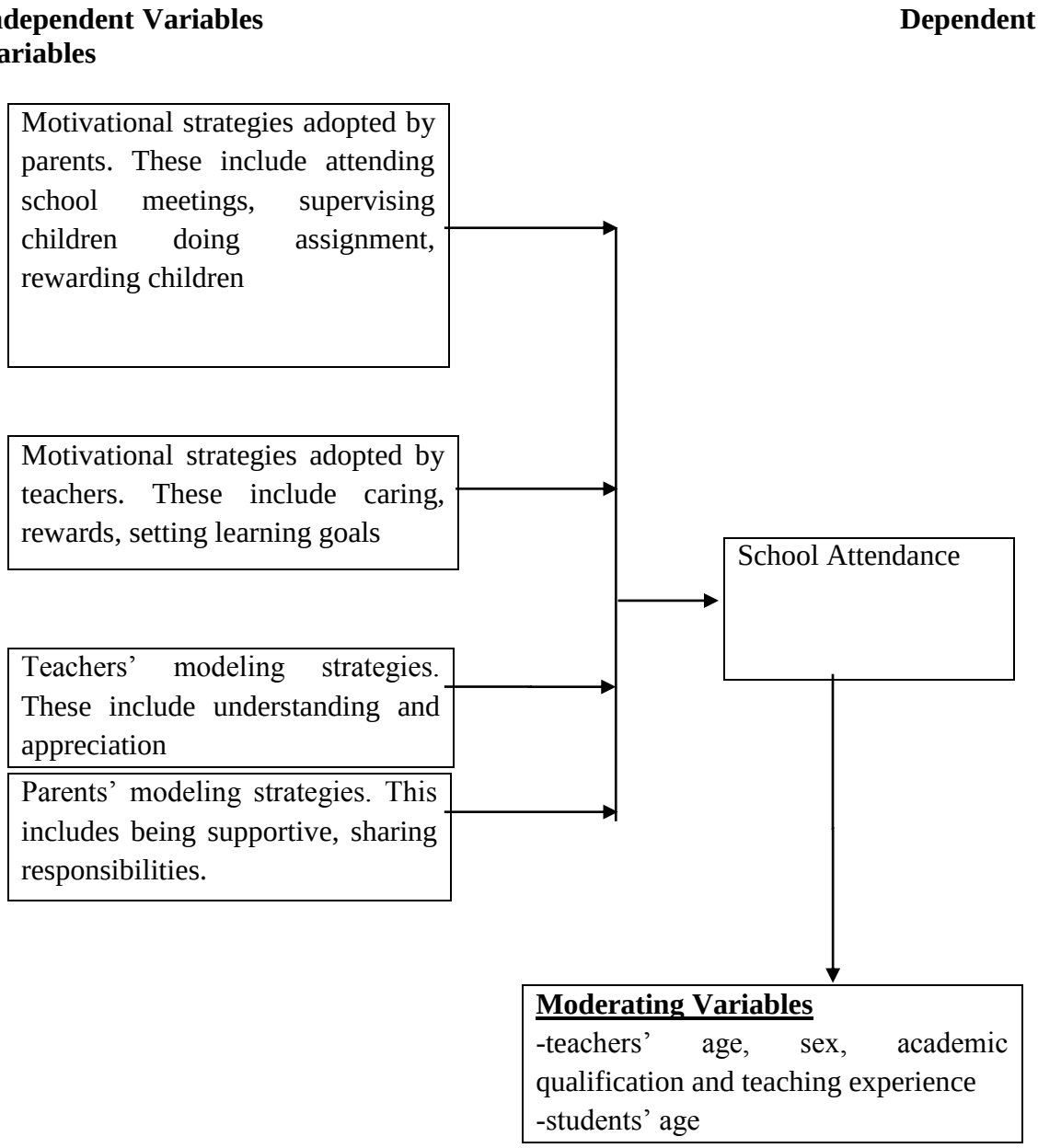

Figure 1.1 Motivational and Modelling Strategies and Attendance Model {MMSAM}

Source: Author {2016}

1.15 Operational Definitions of Terms

This section presents the definition of terms as used in this study.

Adolescence: Adolescence is the time period between the beginning of puberty and adulthood or the state that someone is in, between puberty and adulthood (i.e. between12-15 Years).In this study standard seven girls were considered as adolescents.

Modelling strategies: refers to deliberate conduct or behavior of parents and teachers that the pupils can emulate to enhance their continued school attendance. In this study they included appreciation of all pupils, despite individual and cultural differences, providing constructive feedback, offering support, being confidants and having more secure relationship with them.

Motivational strategies: It is the process whereby parents and teachers initiate, guide and maintain goal-oriented behavior of their children in order to attend school. Rewarding pupils, attending school activities, Provision of basic needs which include food, smart uniform, sanitary towels and creating a gender friendly learning environment were considered as motivational strategies in this study.

Perception: It is a conscious understanding of something. In this study perception refers to how pupils interpret parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies

School attendance: Ability of the students to go to school, progress in school and receive education.

Strategies: ways through which the parents and teachers engage in motivating and modeling adolescent girls so as to enhance school attendance.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the review of literature related to the study. The literature reviewed included girl child Education, the concept of school attendance, adolescence and school attendance, influence of motivational strategies adopted by parents on school attendance, influence of motivational strategies adopted by teachers on school attendance, influence of teachers' modeling strategies on school attendance and influence of parents' modeling strategies on school attendance. This helped the researcher to acknowledge what had been done and identify the gaps that the study could fill. The chapter ends with a summary of the literature.

2.1 Girl-child Education

Education is the knowledge, skill and understanding that one gets from attending school. Educating children is one of the main forms of human capital formation and is an important instrument for sustainable development and poverty reduction. Education is generally regarded as a powerful means for reducing poverty and achieving economic growth. It empowers people, improves individuals' earning potential, promotes a healthy population and builds a competitive economy (Hanushek & Wossmann, 2007; UNESCO, 2007; World Bank, 2006). Available evidence shows that there are several channels through which such effects may arise. For instance education raises labor productivity (Welch, 1970), increases technological innovation and adaptation (Rodriguez &Wilson,

2000), contributes to better health (World Bank, 1993) and gives greater ability to deal with shocks (World Bank, 2001).

UNICEF has developed a framework for rights-based, child friendly Educational system schools that are characterized as "inclusive, healthy and protective for all children, effective with children, and involved with families and communities-and children"(Shaffer,1999).Within this framework: the school is a significant and personal environment that ensures physical safety, child friendly, emotionally secure and psychologically enabling. For a school to call itself child friendly it has to be directly linked to support, participation and collaboration from parents. Its aim is to develop learning environments in which the child is motivated to learn; staff members are friendly and attend to children. If all schools can be friendly then girls' school attendance and motivation to learn would go up.

In 2003, the UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan stated that 'there is no tool for development more effective than the education of girls. No other policy is as likely to raise economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, improve nutrition and promote health' (UNICEF, 2008). Other key benefits associated with girls' education include protection against early pregnancy and other sexual/reproductive harms including HIV/AIDS (Mason et al., 2013). Girls in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) bear a disproportionately high burden of such harms (Mason et al., 2013) and although girls' school enrolment ratios in the region have increased in recent years (World Bank, 2011), large inequality gaps in primary education remain (UN, 2012). Gender gaps are even more pronounced in secondary education (Mensch and Lloyd, 1998; Mutunga and

Stewart, 2003; Muito, 2004; Kirk and Sommer, 2006; Sommer, 2010; Malusu and Zani, 2014).

Education of girls is essential in the drive by nations to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. Although the education policy of most African countries does not discriminate against girls and women, there is a serious gender disparity in enrolment and transition from one level to the next, especially in rural Africa (UNICEF, 2006). Many girls hardly get adequate education that would make them overcome the social, cultural and health challenges. Hardly does the education system help them realize their full potential and prepare them on the path of being active global citizens. How then should Africa tackle these challenges of girl child education?

Like in many parts of Africa, the challenges to girl-child in Kenya are varied. While some might lead to drop out; others affect the quality of learning, leaving most girls with education that is hardly useful in a very fast paced and complex society. The vital importance is building the capacity of female teachers and education officers with the skills and aptitude to make them comfortable tackling the real challenges to the education of girls. Teachers interact with many students on daily basis and spend a total of nine months (9) a year with the pupils, thus the need to be adequately endowed with information (UNICEF, 2006).

Since independence, the government of Kenya has addressed challenges facing the education sector through commissions, committees and taskforces. The Ominde report on Kenyan Education Commission (Republic of Kenya, 1964), the Gachathi report of the

National Committee on Education Objectives and Policies (Republic of Kenya, 1976), the Mackay Report of the Presidential Working Party on the Second University in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1981), the Kamunge Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education Manpower and Training for the next Decade and Beyond (Republic of Kenya, 1988) and the Commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya (The Koech report, 1999), all sought to reform the education system inherited from the colonial government and make it more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya. Nevertheless, there are still those with no access, those who are excluded after first entry, those at risk of dropping out, and a majority excluded from any form of schooling altogether. Some of the victims of dropping out of school are young girls.

Stromquist (2001) argues that girls and women continue to face discrimination in the educational systems of their respective countries and studies focusing on access have failed to document these statistics. In this regard, more studies based on qualitative research methods are urgently needed. She further reports that education for girls still has tensions as access, completion and quality goals remain unfulfilled. In as much as compensatory policies make sense, there is a danger in restricting them to poor girls as the group most in need. There seems to have been a shift in policy emphasis around the world away from seeing teenage pregnancy as a problem, to seeing it as a consequence of inequality. However, there is still a lack of research into the experiences of the young mothers (Pillow, 2006).

There are numerous challenges and barriers preventing many girls from accessing education worldwide. This has blocked them from having opportunities to better their

lives and hence denied them the enjoyment of individual freedoms. This form of marginalization could be viewed as subjecting the girls to social injustices hence making them unable to enjoy several of their human rights. It is for these reasons that provision of education is regarded as emancipation from those barriers that are confining the girls into marginalised and excluded groups. It only by understanding the impact of these barriers that significant and meaningful increase in the numbers of girls accessing education can be achieved. This is why there is need for gender equity. It is against this background that the study sought to investigate pupils' perception of teachers and parents motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance among primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

Gender equity can be defined as the process of being fair or impartial to women and men and this can only be achieved through having strategies and measures in place that counteract the constraints that have blocked men and women in society from playing on a level ground (Wokocha, 2009). This is an unavoidable matter in Kenyan society since gender equity is among one of the many goals the country seeks to achieve in its quest to achieving middle income status within the next two decades. This has been clearly set out in the country's Vision 2030, the country's economic blueprint whose launch in 2009 has seen the country embark on the document's strategies which include having a new constitution in place, a fete already accomplished presently. The promulgation of the country's new constitution can be viewed as one of the greatest achievements in the country's quest for holistic reforms which has seen the enactment of laws in line with the achievement of gender equity in almost all sectors of the country. The constitution has many gender equity gains that provide the required legal backing to ensure that both

Kenyan women and men share equal enjoyment of resources, opportunities, rewards and social services (Kariuki, 2011). The various initiatives aimed at addressing the country's gender concerns in the new constitution are also asserted in the country's economic growth plan Vision 2030 and the Government of Kenya's policies as well as Presidential directives. However, there are various hindrances that the country still faces in the achievement of gender equity in education development as envisioned in the strategic plan. An example of such barriers is the gender disparities in education to the disadvantage of the girl-child.

There is need to recognize the importance of exploring the link between gender and education particularly girls' education and the overall national development. First, this is critical in order to empower both females and males through education and skills development so as to reduce the social and economic inequalities in society. Secondly, there is need globally, regionally and nationally to adopt specific strategies to ensure equity in opportunities including education (UNESCO, 2009).

Kenya recognizes the role of basic education in ensuring sustainable socio-economic and human resource development, empowerment and good governance. In order to achieve the relevant EFA goals and objectives, Kenya continues to strengthen national and international level partnerships. The achievement of the aims and objectives are aligned to the Constitution and Vision 2030. The Constitution is very comprehensive while vision 2030 aims to make the country an industrialized nation. Commitment to these goals in education is demonstrated by the increased budgetary allocation and various intervention strategies.

Education must of essence focus on the acquisition of knowledge and skills as well as the provision of lifelong learning. Government must create a conducive environment to enable learning to take place. Emphasis will be placed on the provision of a holistic quality education, training and research. Such system of education is based on a philosophy that advances the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains of learners, instilling values such as patriotism, equality of all persons, peace, security, honesty, humility, mutual respect, tolerance, cooperation and democracy. Teacher parent cooperation to enhance learning, emotional intelligence and multiple intelligence are part of that education (UNESCO, 2009).

The distribution of educational opportunity plays a key role in shaping human development prospects. Within countries, governments and people increasingly recognize that unequal opportunities for education are linked to inequalities in income, health and wider life chances. And what is true within countries is true also between countries. Large global disparities in education reinforce the extreme divides between rich and poor nations in income, health and other aspects of human development. The full extent of the gulf in opportunities for education is not widely appreciated. Education is a universal human right. However, enjoyment of that right is heavily conditioned by the lottery of birth and inherited circumstances. Opportunities for education are heavily influenced by where one is born and by other factors over which children have no control, including parental income, gender, and ethnicity (UNESCO, 2009). From a global perspective, being born in a developing country is a strong indicator for reduced opportunity. School attainment, measured in terms of the average number of years or grade reached in

education, is one (admittedly limited) measure of global inequality. While almost all member countries of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have achieved universal school attainment to grade 9, most countries in developing regions are far from this position. Age-specific school attendance pyramids that plot the distribution of age and grades graphically illustrate the contrast in average life-chances for education associated with being born in the OECD countries or in Sub-Saharan Africa. By age7, almost all children in the OECD countries are in primary school, compared with 40% for Sub-Saharan Africa. At age 16, over 80% of the population of the OECD countries is in secondary school while one-quarter of sub-Saharan Africa's population is still in primary school. Four years later, at age 20, around 30% of the OECD population is in post-secondary education. The figure for sub-Saharan Africa is 2%. Stark as they are, these figures tell only part of the story (UNESCO, 2009).

According to the Kenya Economic Survey 2010, school enrollment in both public and private schools increased by 2.3% from 8.6 million in 2008 to 8.8 million in 2009. The gross enrollment rate (GER) rose from 109.8% in 2008 to 110% in the year 2009. Conversely, the net enrollment rate (NER) rose slightly from 92.5% in 2008 to 92.9% in 2009. There has been a consistent improvement of NER from 2005 to 2009. The gross enrollment ratio for boys is quite higher than that of girls, standing at 112.8% while for girls was 112.2% in 2009. Enrollment, retention, completion and progression rates are a major challenge and a concern of the millennium goal on education. The Primary Completion Rate (PCR) improved from 83.2% in 2008 to 97.8% in 2009, indicating reduction of wastage in the education system. Access to secondary education has also been enshrined in policy documents in view of emergent global concepts. This is against

the backdrop of disparaging constructs of social inequality and gender inequities as quite prevalent in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2009).

The enrollment ratios are used as indicators of human development for different levels of schooling especially the primary and secondary enrollment ratios. The net effect of these disparities is maintenance of the vicious cycle of poverty among other myriad negative effects. It is understood that the focus of education is about enhancing individual and societal development. This can only be achieved if governments provide such opportunities to the populace. There is particular acuteness in rural areas as evidenced by global trends (UN, 2008). Schools are often scarce in rural areas where income levels are relatively low due to reliance on peasant economies or unemployment factors. They are almost inaccessible for many families and even when accessible, children may have to travel long distances – sometimes walking as much as 10kilometres – to attend schools (Kristiansena & Pratiknob, 2006; Adele, 2008). The prominent categories of schools are either day or boarding schools, public or private. These are also differentiated along gender lines as single-gender schools or mixed-gender schools. The schools exhibit attendant resources such as qualified teachers, availability of classrooms, and general school infrastructures among others.

Universal free primary education has been at the centre of most governments' policies in the developing world. In the Education bill of (2012) in Kenya, the draft bill proposes that parents and guardians in Kenya who fail to keep their children in school will be jailed. However, in spite of substantial progress made as part of the Education for All campaign, millions of young children in Sub-Saharan Africa are still not in primary

education. Worldwide, primary school net enrolment exceeds 90% in most of the worlds' sub regions except for sub-Saharan Africa, where it was around 70 in 2007 (Glewwe & Miguel 2008; UNESCO, 2009). To improve the current situation in this region, it is of fundamental importance to gain a better understanding of the factors that influence school attendance of children there. Most studies on school enrolment focus on the influence of socio-economic and demographic factors and availability of education facilities (Bainbridge et al. 2003; Song et al. 2006; Toor & Parveen 2004; Huisman & Smits, 2009). Regular attendance is an important factor in school success. Students who are chronic non-attendees receive fewer hours of instruction; they often leave education early and are more likely to become long term unemployed, homeless, caught in the poverty trap, dependent on welfare, and involved in the justice system. High rates of student absenteeism are believed to affect regular attendees as well, because teachers must accommodate non-attendees in the same class. Huisman and Smits (2009) suggest that chronic absenteeism is not a cause of academic failure and departure from formal education, but rather one of many symptoms of alienation from school. Chronic absenteeism, truancy and academic failure may be evidence of a dysfunctional relationship between student and school, suggesting that schools need to be more student-centred and supportive of students with different needs.

This argument is supported by research that highlights significant associations between student background factors, poor attendance, and early school leaving (Altenbaugh, et al. 1995; Bryk & Thum 1989; Fernandez & Velez 1989). Previous research has concentrated on students who are "chronic" or "persistent" non-attenders, examining family, academic and social background factors related to the student. The female teacher is an ideal role

model of a success story whose experiences the girl child will benefit from (UNICEF, 2006). According to UNICEF (2006)there is need to involve female teachers in training and capacity building to develop patterns of support and understanding of the challenges that girl children face both within and outside the school setting. Women teachers are considered particularly valuable and with proper training and motivation, can serve as positive mentors from within the community (UNICEF, 2006).

Drawing on longitudinal data of primary-school age children in Tanzania, Kathleen and Kathleen (2004), in their analysis evaluate the role various dimensions are playing in determining children's attendance. Their results indicate that policies directed towards increasing a child's attendance need to be focused on the demand for schooling within the context of the household. Policies that affect demand for child labour within the household especially those that promote substitutes for child labour, should be considered. Furthermore, programmes aimed at Secondary schools (including improving access) can have an indirect effect on hours of Primary school attendance, particularly for girls. In Kenya, school attendance and participation has for long been adversely affected by the prevailing high HIV and AIDS prevalence rate that has culminated to an increased number of orphaned and vulnerable children (OVC) within the area. Increased OVC has led to increased poor health among primary school pupils with most of those infected and affected failing to attend school regularly (Yamano & Jayne, 2005). Further, due to the socio-economic ramifications of the condition, households have been adversely affected by the need to frequently take those infected to hospital, thereby leading to economic difficulties. Basic needs such as food have also been difficult to come by with resources being expended more on medication than food (Yamano &Jayne, 2005). In Kenya, a

study done by Kipkulei, Chepchieng, Chepchieng and Boit (2012) established that there is a low girl 'participation' in primary school Education in Baringo County. However, the authors did not investigate pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance which is the concern of this study.

2.2 The Concept of School Attendance

Reducing the rates of student truancy and chronic absenteeism has been and continues to be a goal of many schools and school systems (Corville-Smith, 1995). Researchers have focused more attention on the issue of students who drop out of school before receiving a high school diploma than on issues related to rates of daily student attendance. The research that has been conducted on student absenteeism suggests that it may be as important as any issue confronting schools today. In Machakos county, for example, 13% of pupils are absent from school at any given day (Okwaro, 2013).

Beyond the fact that poor attendance predicts dropping out of school, chronic absenteeism can result in other negative consequences for students and schools. Students who are not in class have fewer opportunities to learn the material that enables them to succeed later in school. Research on truancy and absenteeism suggests that students with better attendance score higher on achievement tests than their more frequently absent peers (Lamdin, 1996). Attendance not only affects individual students but also can affect the learning environment of an entire school. School funding is often at least partially dependent on the number of students who regularly attend. Fewer pupils mean fewer resources for educational programs. Finally, in some locations student attendance is used

as an indicator of how well a school is functioning, and requirements are set and monitored for ratings (Maryland State Department of Education, 1999).

Educators can reduce student absenteeism, but research suggests that substantial changes are needed. Historically, schools have addressed issues of truancy by blaming individual students. Truant and chronically absent students were considered deviants (Corville-Smith, 1995; Hoyle, 1998). Schools rarely involved families until the problem was so severe that the students were failing their courses. Families are now being recognized as an important influence on student attendance and an important resource for decreasing truancy and chronic absenteeism (Cim- marusti, James, Simpson, & Wright, 1984; Corville-Smith, Ryan, Adams, & Dalicandro, 1998; Weinberg & Weinberg, 1992; Ziesemer, 1984). This implies that absenteeism was likely to influence student's academic performance negatively, in unison to the study by Nicholas (2003), which established strong negative correlation among language, math and reading scores and yearly average absence. Nicholas (2003) established a linkage between class attendance patterns and learner academic performance. According to Sauers, McVay and Deppa (2005), positive reinforcement of school attendance is better, since it enhances good environment for learning. Further he elaborates that class attendance alone does not guarantee that learning will take place. This study seeks to establish pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies that enhance attendance among primary school adolescent girls.

Belfanz and Byrnes (2012) established that students who are chronically absent are less likely to succeed academically than those who are not. Academic success can be defined

as performing well in the classroom, behaving according to rules and regulations of the school and moving on to the appropriate grade each year. Attendance Works (2014) is an established research organization that has focused on the importance of students attending school regularly. Research has found that chronic absenteeism is a national challenge that affects students as early as pre-kindergarten leading up until high school (Connolly & Olson, 2012). Chronic absence is defined as a student missing 3 or more school days within a month, 20 days in a school year, or 10 percent of the academic year both excused, and unexcused (Ginsburg et. al., 2014; Ready, 2010; Chang & Romero, 2008; Ginsburg et. al., 2014; Chang et. al., 2014). Moreover, these numbers only exacerbates the problems that succumb from being chronically absent: an increase in achievement gap that affects academic performance, behaviors such as tardiness, truancy, failure to complete homework, and altercations with other peers, and student retention (Ginsburg *et. al*., 2014; Rosenkrantz *et. al*; 2014; Chang & Romero, 2008; Ready 2010). When high schools address chronic absenteeism it is statically proven that the number of missed days decreases (Belfanz & Byrnes, 2012). For example, a middle school in Baltimore went from 34 percent of their students being chronically absent in 2007 to only 16 percent in 2011 when they began addressing chronic absenteeism, and implementing specific interventions (Balfanz & Byrnes, 2012). These findings help suggest that the chronicity of absenteeism amongst high school students is an impediment to their academic performance, retainment, appropriate behavior, and potential graduation from high school.

Research has found that as truancy in students increased GPA decreased, those students act out negatively in school, are retained more, and decrease graduation rates (Chang & Romero, 2008; Ginsburg *et. al*., 2014). Academic success can be defined as a student's GPA, and how it progresses over the course of their high school career. Behaviors that occur when students are chronically absent are truancy, tardiness, or verbal or physical altercations towards others (Byrnes & Belfanz, 2012; Ready, 2010; Rosenkranz *et. al*., 2014). Lastly, students fail to move on to the appropriate grade and or fail to graduate from high school. Belfanz and Byrnes (2012) found that increased absences correlate with lower tests scores in math. If a student misses up to 2 months of school they are likely to see a 40-point decline in test scores (Rosenkranz *et. al*., 2014). When students become chronically absent it is apparent that their academics suffer.

Studies show that better attendance is related to higher academic achievement for students of all backgrounds, but particularly for children with lower socio-economic status (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Ready, 2010). Additionally, students who attend school regularly score higher tests than their peers, who are frequently absent. Lochmiller (2013) asserts that, given the consequences of chronic absenteeism and its prevalence in the nation's schools, researchers from education, counseling, and health fields have invested substantial energy in identifying factors that predict student absenteeism as well as estimate the cost of missing school for students both short and long term. The research suggests that individual, family, and school characteristics can all influence student attendance.

Students who are chronically absent are more likely to develop serious mental health issues, engage in drug and alcohol use, lower test scores, become violent or participate in criminal behaviors, increased risk of dropping out, and as well as sexual harassment(Kearney, 2008; Balfanz & Byrnes, 2012; Komakech & Osuu, 2014). Furthermore, the research conducted by the National Center for Children in Poverty at Columbia University as cited by Nauer, et al., (2008) shows that children who have poor attendance in kindergarten tend to do poorly in first grade; and that children with a history of poor attendance in the early elementary grades have lower levels of academic achievement throughout their school years. The study also reveals that, chronic absenteeism in the early elementary years hurts not only the students who miss school, but also affects the achievement of an entire school. In addition, a report by the Open Society Institute says, schools with high levels of absenteeism tend to have slower paced instruction overall, harming the achievement levels of strong students as well as those who struggle (Nauer et al., 2008). In contrary, the authors urge that, it may seem obvious that children cannot learn if they are not in school, and that good attendance is a prerequisite for academic achievement.

Available empirical evidence indicates that school enrollment rates are lower among AIDS orphans compared with non-orphans (World Bank, 1999; Ainsworth, Beegle & Koda, 2005; Case, Paxson & Ableidinger, 2002). A long list of anecdotal case studies also supports this evidence (Gachuhi, 1999; Nyambedha, et al., 2003; Guest, 2001; USAID, 2002). However, using 39 nationally representative data sets collected in the 1990s from 28 countries, mostly in Sub-Saharan Africa, Ainsworth and Filmer (2002) show that the difference in enrollment rates between orphaned and non-orphaned children

varies greatly across countries and wealth levels within a country. These studies focus on the education status of orphans, regardless of the timing of parental deaths. The impact of parental deaths, however, could depend greatly on its timing. More importantly, most children faced with parental mortality do not become orphans, and so the broader question of how children's schooling is affected by the death of adults in their households remains largely unknown. This is why the current study sought to establish the pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

2.3 Adolescence and School Attendance

The lack of gender sensitivity and responsiveness in educational programmes has been linked to the poor outcome of girls' education in terms of access, retention, performance and transition to higher level and to the world of work (Matovu, 2011). There are a number of broader reaching implications to the school dropout rate among girls. Once they drop out of school, girls become even more disempowered. Firstly they are less likely to find employment and secondly due to the effects that their stigmatization has on their self esteem, they become more susceptible to gender violence and sexual abuse and are less likely to abstain from or negotiate safe sex which can result in teenage pregnancies and even HIV/AIDS. The most affected are the adolescents in primary and secondary schools. Adolescence is a crucial stage of life and one that is challenging for most girls because of its physical and psychological changes. One of the major physiological changes in adolescent girls is menstruation. Today in Kenya menstruation is not only a health concern, but also an educational policy concern and has become a key factor in the country's bid to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of

eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2015. It is not uncommon in Kenya for girls to miss school when they are menstruating because they lack sanitary towels. This impedes their ability to compete in the classroom because it leads to low self-esteem especially in remote and conservative parts of the country where the "taboo" nature of menstruation prevents girls and their communities talking about the problem (Matovu, 2011).

According to O'Connor and Kovacs (2003), adolescence is a transitional phase in life from childhood to adulthood, and is something worth celebrating. Adolescence is understood as a stage in the lives of females, which indicates their transition from girlhood to womanhood. This also constitutes an important milestone, which is marked by the onset of menarche (Dhingra, Kumar & Kour, 2009; Nagar & Aimol, 2011). From this stage onwards until menopause, reproductive health and menstrual hygiene are important aspects in the lives of females. There is however not much attention paid to adolescent girls' specific health needs, notwithstanding that doing so would lay a good foundation for their physical and mental wellbeing and their ability to cope with the heavy demands of reproductive health later in life (Narayan, Srinivasa, Pelto & Veerammal, 2001; Nagar & Aimol, 2011; House, Mahon & Cavill,2012). In a worst case scenario, the latter may include unwanted pregnancies, urinary tract infections (UTI) and pelvic inflammatory diseases (MoH, 2000; Omidvar & Begum 2010; Narayan et al, 2001).

This stage is marked by physiological changes such as increased body size and the ability to reproduce as well as psychological changes, including the ability to think critically, an

expanded reasoning capacity, identity formation and sensitivity to the 'new' body image. However, for most girls in Kenya and other parts of the continent, this phase often brings challenges that push girls out of school and social activities, making the celebration short-lived. These challenges have often been underplayed, even though research has shown that their effects are significant. For example, menstruation causes Kenyan adolescent girls to lose an average of 3.5 million learning days per month (Muvea, 2011). Meanwhile, UNESCO estimates that one in 10 African adolescent girls miss school during menses and eventually drop out because of menstruation-related issues, such as the inaccessibility of affordable sanitary protection, the social taboos related to menstruation, and the culture of silence that surrounds it (AllAfrica, 2011).

According to Kotoh (2008), menstrual blood is considered dirty and harmful, resulting in girls who are menstruating being restricted from participating in some activities for fear that they may 'contaminate' others and the things they may touch. For instance, in most African communities, menstruating girls are not allowed to be in the kitchen to cook or to do the dishes, and neither are they allowed to participate in games with other young people during their menstruation period. This in turn fosters stigma as the restrictions create the perception that menstruation is shameful and that menstrual blood is harmful. And yet menstrual blood is free of toxins and any harmful bacteria (Bharadwaj & Patkar, 2004).

As girls progress through primary school, puberty sets in and brings with it menstruation especially girls between the ages of 10-14 which have proven to be a challenging barrier to girl child education (Oster & Thornton, 2011). Menstruation and its accompanying

physical, psychological and hygiene requirements has implications towards their education participation in regard to access, retention, attendance and final completion (McMahon et al., 2011). As Eruke in (Kirk & Sommer, 2006) states, whereas girls in developed countries generally have access to a range of pain killers, access to such becomes a nightmare for girls living in poverty stricken countries. Girls menstrual discomfort, back pains, swelling, cramping, mood swings and itching cannot pass unnoticed. Menstruation can cause discomfort and high incidences of pain for a majority of women. It can cause shifts in mood, depression, vomiting, pyrexia, endometriosis, hemorrhage, migraines, anaemia and fibroids (Dalton, 1964; Donimirski, 2013). Studies have shown that not less than 10% of menstruating young women are incapacitated for up to three days all because of menstrual disorder, (Pullon.et al., 1998). Patel et al (2006) complemented this by reporting that the burden of dysmenorrhoea is greater than any other gynecological complains, though mild and moderate cases of dysmenorrhoea could be treated by reassurance and paracetamol. But the effect of menstrual disorder and discomfort on a woman's life could be so severe as to confine the woman to bed (El-Gilany et al, 2005).

Compounding these customary challenges is the lack of access to sanitary protection and towels, which disempowers girls, as they have to stay at home to avoid staining their clothes with blood in public. The cost of sanitary ware and towels is beyond the reach of most young women and girls, who in Africa are the majority of the unemployed and those living in poverty. Most girls end up not going to school, because they cannot afford to buy sanitary ware. In addition, there are physiological and symptomatic challenges that girls go through during their menstrual cycle, which also hinder their full access to

education as well as stop them from fully enjoying activities with others. For instance, before the onset of menstruation, adolescent girls can experience tension, depression, tiredness and irritability-symptoms of premenstrual syndrome (PMS), which affect the way adolescent girls relate to other students in school and their teachers (Dalton, 1979).

Njoroge (2005) reports that 66.7% of teachers in Kiambu schools were of the view that provision of sanitary towels and construction of toilets could help retain more girls in schools. Further, the head teachers lamented that even though the government has provided teaching and learning materials, the schools still lacked essential facilities such as toilets, water and adequate sanitation. Kirimi's school assessment survey on the provision of sanitary facilities under the FPE programme in Kenya showed that the expansion of physical infrastructure has been too slow to cope with the influx of pupils. School sanitation and hygiene have received least attention in the allocation of free education monetary grants and other resources (Kirimi, 2005).

The hormonal changes in the bodies of adolescent girls cause sudden mood swings as well. Physically, the retention of fluids in the body tissues can cause swelling around the ankles in some adolescents as well as backaches. If fluids are retained in the stomach region, it can result in bloating (Dalton, 1979). Sharma, Malhorta, Teneja and Saha (2010) argue that, at the onset of menstruation, females between the ages of 15 and 25 can experience dysmenorrhea, which featured as the commonest problem among adolescent girls and often results in prolonged bed rest and girls missing both classes and other social activities.

Kirk and Sommer (2006) identify the lack of knowledge and understanding about menstruation in most traditional and conservative communities as the key source of stigma about what is a normal, natural biological process. There is also a culture of silence around menstruation leading to the menstrual process being viewed as a weakness of women. The subject is hardly ever discussed in families, resulting in it also not being an easy topic of discussion and engagement even in schools.

From review of several studies on menstruation in Kenya, in some rural areas girls use old rags, leaves, cow dung or even dig a hole on the ground to sit on for the whole period as a means to manage their menstrual flow. In an ethnographic study conducted in a primary school in Bungoma District, Lukalo (2010) noted that menstruation is not just a private affair but has the potency to become public, embarrassing and often a source of stigma for the girls. In another study, Obonyo (2003) notes the intricate relationship between urbanisation and the development of slums and squatters in Africa. This development often happens at the expense of sanitation and hygienic living conditions for families, especially children and women. Obonyo (2003) also notes the economic, social and psychological implications for the residents of these sprawling slums. She explains that adolescent girls are the most affected by the lifestyle. As an example, Obonyo (2003) critically observed the difficulty faced by adolescent girls in accessing sanitary protection resulting from their struggle to meet their daily needs. These economic conditions, Obonyo observed, are caused by many factors ranging from lack of empowerment to single parent-headed families. The living conditions are deplorable with overly congested houses constructed of cardboard boxes, old iron sheets and mud walls, which do not offer privacy to girls. In her study, Obonyo brings highlights to the fact that accessing sanitary

protection is also tied to a lack of facilities for the girls to dispose of their used sanitary towels as well as a lack of private spaces where the girls can comfortably change.

The pan-African NGO FAWE (Foundation for African Women Educationalists) found that a 'culture of silence' surrounding menstruation in rural Uganda resulted in it being 'ignored in families, schools and communities' (Kirk and Sommer, 2006). In Kenya, girls often struggle to obtain information on menstruation and puberty due to a lack of supportive school staff or even family members to discuss these issues with (Muito, 2004; McMahon et al., 2011; Mason et al., 2013). Many girls also experience considerable pressure from family members to leave school so that they can take on a larger share of household work and ultimately get married – issues that reflect broader risks of sexual abuse/harassment (from fellow students/teachers) and pregnancy(Muito, 2004; McMahon et al; 2011; Mason et al., 2013). Consequently, 'providing the physical or material means for "menstrual management" does not necessarily empower girls who lack information about their own bodies' (Kirk and Sommer, 2006: 11) or enable them to resist unwanted sexual advances. In response, there has been growing emphasis on the need to combine access to sanitary products with multi-sectoral sanitation, menstrual hygiene management (MHM) and SRHR programs (Thomas, 2002; Bharadwaj and Patkar, 2004; Kirk and Sommer, 2006;Tjon and Ten, 2007; McMahon et al., 2011; Mason et al., 2013).

With regard to the impacts of sanitary product access on school attendance, Scott et al. (2009) found that the provision of sanitary towels coupled with menstrual hygiene education in Ghana reduced girls' absence from school by more than half. By contrast,

other studies found ‘only tentative data on the impact of interventions related to improved school sanitation and increased menstrual awareness on the lives and experiences of female students’ (Kirk and Sommer, 2006, 11). Research in Malawi by Grant et al. (2013) found no statistically significant difference in male and female absenteeism and no relationship between toilet availability and girls’ school attendance. Instead, they found that ‘sickness’ accounted for a far higher percentage of school absence (33%) than menstruation (2.4%) while 21% of respondents missed school to help at home. Consequently, they argue that while ‘menstruation may negatively impact girls’ quality of life in particular cultural and physical environments, it is unclear whether or not girls’ schooling outcomes can be attributed directly or indirectly to the inconveniences and discomforts of menstruation.’

Mason et al. (2013) question the likely success of menstrual solutions to school absenteeism, emphasising ‘reproductive and sexual health threats’ such as pregnancy and HIV as important causes of girls leaving school in SSA. It is not unusual for there to be a high proportion of adolescent children in the lower primary grades and unsatisfactory school environments (where students get caned for small offences or poor academic performance) can make marriage/motherhood more attractive options for older girls, encouraging them to leave school (Mensch and Lloyd, 1998; Mensch et al., 2001). This is particularly common amongst girls who started school late or are behind their age grade due to poor academic performance or parental inability/unwillingness to pay school fees (Lloyd and Mensch, 2006; Mensch and Lloyd, 1998). Given the wide range of factors underlying girls’ absences from or decisions to leave school, the need for more evidence-based research on sanitation/education/menstruation interlinkages in different locations

has received significant recent attention (Kirk and Sommer, 2006; Grant et al., 2013; Sommer, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011; Oster and Thornton, 2011; Mason et al., 2013).

The cultural sensitivity and taboos/etiquette surrounding menstruation (Houppert, 2000; Laws, 1990) coupled with the 'great distaste' (Black and Fawcett, 2008) associated with sanitation more generally have long resulted in the neglect of such issues within development initiatives and wider academic research (George, 2008; Jewitt, 2011). An important exception is the growing field of research on toilets as gendered spaces that recognises gender inequalities in toilet provision and the export of patriarchal toilet standards, designs and priorities from global North to South (Anthony and Dufresne, 2007; Cooper et al., 2000; Cowen et al., 2005; Daley, 2000; Gershenson and Penner, 2009; Greed, 2003, 2014; Penner, 2005). Despite such developments, menstruation remains marginalized within largely male-dominated sanitation agendas that tend to prioritise technical (hardware) over socio-cultural (software) considerations (Greed, 2003, 2014). Nevertheless, the lack of academic curiosity regarding possible interconnections between inadequate sanitation, MHM, school attendance and broader life chances seems surprising given recent emphasis on gender and everyday geographies (Dyck, 2005; Holloway and Hubbard, 2001) and their importance 'in the production of social inequalities' (Nightingale, 2011:153).

An important framework for examining the taboos/etiquette surrounding menstruation can be found in Douglas's (1966) work on dirt as 'matter out of place' and the use of concepts of pollution and taboo to construct or police (real and symbolic) spatial boundaries. Drawing on this work, Laws (1990) suggests that pollution beliefs can 'be

read as statements about power relations in society' as they 'define, according to the dominant ideology, what is "matter out of place" and this in turn makes it clear who has control of such social definitions.' Consequently she argues that 'the treatment of menstrual blood as dirty represents a judgement on the "place" of menstruating women'. These ideas are developed by O'Connell (1998), Longhurst (2001) and Wolkowitz (2007) who relate dirtiness and bodily leakiness 'to issues of dignity and power, rather than purity and contamination.' In a similar vein, Cresswell (1997) analyses how media references used sanitary products 'decorating' perimeter fences during the 1980s Greenham Common protests 'as a metaphor for a general notion of the women as "out-of-place"' and of transgression more generally.

Focusing more on the dynamics in the school space, the Federation of African Women Educationists FAWE (2006) discovered that the lack of a conducive school environment was a leading cause of the low retention of girls in school – with poor sanitation being specifically cited as a leading determinant of whether adolescent girls turn up for class or not (in addition to a lack of security, and long distances to school). Yet, according to FAWE, girl's education is the most important investment for women in developing countries because of its contribution towards better health for their families, alongside increasing the women's potentials as well as lowering fertility rates (FAWE, 2006).

Stopford's MSc-GH (2012) thesis research evaluated the effect of commercial sanitary pad use on school attendance among Kenyan adolescent girls and the prevalence of any type of vaginal infection. In the study, girls reported they could miss between 3-7 days of school a month due to menstruation, but the research shows they actually only missed an

average of one day per month. Stopford (2012) also found that use of sanitary pads is linked with missing more days of school, perhaps in part because girls are busy trying to obtain sanitary pads. Stopford (2012) found that girls who used commercial sanitary pads were more likely to have pocket money and be sexually active. According to previous research done by former DGHI postdoctoral fellow Eve Puffer (2008), it is common for girls to engage in transactional sex or seek out a boyfriend to help pay for pads or other items like school fees. If a girl becomes pregnant, it is likely she will drop out of school. There is little rigorous, pre-existing evidence to support the claim that girls were missing a significant amount of school due to menstruation and lack of sanitary pads.

According to Barbara Frost (cited in Melik, 2011) without sanitation, 'you cannot achieve universal primary education, you cannot promote gender equality and empower women, you cannot reduce child mortality.' While macro-level data are available on sanitation access and gendered school attendance, the everyday 'lived experiences' of schoolgirls with poor sanitation access are poorly understood (Sommer, 2010).Reflecting the difficulties of obtaining information on such sensitive issues (McFarlane et al., 2013), academic research on the influence of puberty (and the risk of sexual harassment that can accompany this) and menstruation on girls' school attendance has been quite scarce (McMahon et al., 2011). Nevertheless, interest in menstruation and poor sanitary product access as possible causes of schoolgirl absenteeism has attracted attention from the media, NGOs and policy-makers following efforts to track progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (Bharadwaj and Patkar, 2004; DfID, 2005; Kirk and Sommer, 2005, 2006; Tjon and Ten, 2007; UNICEF, 2008; World Bank, 2006; Oster and Thornton, 2009, 2011; Grant et al., 2013; Fehr, 2010). In response, several state and

NGO interventions have sought to increase schoolgirls' access to sanitary products (Kirumira, 2003; Cooke, 2006; Ahmed and Yesmin, 2008; Callister, 2008; Scott et al., 2009; Njuguna et al., 2009).

Interestingly, academic studies on the impacts of improved sanitary towel access (or menstruation more generally) on girls' school attendance have produced rather contradictory results whilst highlighting other important influences on attendance (Kirk and Sommer, 2006; Scott et al., 2009; Grant et al., 2013; Sommer, 2010; McMahon et al., 2011; Muvea, 2011; Oster and Thornton, 2011). In SSA, poverty and embedded gender inequalities are key causes of pubescent girls 'dropping out' of school or even engaging in 'transactional sex' to obtain money to buy sanitary towels so that they can continue to attend (Kirk and Sommer, 2005, 2006; Mason et al., 2013; Malusu and Zani, 2014). Sommer (2010, 523) argues that as girls mature, a 'collision' occurs 'in school environments that continue to be gender discriminatory' resulting in 'an unnecessary, and preventable, interruption to girls' active school participation and attendance'. To address this, the benefits of multi-sectoral initiatives that link sanitation with education on health, hygiene and girls' rights have been highlighted (Thomas, 2002; Kirk and Sommer, 2005; McMahon et al., 2011; Malusu, 2012; Mason et al., 2013). In taking such approaches forward, Sommer (2010) emphasises the importance of 'capturing girl's lived perspectives on contextual factors impacting on their lives in a modernizing society'.

The benefits of societies educating girls include lower birth rates, better health, lower infant mortality, fewer teenage marriages and pregnancies and greater economic well being (Wagtole, 2005). Historically menstruation has and continues to be used as

justification for preventing girls and women from fully participating in public life, justifying control over their activities in the public arena in general and over their sexuality in particular. The view that monthly bleeding is a biological defect or a divine curse renders itself appropriately to a social system in which men control women's behavior in a patriarchal regime that often subject women's bodies to more control than men's. This forces women to spend resources of money and time in managing and concealing menstruation and all other related aspects such as pregnancy and menopause (Martin, 1998). The importance of educating the girl child presents the need to make in-depth studies and suggestions relating to hindrance to girl-child participation and access to education that although important are less emphasized by scholars.

Although the right to education may seem an obviously enjoyed right, this is not always the case. Even with the near gender parity in schools, adolescent girls participation in schools is generally very poor especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2004).The silence and lack of information makes menstruation a shameful subject to tackle not only for adolescent girls but also for some parents and relatives and hence it is ignored both at home and in schools (Kirk and sommer, 2006). Girls are exposed to a lot of issues that tend to discriminate them in their effort of attaining quality education. Girls also do a lot of the domestic chores that tend to take so much of their study time and this greatly disadvantages them compared to their male counterparts. For girls to fully participate in school then their needs should be taken care of more seriously by the government, parents and all other stakeholders concerned with girls' education. Early marriage is the most often cited reason for girls dropping out of school.

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is a rite of passage into womanhood that accompanies puberty and an immediate precursor to marriage. Once circumcised, they are ridiculed by their peers if they continue their education, since school is for children. Culturally determined ways of defining women and men and their roles in a given society shape gender specific opportunities and constraints. The existence of discriminatory attitudes towards the schooling of girls is informed by customs and culture. Mobility restrictions arise in many societies when girls reach puberty and this makes the effect to be more on girls' retention than on entry (Lloyd and Blanc, 1996). Sometimes conflict arises between what is taught at home (in initiation ceremonies) and at school which may lead to parents opposing girls continued attendance in school.

Indeed girls' behavior is often directly related to the many tribal and traditional taboos which dictate what and what not to do at the various stages of their development which may conflict with the demands of the school. Girls are not told how a woman becomes pregnant. This combined with lack of supervision and ignorance make girls highly vulnerable to becoming pregnant. Pregnancy before marriage brings disgrace and a reduced bride price (Namugambe and Yovani, 1997). Girls from rural areas are disadvantaged due to the social belief that educating a boy child is more important since he is the head of the household and thereby, he provides for his family (Wamahiu, 1999). In general, the African belief is that a girl child only needs a hardworking husband to feed and clothe the family as they in return take care of their children. Kenya has moved towards modernity, and as the age of globalization and structural adjustments programmes spread throughout Kenya, those in rural areas suffer from the consequences of these new trends. However, beliefs, traditions and myths of boys being superior and

therefore more intelligent than girls and thus likely to succeed over girls is still believed by many parents. Many girls are denied an education solely because of parental concern for their safety during those long walks. Even those who make it to school, the long walks undermine education.

Teachers report that children, who have spent two to five hours walking to school in the morning often without having had anything to eat, are tired and their ability to concentrate is impaired (Maasai girls Education Fund,2007).It is also often late when the girls arrive home after such long walks and they are still required to do chores. Even if they still have the desire and energy to study after they have finished with their responsibilities at home, it is dark and there is no electricity or artificial light. Long distances to schools from homes expose girls to physical and sexual dangers. This leads to girls dropping out of school. One school in Samburu serves several villages typically within 15-20 KM radius. There are no cars or even bicycles available, so the girls must walk this great distance. Parents' perception and society expectations affect how girls and boys participate in education.

Most girls fail to enroll in or complete primary schooling because their parents do not value education. Some parents believe that educating girls is enriching her husband's family and therefore will prefer educating the boys. Parent's positive attitude towards child's education is important in determining school attendance and academic achievement of the child (Namugambe and Yovani, 1997). Family involvement is the strongest predictor of child educational outcomes.

Poverty combined with the traditional practices of preference for boys influences parents to take sons to schools rather than their daughters in situations of economic constraints. Where resources are scarce and the school demands for expenditures from a household, a girl child is likely to be pulled out of school compared to the boy child. The introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) has greatly reduced the direct cost of schooling for the parents. Despite these efforts however studies have shown that there are still other direct costs to schooling which act as constraints to enrolling and keeping girls in school (Burchfield and Kadzamira, 1996). It therefore becomes a necessity for children to perform economically important tasks that support household survival and this limits girls' participation in education.

The education of girls is seen as economically and socially costly to parents. Costs come in four forms: tuition fees and other direct school fees; indirect fees (such as PTA fees, teachers levies and fees for school construction and buildings); indirect costs (such as transportation and uniforms); and opportunity costs (such as lost household or paid labor) (Benn, 2005). These costs have a significant impact on whether and which children are educated. Educating girls can incur extra direct costs. The high cost of education is the biggest deterrent to families educating their daughters. Parents feel that by investing in boy's education, the risk of losing money is very minimal since they believe that boys are more likely to succeed (Davidson, 1993). Studies in other parts of the continent have shown that the cost of educating girls is higher than educating a boy. Different factors including the number of children in a household and the family's income are significant in determining a girl's education. Often girls are used as sources of income, commonly

working on sugar plantations and or working as housemaids for low income in order to contribute to educating a boy child (Eliza, 2010).

When financial decisions are made, girls are more likely than boys to be held back or withdrawn from schools (Ilon, 1990). In most cases labor of a girl child is required to support the mother in ways such as looking after other siblings, helping the mother with domestic chores, assisting in running the mother's small scale business, caring for the sick among others. Because the girls' labor is critical, taking her to school and keeping her at school appear to be very costly to poor parents.

A study conducted in Nepal, India revealed that the impact of menstruation on school attendance is significant and negative, but extremely small. Attendance is slightly lower on period days, but only very slightly; it falls from 85.7% on days without menstruation to 83.0% on days with menstruation (Oster and Thornton, 2011). In Ethiopia, like in many parts of the developing world, menstrual hygiene management is one of the critical challenges adolescent girls face while they are in school (Tsegaye et al., 2011). A study conducted in four districts in southern Ethiopia revealed that the school environment is not conducive especially for menstrual hygiene management. The study showed that girls use unhygienic rags during menstrual period and have little knowledge on how to keep personal hygiene during menstruation. The study also revealed that menstruation is seen as a taboo by communities and school teachers.

Parents do not provide information and guidance on menstrual hygiene management which leave school girls without assistance on how to manage their menstruation hygienically. The same study disclosed that 70% of adolescent school girls miss 2-3

school days each month, which in turn has a significant impact on their school performance. Another study carried in Ghana by Scott et al (2009) revealed that girls attending school in several remote rural areas stayed at home the entire length of their periods due to fear of soiling themselves in the presence of others. They used discarded cloth, which they felt offered insufficient protection on the long walks to school, which in turn prompted them to stay at home.

A study conducted in Uganda on the effect of sexual maturation on performance of girls in secondary schools by Namugambe and Yovani (1997) found that sexual maturation affects girls' educational performance. Menstruation makes them absent from school for some good days hence affecting on their performance. Universal Primary Education started in 1997 in Uganda. Enrolment in primary one of boys to girls was 1:1, seven years later slightly more than 400,000 sat for primary seven. The ratio in primary seven, seven years later, boys to girls was 3:2. In Kenya a need assessment was undertaken by Girl Child Network (GCN) (2003) on gender equity and equality following the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE). The study revealed that a girl absent from school due to menstruation for four days in 28 days loses 13 learning days equivalent to two weeks of learning in every school term. In a year a girl loses 39 days equivalent to 8 weeks of learning time. A girl in primary school between grade 6 and 8 loses 24 learning weeks out of 108 weeks. Within the 4 years of high school, the same girl loses 156 learning days equivalent to almost 31 weeks out of 144 weeks of learning in secondary school. In addition, this lowers her self-esteem, militates against girls' retention and transition in schools and leads to poor performance. It is possible that menstruation creates a reason for school absence among girls who are already less motivated and receive less

encouragement from family to attend school. Although absenteeism itself may be interpreted as a dimension of behavioral disengagement from school, evidence from the United States suggests that it is correlated with measures of student academic motivation and parental involvement (Fredericks, Blumenfeld and Paris, 2004). The current study was concerned with establishing pupils' perceptions of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies that can enhance school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

2.4 Influence of Parental Motivational Strategies on School Attendance

Motivation is the internal drive that stations human beings to achieve goals. Motivation is directly linked to an individual's needs. On the surface, needs seem understandable (Anyim, Chidi & Badejo, 2012). To be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no drive to act is being characterized as unmotivated whereas, someone who is strengthened in doing something is considered as being motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Basically, motivation is the force that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented actions or behaviors. It is what drives individuals to act, whether to take food in order to reduce hunger or get into a school to earn a certificate. Motivational strategies are the processes whereby parents and teachers initiate, guide and maintain goal-oriented behavior of their children in order to attend school.

While different theorists define motivation differently, it is commonly thought of as an inner state of need or desire that activates an individual to do something to satisfy them. In other words, motivation is the force that accounts for the arousal, selection, direction, and continuation of behavior (Li & Pan, 2009). Williams and Burden (2000) proposed the

definition of motivation as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal that leads to a conscious decision to act and that causes the exertion of intellectual and physical effort toward reaching a previously set goal. In day-to-day language, motivation is why we do what we do. Therefore, it is clear why so much education research is focused on motivating students: If motivation is why we do what we do, only a motivated student will learn. It is increasingly accepted in the literature that motivation is more important to a child's education than any other single factor, including the teacher's skill/experience, classroom resources, and so forth (Stipek, 2002).

Motivation could be seen as self determination to succeed in whatever activities one engages in, be it academic work, professional work, sporting events, among others. Gesinde (2000) posits that the urge to achieve varies from one individual to the other, while for some individuals need for achievement is very high, for others it may be very low. However, there are high achievers and low achievers. Gesinde (2000) further asserts that, those who have high achievers as their models in their early life experience would develop the high need to achieve, while those who have low achievers as their models hardly develop the need to achieve. Human beings are said to be extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. Intrinsic motivation is said to be derived internally in the job itself. It is that which occurs while a person is performing an activity in which he takes delight and satisfaction in doing. Intrinsic motivation is seen as internal reward, while extrinsic motivation is incentive or reward that a person can enjoy after he finishes his work.

Parent involvement has been defined and measured in multiple ways, including activities that parents engage in at home and at school and positive attitudes parents have towards their child's education, school, and teacher. The distinction between the activities parents partake in and the attitude parents have towards education was highlighted by several studies (Epstein, 1996; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Kohl, Lengua, & McMahon, 2000). Increased frequency of activities was associated with higher levels of child misbehavior in the classroom (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999), whereas positive attitudes towards education and school were associated with the child's increased academic performance (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, Cox, & Bradley, 2003). Specifically, Izzo et al. (1999) reported that an increase in the parent's school activities may help the teacher to manage the child's existing behavior problems thus enhancing school attendance. The significance of parent attitudes toward education and school is less well understood, although attitudes are believed to comprise a key dimension of the relationship between parents and school (Eccles & Harold, 1994). Parents convey attitudes about education to their children during out-of-school hours and these attitudes are reflected in the child's classroom behavior and in the teacher's relationship with the child and the parents (Kellaghan, Sloane, Alvarez & Bloom, 1993).

When parents are involved in their children’s academic lives, children tend to perform better academically than when their parents are not involved. Parents involvement in their child’s academics can take a number of different forms, such as attending parent-teacher conferences, helping a child with homework, going to school activities, such as school fairs, and knowing what the child is doing in class, as well as how they are doing in class (Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems & Doan Holbein, 2005). In this study parents were expected

to motivate the learners by attending school activities and finding out the progress of the learners in class by inquiring from the teachers.

Parental involvement can also have different qualities, such as monitor and support. A parent can monitor the child's academics in such a way that it is perceived as controlling (e.g when a parent hovers over a child attempting to complete a homework assignment). On the other hand, a parent can be supportive of the child's academics in a way that gives autonomy to the child (for example when a parent checks over a child's homework assignment after the child asks for assistance) (Régner, Loose, & Dumas, 2009). Research suggests that it is the supportive type of involvement, rather than the monitoring type of involvement that contributes to better academic outcomes (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989) .One reason may be that supportive involvement is part of an authoritative style of parenting that is characterized by high levels of warmth and moderate levels of control.

In contrast, monitoring involvement may be considered as high levels of control and low levels of warmth. In general, children tend to fare better when parents use an authoritative (rather than an authoritarian) parenting style (Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch & Darling, 1992). Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, and Doan Holbein (2005) suggest that parental involvement may be predictive of children's school engagement, intrinsic motivation, sense of autonomy, and self-regulation-all of which have been shown to predict positive academic outcomes which is expected to enhance school attendance. Régner et al.(2009) found that, as expected, parental support was related to mastery goals for junior high school students.

Parent and family factors (i.e., whether the student resides in a single-parent household, family socioeconomic status, parental unemployment, homeownership, etc.) have also been shown to predict school attendance. Gottfried (2011) noted that it has traditionally been difficult for researchers to disassociate student and family characteristics in analyses that examine school attendance. Indeed, in his analysis of data obtained from Philadelphia, he discovered that past research may have underestimated the influence of parent and family predictors. Despite this assertion, existing research suggests that there are specific family-related factors that influence school attendance as discussed below.

Research suggests that the parent's socioeconomic status wield a significant influence on the likelihood that students will attend school regularly (Crowder & South, 2003; Henry, 2007; Reid, 2005). Students who reside in urban neighborhoods are more likely to miss school and/or become chronically absent due to the myriad of factors that distract students from school (Balfanz & Letgers, 2004; Orfield & Kornhaber, 2001). Students who are homeless or reside in temporary housing are also more likely to miss school. Citing reports from the U.S. Department of Education, the National Coalition for the Homeless (2007) reported that while 87% of homeless youth are enrolled in school only 77% attend school regularly. The National Coalition for the Homeless (2007) report that children who are homeless are also more mobile than their peers making regular school attendance more difficult. They estimated that half of homeless youth change schools two or more times each academic year. Forty percent change schools at least one time. Thus, the child's home status significantly predicts whether the child will attend school regularly. This was the reason for conducting this study in order to establish the influence

of pupils' perception of parents motivational strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

Past research has suggested that family characteristics such as the number of parents in household and parental practices all influence student attendance, as well. For example, students from single-parent families are more likely to miss school than students from two-parent families (Finlay, 2006). Parents who are actively involved in their child's school experience and monitor their child's participation in school-these behaviors include talking with their child about school, checking homework, and participating in school-based parent organizations. Sixty-four percent of students who responded to the 2009 High School Survey of Student Engagement indicated that they attended school because of their parent or guardian (Yazzi-Mintz, 2009).

Children, who are supported by protective services, including foster care, frequently miss more school than children who are not served by these programs. Conger and Rebeck (2001) analyzed records from 17,000 New York City children in foster care and disclosed that approximately three-quarters of children placed in foster care attended school. Heilbrunn (2004) studied 30 truant students in Colorado and found that the students were frequently in the care of child protective services and had been removed from their homes. Tallies collected by the juvenile justice system revealed that truant students frequently experience issues such as child neglect, abandonment, mental and physical health concerns, as well as previous placement in programs operated by health and human services(Heilbrunn,2004).

The findings by Marchant, Paulson and Rothlisburg (2001), confirm the important role that relationships among parents, teachers, and peers play on early adolescents' school achievement. In particular, students' perceptions of their parents' values about achievement had the strongest relationship with both motivations and competence. When students perceived that parents valued the importance of effort and academic success, students had higher perceived academic competence and placed a high priority on their academic ability, effort, and grades. Parental values were correlated with both parental responsiveness and involvement in school. It is noteworthy that students internalized parental values into their own learning traits. Results from this study also raise the possibility that parent involvement in the home verses participation at school may differentially relate to student motivation. This possibility would extend the range of parent involvement practices schools should seek to promote.

Other researchers have also investigated whether all types of parent involvement necessarily have a beneficial impact on student motivation. Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) investigated parental involvement (surveillance of homework and reaction to students' academic grades) in relation to children's motivational orientation. Results showed that parental surveillance of homework was related to an extrinsic motivational orientation. The more parents were involved in monitoring, enforcing, or helping with homework, the more students reported being extrinsically motivated and dependent on external sources for academic guidance and evaluation.

Teachers rated these students as showing less initiation, autonomy, persistence, and satisfaction in doing their schoolwork. In this study of Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993),

however, the surveillance was considered as over-controlling, and it may be necessary to examine ways that parents might be involved with schoolwork without being viewed as over-controlling. Results also indicated that when parents reacted to their child's grades (either high or low) with extrinsic rewards, that reaction was related to an extrinsic motivational orientation. Once again, teachers were more likely to rate these children as being less motivated, exhibiting less pleasure, and demonstrating less persistence in doing their schoolwork. However, when parents reacted to their grades by providing encouragement and praise, students were more likely to report an intrinsic motivational orientation characterized by a preference for challenging tasks, curiosity, and interest in learning. These findings support the notion that parent variables play a role in the development of children's intrinsic motivation. In this study the motivational strategies adopted by parents included: attending school activities, supervising children when doing homework, monitoring the performance of the child in school, being interested in what their children do in class and rewarding their children for good academic performance.

2.5 Impact of Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers on School Attendance

Motivational strategies are methods that encourage the individual's goal-related behavior (Dornyei, 2001). This is because human behavior is very difficult to understand and there are many different ways in promoting it. In sum, almost every stimulus a person is open to may possibly affect his/her behavior. Motivational strategies refer to those motivational stimuli that are consciously used to achieve some systematic and lasting positive effect (Dornyei, 2001). There are many factors that will motivate people to work,

but they can be broadly divided in two major types or call influential factors of motivation (Anyim et al., 2012). These include factors in the external environment – also known as extrinsic motivation, and factors within the individual concern – also known as intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Reeve (2001) supported this view that, there are two types of motivation, namely, the extrinsic and the intrinsic motivation. To him, people may be motivated by factors in the external environment such as pay, supervision, benefits, and job perks. He sees this type as extrinsic and that in which people are motivated by the love they have for job or task as intrinsic motivation (Reeve, 2001).

In explaining the two types of motivation, Deci (1993) adds that individual's behavior in any organization working for externally determined rewards falls in the extrinsic category while those who are trying to satisfy their curiosity and competency falls in the intrinsic category. According to Arif (2003), both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are very important in learning. Teachers need to ensure a balance in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation strategies especially when immediate satisfaction is inadequate or little in the learning situation.

Education in its every day sense could mean formal training that is given in schools, colleges, and universities, for the acquisition of the abilities for example, read, write and calculate. According to Denga (2005) education is the process by which every society tries to preserve and promote the stored knowledge, skills and attitude in its cultural settings and heritage in order to foster endless wellbeing of mankind and assure its survival against the irregular, at times aggressive and destructive elements and forces of nature. Further, Ogbonna (2011) sees education as a process of acculturation through

which an individual is helped to attain the development of his/her potentialities, and their maximum activation when necessary according to right reason and to achieve his/her perfect self-fulfillment. Education is the physical, intellectual, moral, social, and emotional cultivation of the whole person in a formal or informal setting for smooth functioning of the society and the person concerned. However, the place of motivation in the attainment of the lofty goals of education cannot be overemphasized as they (motivation and education) are inextricable linked to each other (Ofoegbu, 2004).

Motivation in educational administration for instance is only beginning to be understood and applied to professionals and other employees within the school system. Ofoegbu (2004) concludes that it is vital and essential to recognize the motivational value of intrinsic factors like; wish for achievement or self-fulfillment in order to strike a balance on what has been an over dependent on extrinsic motivators. Primarily, motivation comes from the willingness to learn or acquire new knowledge geared towards the construction of an authentic product for an appropriate audience, thus protecting the audience from being disappointed. Motivation is not the same for every individual. This is due to the differences in needs, goals and personalities. For instance, different teachers and students are motivated differently at different times and in different courses of instruction.

Schunk et al (2014) posits that; good teachers are sensitive to students' motivational needs and so try to create a climate that supports the development of the learning community. Furthermore, Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell (1997) argues that teachers perform vital role in motivating learners. Teacher motivation is made up of two beliefs; firstly in their own teaching ability and secondly on their belief in the students' learning

ability. Crowl et al (1997) further states that, the ability of the teacher to believe in the effectiveness of her teaching skills is known as teacher efficacy. This efficacy is reflected in the teacher's great personal effort in building a rousing learning environment.

Motivation is therefore an important factor in education especially in the administration of school staff and the teaching and learning process. It implies the stimulation and sustenance of interest in education. This means that interest is an underlying factor in education, as no education can take place without the interest of stakeholders especially staff and students. Thus, motivation plays a pivotal role in learning. Like Bhatia (1977) puts it; no real education can take place without motivation, as it brings especially the teachers and learners to a proper frame of mind for teaching and learning, concentrating their attention and energies on the tasks or knowledge to be dished out or acquired.

Research suggests that a variety of school-level factors influence student attendance. The factors relate to the culture and climate of the school; the condition of the school facility, particularly the school's ventilation system; as well as the rigor and relevance of the school's instructional program (Branham, 2004; Lauchlan, 2003; Schendell, et al., 2004; Simons, Hwang, Fitzgerald, Kielb, & Lin, 2010). These factors shape student perceptions of the school environment and thus shape the desirability they feel to attend school. Moreover, the physical condition of the school impacts student health and thus influences whether the child feels well enough to attend school.

The culture and climate of the school, particularly as it relates to teacher-student relationships and more broadly to issues of student safety, has been moderately associated with student absenteeism. The likelihood that a student will not attend school

increases when students feel unsafe or threatened by the school community. Stewart (2008), drawing upon National Educational Longitudinal Survey (NELS) data, disclosed that student outcomes were related to the student's sense of belongingness or connection to the community. Similarly, Rumberger and Palardy (2005) reported that students who perceived that their school was unsafe had higher rates of attrition. In particular, students who experience bullying and victimization by peers or their teachers tend to miss more school than peers who do not experience these conditions (Glew, Fan, Katon, Rivara, & Kernic, 2005). Dinkes, Kemp, and Baum (2009) reported that seven percent of students aged 12 to 18 who participated in the 2007 National Crime Victimization Survey reported that they "avoided school activities or one or more places in school because they thought someone might attack or harm them" (p. 56). The same survey revealed that "approximately five percent of students ages 12-18 reported that they were afraid of attack or harm at school, compared with three percent of students who reported that they were afraid of attack or harm away from school" (p. 54).

The prevalence of fear and avoidance among students appeared greatest among middle school students and high school freshman and sophomores (Dinkes, et al., 2009). These are also the grade levels which research suggests are most likely to predict student absenteeism, truancy, and high school dropout (Balfanz & Byrne, 2012; Gottfried, 2013). Bullying appears to be a significant predictor of student absenteeism and, at the high school level, a significant predictor for students who ultimately drop out of school. Recent research indicates that bullying (including adversarial relationships with education professionals) is now widely recognized as a significant factor in student academic performance and student attendance as manifest through school avoidance

behaviors (Kearney, 2008; Robers, Zang, Truman, & Snyder, 2012; Swearer, Espelage, Vaillancourt, & Hymel, 2010). There is considerable and growing evidence that bullying exists in schools in Kenya and that its effect on student and wider society require explicit attention. Research shows that bullying in Kenyan secondary schools is significantly higher than high schools of other countries like America and Australia (Ndetei et al., 2007). This is likely to affect attendance by learners. However, the concern of this study is school attendance amongst adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

The academic program also influences whether students attend school. There is a growing body of research that suggests that school culture influences student learning, engagement, and achievement (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli & Pickeral, 2009). Researchers note that disengagement can lead to a significant increase in 'deviant behavior'-including truancy (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008). Klem and Connell (2004) noted that "Students who perceive teachers as creating a caring, well-structured learning environment in which expectations are high, clear, and fair are more likely to report engagement in school" (p. 270). Higher-levels of student engagement reduce the risk of students missing school or dropping out of school (Appleton, et al., 2008). This perception can be achieved through lower student-to-teacher ratios (Catalano, Haggerty, Oesterle, Fleming & Hawkins, 2004) as well as other school-based programs (i.e., Check and Connect) that increase student-teacher contact through mentoring (Sinclair, Christenson, Lehr & Anderson, 2003).

Poor ventilation systems introduce students-particularly those with respiratory health challenges including asthma to conditions that promote chronic illness (Schendell, *et al*.,

2004). In one study that examined indoor CO_2 concentrations in traditional and portable classrooms, Schendell, *et al*. (2004) disclosed that student attendance in portable classrooms was 2 percent lower than students who attended class in traditional classroom settings. More broadly, Branham (2004) analyzed data for 226 schools in the Houston Independent School District using a Tobit analysis, he determined that students were less likely to attend schools that were in need of structural repairs, used temporary structures (i.e., portables), and had understaffed janitorial services (presumably impacting the cleanliness of the school facility). This indicates that availability of teaching and learning resources encourage learners to attend schools and participate in the learning process.

According to Van Wart (2011) rewarding as a motivational strategy is made up of tangible incentives such as promotions, increases in pay, increased discretion, superior work assignments and provision of additional responsibility. To him, a reward does not necessarily have to be a financial one. The first task of a manager is to find out what motivates his/her employees and make a balance between employee's needs and the offered reward. Van Wart (2011) continues that, recognition is a motivational strategy which is very important, it is an intangible incentives that shows gratitude and offer praise. But yet, it has been underutilized by most managers in organization. He further said that, recognition has an optimistic meaning and it acknowledges good behavior or actions.

Van Wart (2011) is therefore of the opinion that, managers in organizations can provide this strategy in their organization while managing by walking around their organization and can also do it by giving a warm hand shake, through celebration, a good word and a

short written comment on a piece of paper just to name a few. Lanzeby (2008) is also saying that, managers always use feedback to shape employee performance. But his point here is, how do managers use this feedback? Because to him, feedback motivates employees and improves their actions. But, if it is poorly carried out, it can demotivate employees. Lanzeby's (2008) view here is that, managers should structure feedback in a way that, the victims will accept the comments for future improvement rather than using criticism for negative performance.

According to Re'em (2011), responsibility and autonomy are things in organizations which are being valued by everyone in the organization. To him, some employees like and wish for it while others try all their possible best to avoid it. He therefore states that, managers must try to know their employees' character before giving them more freedom.

Career advancement along with career services, are very essential in organizations. Therefore, managers should conduct timely, structured, and in-depth interviews with employees to know their needs and aspirations. Managers should further provide career advice and fit a career plan to the employee (Van Wart, 2011). By doing all this, employees will be highly motivated and eventually, there will be greater productivity. Re'em (2011) stressed that, training plays an important role when it comes to employees' motivation in the organization because it prevents them from failing, due to a lack of skills. Therefore, managers should offer employees with so much training in order to increase their chances of doing a successful and competent job. Van Wart (2011) content that, given each and every employee due, regardless of your position in the organization, means their basic humanity is appreciated and valued. He posits that, managers should

implement a person-orientated leadership style and show a positive regard for others to the highest degree possible. However, the concern of this study was to establish the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to enhance school attendance of adolescent girls.

Teacher–child relations play a prominent role in the development of competencies in early school-age years (Pianta, Steinberg, & Rollins, 1995; Pianta & Walsh, 1996) and during the transition to middle school (Davis, 2003; Pianta, 1999). Teachers may operate as social agents, and they can affect students' intellectual and socio-emotional experiences by creating a classroom setting that stimulates both student motivation and learning. Moreover, teacher–student relationships serve a regulatory function for the development of social, emotional, and academic skills (Davis, 2003). Studies have shown that positive teacher–student relationships can lead to a warm classroom environment that facilitates successful adaptation in school and thereby increases student motivation to learn. In contrast, conflictual teacher–student relationships are associated with lower achievement and self-esteem as well as ongoing relational conflict with both teachers and peers (Buyse, Verschueren, Doumen, Van Damme, & Maes,2008), Motivation to Learn(Koca, 2016; Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

Research has further indicated that children with whom teachers report positive relationships are outgoing and socially competent (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Pianta et al., 1995). Moreover, in these studies the teachers believed that high-quality relationships between teachers and their students enhance classroom learning and motivation by building a safe and supportive classroom context for students to open up and listen to the

teachers and take intellectual risks (Birch & Ladd, 1997; Pianta et al., 1995). Similarly, the beliefs teachers hold about teaching and learning, and the nature of expectations they have about their students also exert a powerful influence (Stipek, 1988). These findings support the key role of teacher–student relationships on children's motivation to learn and school adjustment.

A variety of studies have examined the influence of familial, academic, and personal factors on student academic failure and poor motivation to learn (Covington, 1992). Among personal variables most studied are self-concept, unfavorable motivational beliefs, low ability, and personal goal orientation (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Stipek, 2002). For example, unfavorable beliefs impede the learning process because they direct the learner's attention away from the learning activity (Ryan, Gheen, & Midgley, 1998; Stipek, 1988). Most students believe their ability and effort are the main reasons for school achievement. By the same token, if asked whether they would prefer to be called smart or hard-working, they will choose smart almost every time. Why? Because they believe that hard-working students risk being considered either excessively ambitious or of limited ability, both of which they would find embarrassing (Stipek, 1988; 2002).

Previous research proposed that the single factor with the greatest impact on whether a student learns is his or her motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Stipek, 1988, 2002). Motivation is considered an important, if not the most important, factor influencing student learning. Qin and Wen (2002) found that the presence or absence of motivation is in large part what determines success or failure in second language learning. Motivated students use learning strategies more frequently, have a stronger will to learn, and thus set

more and higher goals for themselves, and they are more persistent in learning. Stipek (1988) pointed out that motivation influences the learners' autonomous learning ability and determines the learners' confidence in overcoming learning difficulty. These theories demonstrate that motivation, as one of the crucial factors determining success in language learning, attracts much attention from researchers (Li & Pan, 2009).

It has been argued that motivation is not only the key ingredient in outstanding work but also in extraordinary achievement. Runco, Nemiro, and Walberg (1998) claimed that creative genius grows out of the ability to sustain intense commitment for very long periods in the face of obstacles—in other words, motivation. In contrast, a widespread belief holds that accomplishment, and especially outstanding accomplishment, is about innate talent. People who believe this somehow ignore the fact that Mozart, Charles Darwin, Michael Jordan, and Tiger Woods practiced feverishly and single-mindedly for years, instead believing that they were simply born with a talent that cannot be achieved through motivation or any other controllable factor (Dweck, 2002).

Proponents of the former belief — that motivation and not talent is the core ingredient for success—have developed various ways to bring that motivation to the classroom to enhance student academic achievement. One major school of thought is called "progressive education." This approach is centered on the importance of genuine student interest (Simmons & Page, 2010). A student's interest or motivation can stem from innumerable factors and, of course, will vary depending on the student. Researchers in the field have categorized student motivation into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic. A student who is intrinsically motivated commits him or herself to a task for its own

sake, that is, for the enjoyment of it, the learning it allows, and for a feeling of accomplishment. A student who is extrinsically motivated commits to a task in order to receive a reward from a source external to him or herself such as from the teacher (Macabudbud et al., 2009). This study was concerned with the following teacher motivational strategies: caring, enhancing language related values and attitudes, creating realistic learner believes, making learning stimulating and promoting cooperation among the students.

2.6 Effect of Teacher' Modeling strategies on School Attendance

Modelling is a process of learning or acquiring new information, skills or behavior through observation. The relationships that are established within the classroom will provide a platform from which students' learning will soar. The relationship a student has with the teacher is one of the best predictors of students' effort and engagement in learning (Stipek, 2006). The teacher's enthusiasm, interest, positive emotion and encouragement promote different attitudes towards students' achievement and willingness to participate (Turner & Patrick, 2004).

Students need to view a teacher as someone who is genuinely concerned, invests time in them, and is interested in what is occurring in their lives; not a person who only gives assignments and tests (Phillips, 2003; Utay & Utay, 2005). Teachers who are respected, trusted, and cared for personally are inclined to support their students in the same manner (Stipek, 2006). Teachers can be a positive role model to the students by not only teaching academics, but taking the time to be a confidant (Novick, 1998). Students who have a secure relationship with their teacher tend to take more risks, display increased

motivation to attempt challenging tasks, and are willing to ask for assistance when needed (Stipek, 2006). To engage and support a shy student, a teacher needs to initiate interaction, even through simple conversations. Patience, listening attentively, being sensitive to the interests and feelings of the student, and providing encouragement is also important (Cohen, 2005; Lacinda-Gifford, 2001). Teachers need to consistently demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of individual and cultural differences within the classroom (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002).

The teacher's role in the classroom will impact students' behaviors. The development of positive relationships between the teacher and students and between the students themselves will contribute to educational success (Clark, 2003). A student's adjustment to school may be affected by the teacher's supportive behaviors (Utay & Utay, 2005). A teacher should respond to misbehavior gently and with greater explanation than punishment. Students appreciate a teacher who provides constructive feedback, offers support, holds them accountable, and refuses to give up on them. It is advantageous for a teacher to take the time to communicate with the students about their learning and comprehension about what has been presented.

Allowing students the opportunity to be involved in classroom decisions creates an atmosphere of care and trust. Taking the time to learn about students' interests and having conversations about their personal lives, can aid in their academic and social successes (Stipek, 2006). These interactions can increase a student's sense of self-worth and self-awareness (Utay & Utay, 2005). The teacher should take the time to make each child feel unique and valuable (Phillips, 2003). Children know teachers care about them

when they are greeted as they enter the classroom, their emotional needs are addressed, and they are treated fairly (Stipek, 2006).

A priority of the teacher should be to attend to the social and emotional needs of the students (Clark, 2003). Teachers should provide direct instruction to children pertaining to social skills and the appropriate language to be utilized when interacting with other students (Bullock, 1993).

Teacher feedback needs to be such that students can develop strategies from the teacher's comments. This helpful feedback may increase academic and social success (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). When a teacher indicates the desired behavior or action, it aids the child in self-assessing how to proceed (Glazer, 1993).

Observing children in a variety of environments, such as field trips, center time, group projects, recess, or specials can provide further information about a child. Anecdotal notes are a method for organizing the information (Jalongo, 2006). Collecting this information provides another opportunity for feedback, and teacher insight. The feedback will be used to make adjustments on how to relate with the learners and show them what is expected of them. Through observation, the learners can be able to appreciate the need for attending and participating in school activities. Therefore a teacher becomes a role model to the learners.

Communicating with parents any observations about their child can provide consistency (Bullock, 1993). Ideally, parents and teachers should communicate when to praise, ignore, or focus attention on particular behaviors (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002).

Frequently, children will respond favorably to positive peer influence and teacher reinforcement. The teacher may reduce the use of individual rewards, and reward the preferred behaviors through group reinforcement (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003).

Some children respond to a desired reward to change the original behavior, and others change behavior due to the strengthened personal connection with the teacher, parent, or peer (Utay & Utay, 2005). Teachers should be committed and understand the significance of strong communication skills and how it relates to overall student success (Butler & Stevens, 1997). It is the teacher's responsibility to recognize different interaction styles and to adapt the communication environment accordingly (Jalongo, 2006).

A teacher's method of calling upon students: volunteer vs. non-volunteer, the frequency in which a specific student is called upon, and prompting for understanding can influence students' participation and achievement (Turner &Patrick, 2004). Standing in proximity or calling upon a student more frequently can increase engagement (Brophy, 1996). Proper communication strategies adopted by the teachers help the learners to express themselves and therefore able to share their insights with the teachers. This is likely to enhance the relationship between the teacher and the students. This is an important aspect towards attendance by the learners which was the concern of this study.

Learners benefit from class discussions and participation. Even shy students may use this time to formulate their thinking and expand their understanding of presented concepts. Teachers should utilize opportunities for small group discussions and the use of open-ended questions to promote a variety of responses from the students. The purpose and value of classroom discussions needs to be explained to the students. The teacher should

realize that the incorporation of class discussion would require additional time in lesson presentation (Townsend, 1998).

A teacher's interaction with individual students should reflect an awareness of their unique needs. A child's stress and embarrassment can be minimized by the support of the teacher (Brophy, 1996). Allowing additional time may enable shy students to become more comfortable with new people, activities and situations (Bullock, 1993). Teachers need to recognize that a student's lack of participation may be due to the preoccupation of mentally processing concepts and information that has been presented (Townsend, 1998). The teacher can also assist with smooth transitions and consistency in classroom routines to help children remain on task (Trienweller, 2006).

Creating a warm, friendly, nurturing environment that students want to enter every day is a crucial role for the teacher (Clark, 2003; Holbrook, 1987; Lacinda-Gifford, 2001). Teachers need to provide an atmosphere for the students which encourage success for their efforts and achievements (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). A student's accomplishments can be fostered when the child has the freedom to learn in a setting that is caring and student oriented (Brophy, 1996; Phillips, 2003). The environment may reflect the different needs of the students. An introverted child appreciates a quiet and less stimulating setting. Bright colors, open space, and frequent sound changes may be appealing to others (Schmeck & Lockhart, 1983). A pro-social environment includes students who model caring and socially competent behaviors. This provides children with a feeling of security and encourages the development of new social relationships (Hoglund & Leadbeater, 2004). Teachers, as role models should therefore create a

conducive learning environment to enable learners develop positive attitude towards learning, hence increasing school attendance.

To further foster the social development of the students in the classroom, the teacher should create a sense of community (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Classroom rules should reflect what is socially appropriate. It should be encouraged that all children are respected members of the classroom (Jalongo, 2006). Treating others with respect and working together to solve problems and other issues are components of a healthy classroom community (Phillips, 2003). The social dimensions of the classroom ought to be considered by the teacher in order for all individuals to feel accepted and be willing to participate (Stipek, 2006). Teachers can build upon the community concept through cooperative group work (Harriott, 2004). By creating a non-threatening atmosphere, students experience the benefits from playing and working together (Bullock, 1993). When the teacher assists in the development of these supportive social contexts, it promotes positive relationships with students (Stipek, 2006).

The environment the teacher creates impacts the student's ability to express oneself. Teachers need to construct a stimulating environment where expressing one's ideas is a priority of the day (Butler & Stevens, 1997). Simple accommodations in the classroom may nurture a student's willingness to participate. Allowing students to speak from their seats as opposed to the front of the classroom may reduce anxiety (Holbrook, 1987). Teachers may attain greater participation from students when allowing them to work with students they feel comfortable with, particularly in partner or small group work (Brophy, 1996; Holbrook, 1987).

The physical setting created by the teacher can influence a student's disposition. Bulletin boards displaying the students' accomplishments, such as character recognition, good deeds, or exceptional work are important in celebrating students' successes (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003; Brophy, 1987). A quiet corner can provide some students with the opportunity to relax and regain composure prior to continuing on with other lessons (Trienweller, 2006). The "Comfort Corner" is a particular area where students may go, accompanied by a teacher and few other students in order to share feelings, thoughts, or ideas. The purpose of this area is to build the students' self-esteem and trust with others (Novick, 1998).

Teachers need to be aware of their own attitudes that they are modeling (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). Although students informally view teachers as role models, teachers need to intentionally teach and model basic social skills. Teachers need to consistently demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of individual and cultural differences within the classroom. Through the modeling process teachers can also teach compromise, respect, kindness, and empathy (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Seeking clarification and feedback, and ensuring acceptance of others can be modeled and taught (Clark, 2003). Teachers' instructional behaviors and practices can influence the development of student's work habits. This can be accomplished by how they encourage and support the students to participate in classroom activities (Turner & Patrick, 2004). To encourage the students to engage in social activities, teachers can model appropriate play interaction with peers (Greenspan, 2000; Jalongo, 2006).

To further develop social competence between peers, teachers can model questioning strategies that would enable students to obtain information from each other effectively (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Teachers should use their actions, words, gestures, and voice intonation appropriately in order to model respectful interactions (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Teachers, who engage students in dialogue positively, can increase their motivation in participation (Phillips, 2003). Based on the teacher's language usage, students will be able to self-assess their actions and dictate their growth both socially and academically (Glazer, 1993). Just as teacher modeling of good communication skills is important, so is the teacher's ability to encourage students and establish a relationship of trust in order to help them communicate effectively.

When teachers are flexible, vulnerable, and honest with students, effective communication can be accomplished (Schnapp & Olsen, 2003). Children who are encouraged to take risks become confident in their ability to use language for a variety of purposes (Butler & Stevens, 1997). Students can be motivated to learn when teachers are confident and are available for support and friendship (Bullock, 1993; Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). One strategy teachers can implement in order to help students feel good about themselves is to communicate with parents to discover what their child likes and dislikes. Teachers can then provide the students with activities that focus on their strengths and interests (Brophy, 1996; Bullock, 1993; Lacinda-Gifford, 2001). Similarly, a students' confidence can increase when they are informally questioned about topics in which they are knowledgeable (Holbrook, 1987).

Students may have more success when they communicate matters with familiarity versus something more abstract (Mathinos, 1988). Teachers can reinforce communication skills by assigning students to tasks that require communication (Brophy, 1996). When students positively communicate with each other, teachers should praise them (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). It is beneficial for students to be positively reinforced when they are acting assertively (Hess, 1997, McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002).

Part of a teacher's role is to listen attentively to students and be willing to act upon some of their ideas (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). A teacher can also build confidence by encouraging a child to join a group and share their ideas. By placing students into groups, the more confident peers can help engage the reserved students (Brophy, 1996; Greenspan, 2000). When students are allowed to document their thoughts prior to classroom discussions, they may be better prepared to participate (Townsend, 1998). To build self-confidence, students need to identify their own strengths and weaknesses through self-assessment (Glazer, 1993; Kling, 2000; Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Self-evaluation is important for students to learn management skills (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Teachers can help students develop ways to monitor and evaluate their own performance and then make necessary changes (Lapan et al., 2002).

Students need to feel as though their input will be acknowledged and valued (Seefeldt & Prophett, 2004). Many successful students tend to think that they are successful because of their own efforts and abilities. Unsuccessful students tend to think that they cannot do anything to impact their performance and blame their failures on their inabilities. They

attribute their successes to luck or easy work and do not typically give themselves credit (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003).

In order to effectively encourage participation and advocacy within the classroom, the students' social and emotional needs should be addressed. Social development needs to be accepted as an integral part of educating the whole child (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Teachers should realize that student effort and the use of proficient strategies would promote educational success (Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). Academic and social success can also be achieved when children are taught to care about others (Phillips, 2003). Students should be encouraged to cooperate, collaborate, show care and respect, and perform simple acts of kindness to strengthen their social and emotional confidence (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). When students learn how to recognize and manage their emotions, form caring relationships and understand how others feel, they can be successful socially and academically (Hess, 1997).

Appropriate strategies will become more natural, when students learn and practice concrete ways to manage their emotions (Clark, 2003). An essential part of addressing the social and emotional needs of children is to treat them with respect (Utay & Utay, 2005). Children who feel they have been listened to are more willing to become active participants in the learning process (Phillips, 2003). Children's individuality should be embraced in order to create a safe and enriching social environment. Teachers should be accepting of a child's basic temperament rather than attempting to change it (Bullock, 1993). Children should not be made to feel that being outgoing is better; they need to be accepted for who they are. When teachers respect and understand the student who feels

the need to stand back, listen, and observe a situation before involving themselves, they are encouraging the student's self esteem (Bullock, 1993).

Another alternative to enhance self-esteem is to have a trusted adult serve as a social coach or to pair a younger student with an older student mentor (Pocock et al., 2002; Utay & Utay, 2005). Praising and encouraging students is another way to address their social and emotional needs. Children of all ages respond best to direct praise. When given positive comments, students are encouraged to strive and persevere until they have accomplished a goal (Glazer, 1993). Just as students respond positively to praise, rewards are also encouraging. Rewards that are given for good behavior can encourage cooperation (Hoglund & Leadbeater, 2004).

It is important for children to be aware of their feelings for optimal emotional and social development. Students can connect with their feelings through art, music, writing, a worry box, using picture cards, or simply by talking about their emotions (Hess, 1997; Jalongo, 2006; Utay& Utay, 2005). The quantity of time a child spends with the family is as important as the quality of the time they spend together (Utay & Utay, 2005). Parents can be a great support by being aware of the child's feelings and by showing empathy (Cohen, 2005). In order to assess a parent's perception of their child's social proficiency, a parent can be surveyed using a rating scale (Jalongo, 2006). The information received from this rating scale will assist the classroom teacher in addressing the social and emotional development of the students.

Teachers have the opportunity to teach children social skills and appropriate words to use when interacting with others (Bullock, 1993). Teaching these skills will encourage successful interactions between students. When students learn proper ways to handle their emotions and have opportunities to practice that skill, responding appropriately to others will become more natural (Clark, 2003). Encouraging genuine communication within the classroom may begin with allowing students to express their feelings through a safe avenue such as a simple survey. The classroom teacher may seek information about how the students feel about playing at recess, sharing a toy, or coming to school (Jalongo, 2006). Providing raw materials such as cardboard boxes, blocks, Lincoln Logs and dramatic play items will encourage students to work together, negotiate, share ideas, and solve problems (Seefeldt & Prophett, 2004).

If there are students that are less sure of themselves, the teacher should support those students in taking social risks (Cohen, 2005). In order for students to attain positive communication skills, they should have opportunities to get to know one another better and to hear experienced speakers (Holbrook, 1987). Incorporating both individual and group activities within the classroom will encourage all students to be participants and not just spectators (Schnapp & Olsen, 2003).

Frequently students with stronger communication skills can be used as models for students that are less able. In order to encourage successful student interaction, the teacher may consider pairing shy students with students that are well liked and interact easily (Lacinda-Gifford, 2001). Pairing a student with another student that the child is familiar with allows both children to communicate effortlessly (Mathinos, 1988).

Because of their confidence, socially competent students should be encouraged to initiate interactions with students that are less willing (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002).

When practicing social skills with the class, the chosen participants' level of acceptance by their peers and their willingness to participate should be considered (Turner & Patrick, 2004). Giving the students hypothetical situations in which to practice their communication skills will help them to learn how to verbalize their feelings (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Many shy students would benefit from instruction in the areas of assertiveness and how to initiate a conversation (Brophy, 1996). Providing periodic small group settings will allow the inhibited students to interact more comfortably within the group (Bullock, 1993; Greenspan, 2000).

School is a useful platform in which communication skills can be learned, practiced, and improved upon. Some students have yet to learn the very basics in communicating, such as the ability to verbalize their feelings and how to summarize what they are saying (Lapan et al., 2002; McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). All individuals need to be exposed to a wide range of potential communication situations. Given this exposure, students will learn the variation in language usage within different environments. Once the skills have been learned, students should have many opportunities to demonstrate their oral communication in contextually appropriate and varied manners (Butler & Stevens, 1997). The opportunity to apply newly learned communication skills is particularly important for socially withdrawn and anxious students (Adalbjarnardottir, 1995). By allowing students to practice various interactions and negotiation skills in a safe environment, they will learn the flexibility in their own language (Butler &Stevens, 1997).

Successful communication will be increased when students become more aware of messages that are sent non-verbally or how messages are impacted by non-verbal markers. For example, non-verbal messages can convey encouragement (Glazer, 1993), but only if the student knows how to receive the non-verbal cues. Picture activities may help students identify facial expressions and their meanings (Timler, 2003). Even cartoon stories are a useful tool for studying and discovering nonverbal and verbal cues (Adams, 2005). The use of body language and how messages can be conveyed differently through the use of various movements should be discussed with students (Hess, 1997). Shy students may not be aware of the messages that they are sending through non-verbal markers. However, the shy student can be guided through talking more slowly and loudly, lifting his chest, pulling his shoulders back and down, and walking slower. These non-verbal markers send a message of confidence (Cohen, 2005). A simple example of a message that is sent through body language is when a child raises his hand to let the teacher know that he is interested in sharing. The teacher can model positive communication skills by acknowledging children's voice tone and facial expressions and responding appropriately (Seefeldt & Prophett, 2004). Listening is a skill that is often taken for granted, yet is frequently done very poorly. Listening involves considering others' feelings, summarizing and seeking clarification of what others are saying, and asking open-ended questions. The listener also needs to send and receive feedback and acknowledge others' responses (Clark, 2003). Active listening involves making eye contact, using head nods, leaning towards the speaker, and summarizing the speaker's comments (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Observation skills are an integral part of

effective communication. Children should be taught how to observe the communication skills others use. They need to know how to enter and exit a conversation, be aware of the turn taking that occurs, and know not to monopolize conversations (Utay & Utay, 2005).

To encourage the development of self-advocacy, drama and role-plays can be used in the classroom in order to boost the students' oral language skills and their ability to communicate their needs to others (Schnapp & Olsen, 2003; Holbrook, 1987). It is important to give students the opportunity to role-play a variety of scenarios in order to practice appropriate conversations, receive feedback, and practice assertive behaviors in a safe environment (Hess, 1997; Schnapp & Olsen, 2003). These activities address issues such as how to recall information, the effect of verbal and nonverbal communication, listening skills, concentration, turn taking, and socially acceptable behaviors (Schnapp & Olsen, 2003). Role-playing in a variety of contexts provides students the opportunity to practice their problem solving skills (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002; Kling, 2000). Interventions such as teaching social communication behaviors, modeling, and role-playing can also help students play cooperatively and enter into peer groups more confidently (Timler et al., 2005). Teachers can assist by providing positive group play opportunities for children and by setting social development goals to practice peer relations (Lacinda-Gifford, 2001; McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Charades and puppets can also be used to role-play ways to take turns in a conversation (Holbrook, 1987; Seefeldt & Prophett, 2004).

In order for role-play to be a successful intervention, it is important for teachers to allow discussion afterward. Students can discuss alternative ways to handle each situation and

find possible causes and solutions (Hess, 1997; Kozminsky & Kozminsky, 2003). Students can also learn to mediate, negotiate, and build consensus. Teachers should encourage students to develop multiple solutions to a problem (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003).

There are many activities that can be incorporated into the school day that will encourage classroom participation and advocacy skills among the students. Frequently, establishing a group identity through class rituals and traditions assists in classroom morale (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). Also, conducting class meetings in order to discuss academics, learning experiences, time management and classroom relationships will promote cohesiveness within the classroom. During these meetings all participants should be at the same eye level, including the teacher. A talking stick may be used to encourage participation and respect (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). One of the most effective teaching strategies is to use teachable moments. By addressing a specific behavioral issue or subject as it arises, the teacher and students are able to immediately learn from the experience (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002; Phillips, 2003).

These teachable moments can also be used to discuss advocacy skills with the class. The use of a sharing chair may provide an individual or small group with an avenue through which they can share an issue, current event, concern or celebration (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Giving the students opportunities to share and listen are vital to the development of self-esteem, communication skills, and eventually, advocacy skills. Social icebreakers can be used to encourage relationships within the classroom (Brophy,

1996). Icebreakers and other activities may elicit the discovery of shared interests with peers (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002).

The teacher can also provide opportunities for students to get to know one another better by integrating class activities that encourage oral communication (Holbrook, 1987). Shy students may require additional effort on behalf of the teacher. Teachers can try to engage quiet students in specially designed activities (Brophy, 1996), or physically join a group and gently invite the quiet student to participate. Once the quiet student has become comfortable within the group, the teacher can then leave the group (Bullock, 1993). The use of cooperative groups also encourages the development of peer relationships (Obenchain & Abernathy, 2003). Peers that are socially competent should be given opportunities to interact with those who need support (Harriott, 2004).

In order for participation to increase and advocacy skills to develop, students need to gain a sense of self-ownership. Students should be encouraged to embrace their feelings and abilities. Students ought to be allowed a brief time at the beginning of class to review the subject content and organize their own thoughts and questions (Townsend, 1998). Likewise, students should be given an expectation with a time stipulation. This allows the students to organize their thoughts. For example, a teacher may warn the class that they will be discussing a specific issue or topic in two minutes (Trienweller, 2006). Once students have been exposed to a variety of strategies, teachers need to allow the students to practice those strategies on a variety of tasks, and in several curricular areas (Lapan et al., 2002). Authentic assessment and portfolios allows children to be engaged and able to monitor their learning (Glazer, 1993). Each of these activities will allow the students to

recognize their individual needs. This was relevant to the current study as it is concerned with motivational and modeling strategies employed by the teachers and parents as perceived by the pupils in order to increase school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

After reviewing the literature, primary pupils' participation and ability to communicate effectively can be increased through direct instruction of communication skills, role-play, and teacher modeling. A teacher utilizing these strategies can positively impact a student's ability to function within both the school and community. This will encourage pupils to attend classes. The current study sought to investigate the teachers modeling strategies which included: attending to the learners' social and emotional needs, interaction with individual pupils, supporting pupils emotionally and financially, understanding and appreciating individual pupils' cultural differences and mentoring them. This was investigated in relation to primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.

2.7 Influence of Parents' Modeling strategies on School Attendance

Scholars have also suggested that it may be effective to engage parents as part of the team working in support of improved student attendance (Sheverbush, Smith, & DeGruson, 2000). Sheverbush et al. (2000) specifically note the importance of emphasizing solutions that come from families as opposed to schools. Implementation of strategies aimed at developing family, school, and community partnerships has proven effective in increasing daily attendance rates as well as decreasing chronic absence. Epstein and Sheldon (2002) identified key program elements in building partnerships to reduce

absences, including: making home visits to families of chronically absent students; rewarding students for improved attendance; establishing a contact person at school for parents to work with; improving student attendance; calling home when students are absent; conducting workshops for families about attendance; referring chronically absent students to counselors; using a truant officer to work with problem students and families.

Schools that focused on increasing attendance by implementing strategies with these key elements showed a more substantial increase in daily attendance rates from one year to the next for participating schools, as well as a two percent decrease in chronic absence. Additionally, schools that offered after-school programs also had larger increases in daily attendance and larger decreases in chronic absence than those schools that did not offer after-school programs. According to Kathleen and Kathleen (2004), Mother's schooling raises attendance for all children (Boys and Girls), whereas fathers schooling is associated with an attendance probability that is higher for boys but lower for girls. This means that if the mothers are educated they model their girls well and the attendance of girls will rise in school.

According to research on mothers' influence on their daughter's gender role attitudes, the researchers found mothers with nontraditional attitudes to be more authoritative, and this authoritative parenting style tends to influence the daughters' attitudes to be more nontraditional as well(Carine & Jan, 1998). This shows that mothers can influence their daughters as far as school attendance is concerned. This is what the study sought to establish. Nontraditional attitudes represent an egalitarian style of living for both men and women, such that they are sharing responsibilities for housework, child care, and paid

work (Scanzoni & Fox, 1980). It is quite possible that these girls, who have supportive mothers and mastery goal orientations, have more of a secure relationship with their mothers, which is said to have positive outcomes. For instance, Jacobsen and Hofmann (1997) found that children who are securely attached are more likely to earn higher grades and be more involved at school than children who are not securely attached.

Furthermore, perhaps secure relationships allow the girls to look past the grades and look more at the learning aspect, which would be a mastery goal orientation. A major problem facing schools is how to effectively deal with student absenteeism and truancy (DeSocio et al., 2007).When a student has not attended school for a long period of time or frequently misses school, they are classified as truant. These students forgo opportunities to learn. When a student does not come to school for a lengthy period of time, one may assume these students are learning elsewhere, but unfortunately in most circumstances this is not the case (RI Kids Count, 2007). Students start truanting in primary school, and often continue through secondary school and so on (Reid, 2005). Student absenteeism and truancy have become a large problem with students today and receives little attention due to the abundance of other issues and priorities that social workers and other service agencies are faced with (Teasley, 2004).

Absenteeism is a period of time when a student does not attend school (Teasley,2004). Students who do not attend school will generally fall behind their classmates in their academic success (Ford & Sutphen, 1996). They have fewer opportunities to learn the materials that will help them to succeed (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002). Reasons students do not attend school can be influenced by a number of factors ranging from a lack of

community support and an unsupportive school environment or family to bad weather, transportation problems and poor health (Teasley, 2004).

Truancy is like absenteeism, but truancy is an unexcused absence from school or classes about which parents typically do not know. Truancy in students has been found to stem from an influence of peers, relations with teachers, the way the curriculum is delivered to the student, family aspects, bullying and others (Reid, 2014). The main difference between truancy and absenteeism is that truancy is unexcused and unlawful absence from school without parental knowledge or consent (Teasley, 2004). Despite early interventions such as peer tutoring, mentoring, interventions within the school, family, neighborhood and community, incentive programs are important to battling school truancy and absenteeism (Teasley, 2004). Although a critical factor to breaking the habitual pattern of truancy is intervention, existing social service interventions are failing to effectively get students to attend school (DeSocio et al., 2007).

There is little evidence to accurately estimate the long-term effects of absenteeism and truancy on a student's future adult lifestyle (Reid, 2005). Social services need to be more targeted to the specific truancy problem, assess risks and factors related to absenteeism and truancy and support collaborative efforts between agencies, families and students (Teasley, 2004). Interventions and incentives need to be tailored to individual student's needs and these interventions work best when there is an alliance between the teachers and parents (Teasley, 2004). Attendance rates within schools do not seem to be improving (Reid, 2003). Collaborations of service have suffered for a number of reasons. National aims and objectives for services need to be agreed upon and staff working in

education, social work, and other services should be operating at the same level. Workloads for service agencies are notorious for being high which may be a factor to why many of these interventions are not happening early (Reid, 2003). Within each state, laws regarding truancy are in effect, but often national trends do not reflect local policy (Teasley, 2004). School social workers must be familiar with the legal aspects of truancy in the states in which they practice. Social workers must also work within the parameters of the law and do what is acceptable to effectively intervene with truant individuals (Teasley, 2004).

Statistics indicate that in reality only half of all students are attending school every day and that the factors which contribute to student absenteeism and truancy seem endless (NCES, 2006). In Rhode Island during the school year of 2005-2006, 22 percent of students residing in Rhode Island's core cities were absent more than 20 days and as a whole, 14 percent of the state was absent. In order to improve the current rate of 85 percent to 92 percent in the core cities, 1,194 students on average would have to attend classes each day of the school year (RI Kids Count, 2007). Zero tolerance policies have basically alienated students rather than helping them to improve attendance and learning in school (Teasley, 2004). There are short term consequences to student's absence from school such as falling behind in school work, low educational success, poor social skills and isolation from friends and longer term consequences related to joblessness and lowered income. Not only are there educational consequences but legal consequences such as juvenile delinquency, alcohol and drug use, and sexual promiscuity at illegal ages (Teasley, 2004), indicating that absenteeism and truancy is a current significant social problem.

Parents, especially mothers are expected to play a major role in assisting adolescent girls to settle in school and have high self-esteem. However, studies indicate that cultural taboos/etiquette inhibits open discussion of menstruation and other challenges adolescent girls face in many Kenyan family settings (Mason et al., 2013). In Kenya, girls often struggle to obtain information on menstruation and puberty due to a lack of supportive school staff or even family members to discuss these issues with(Muito, 2004; McMahon et al., 2011; Mason et al., 2013). Many girls also experience considerable pressure from family members to leave school so that they can take on a larger share of household work and ultimately get married – issues that reflect broader risks. Such silences cause many girls to view menstruation (and puberty more generally) as something shameful. Crichton *et al.*'s (2012) study of mother-daughter communication regarding sexual maturation in Nairobi, for example, found many barriers including mothers knowing little about puberty and daughters feeling embarrassed to ask for information. A Kenyan national survey revealed that under 50% of parents discussed sex-related topics with their children (Eisenberg et al., 2006) reflecting a common perception that it is inappropriate for parents and children to discuss sexual maturation (Wamoyi *et al*., 2010). According to Malusu and Zani (2014), the tradition of young girls being educated about menstruation and sexual maturity by their grandmothers (rather than by their parents) in many parts of SSA has been eroded by the loss of many grandmothers to HIV/AIDS, leaving an important knowledge gap that is only partially filled in school.

According to Malusu and Zani (2014), Kenyan pupils are normally taught about menstruation during biology lessons in class 3, girls that start primary school late or repeat grades may be in their teens and already menstruating when they attend these lessons. Consequently, many girls have no idea what is happening when their periods actually start. This is expected to be done by the mothers while at home. In conclusion, supportive mothers influence their daughters' academic success through the obtainment of mastery goal orientations. Mothers seem to be important because of the strong and secure relationship they have with their daughters. The parents modeling strategies which were investigated in this study included: having secure relationship with their daughters, emphasizing solutions that come from families as opposed to schools, developing a partnership between family, school and community, referring chronically absent students to counselors and establishing a contact person at school for parents to work with. This study therefore sought to establish the modeling strategies employed by parents as perceived by pupils to enhance adolescent girls' school attendance in Baringo County, Kenya.

2.8 Summary

This chapter has reviewed studies related to the current study as was done by other scholars. Literature reviewed shows that increased frequency of activities was associated with higher levels of child misbehavior in the classroom (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow &Fendrich, 1999). Specifically, Izzo et al. (1999) reported that an increase in the parent's school activities may help the teacher to manage the child's existing behavior problems. Parents' going to school most of the time is not because of indiscipline of the child, but to

get informed of how the child is going on in her academic work. When parents are involved in their children's academic lives, children tend to perform better academically than when their parents are not involved. Parents' involvement in their child's academics can take a number of different forms such as attending parent-teacher conferences and school activities such as school fairs. The more the parents go to school, the more the pupils focus on their academic work.

Families are now being recognized as an important influence on student attendance and an important resource for decreasing truancy and chronic absenteeism (Cimmarutsi, James, Simpson & Wright, 1984; Corville Smith, Ryan, Adams & Dalicandro, 1998; Weinberg& Weinberg, 1992; Ziesemer, 1984). This implies that absenteeism was likely to influence student's academic performance negatively, in unison to the study by Nicholas (2003), which established strong negative correlation among language, math and reading scores and yearly absence. Nicholas (2003) established a linkage between class attendance patterns and learner academic performance.

The present research is about parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance of adolescent girls. While the previous research established a linkage between class attendance patterns and learner academic performance, the present research established a linkage between parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies and school attendance of primary school adolescent girls. This study was carried out to establish the parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies that influence school attendance of adolescent girls.

Most of the studies reviewed focused on the role of parental involvement on academic performance of learners and others were conducted to establish the relationship between teacher motivation and academic achievement. This implies that the dependent variable for majority of the studies reviewed was students' academic achievement. Further, it should be noted that most of the studies reviewed were conducted in other levels of education. Little has been done on primary education. Majority of the researchers have also concentrated on both the girl-child and the boy-child but the current study was specific as it sought to address the motivational and modeling strategies employed by both parents and teachers to enhance school attendance of girls in primary school. The motivational strategies adopted by parents included attending school meetings and supervising children when doing assignments. The motivational strategies adopted by teachers included offering rewards and setting learner goals. The modeling strategies adopted by teachers included being confidants of pupils and encouraging successful student interaction while parents modeling strategies included being supportive and having more secure relationship with their girls.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the various methodological procedures that were employed in the study during its execution. The purpose of this section is to provide research design, a description of the study area, philosophical paradigm, the study population, sampling techniques and sample size, data sources and instruments, pilot study, validity and reliability of research instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis and presentation techniques and ethical considerations. Each of the sub-headings mentioned above is separately explained below.

3.2 Research Design

Research design refers to the plan of action that links the philosophical assumptions to specific methods (Creswell, 2003; Crotty, 1998). A research design is a basic arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. This study adopted a survey research design. A survey research design was justified because it captures the current perception of the teachers, headteachers and pupils who participated in this study with regards to the variables of the study. It explores and describes the opinions, feelings, views, preferences and attitudes of the selected sample of the population of the study. The study employed concurrent mixed method in which the researcher merged quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive

analysis of the research problem. In this design, the researcher collected both forms of data at the same time and then integrated the information in the interpretation of the overall results. The qualitative data collected through interview schedules provided an in depth understanding of the quantitative data concerning the motivational and modelling strategies employed by both parents and teachers. According to Mitzel, Bes t& Rabinowitz (1982), survey research design is the most widely used for obtaining insights into variables of study and how ideas relate to the research problem. It was therefore suitable for this study because the factors investigated and data collection procedures were descriptive in nature (Koul, 1984). The design was adopted because the population studied was large to be observed directly and thus economically viable both in time and money. A sample of population was studied and results generalized to the whole population. This yielded in-depth, rich and meaningful research findings.

3.3 Area of Study

This study was carried out in Baringo County, Kenya. The County lies within longitude of $35^0$30'E- 36^0 00' E and latitude of $1^0$00'N - 0^0 00' S. It is bordered by Turkana County to the North, Elgeyo Marakwet County to the West, West Pokot County to the North West, Nakuru County to the South, Kericho and Nandi Counties to the South West and Laikipia and Samburu Counties to the East (See Appendix VIII). Baringo County is home to different ethnic groups, with the majority being the Tugen. The major economic activity is farming in which maize, beans, bananas and oranges are grown on small scale. Other activities include quarrying, bee keeping and pastoralism. Baringo is peculiar because of Geysers of lake Bogoria and the beautiful Tugen hills. This area was chosen

for the study because of difficult environmental conditions that seem to affect the school attendance of girls more than boys. The documented evidence shows girls as disadvantaged in ASAL regions of which Baringo is part.

3.4 Philosophical Paradigm

Any methodology is based on a philosophical position or theoretical perspective or paradigm which provides a context for the process and its logic and criteria for the process and through which research is seen. The philosophical paradigm guides the research in question. According to Creswell (2014), a paradigm is a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study.

The current study is a mixed method design that uses both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Treating the two research methods as totally separate is not always correct, denting the possibilities for working back and forth between these two extremes in all cases is problematic according to Morgan (2007), who advocated a more pragmatic approach, examining what people can do with knowledge they produce and not on abstract arguments about the possibility or impossibility of generalizability. The philosophical worldview adopted by this study was transformative paradigm which addresses issues of social justice such as inequality. The transformative paradigm with its associated philosophical assumptions provides a framework for addressing inequality and injustice in society using culturally competent, mixed methods strategies.

The recognition that realities are shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, and racial/ethnic values indicates that power and privilege are important determinants of

which reality will be privileged in a research context. Methodological inferences based on the underlying assumptions of the transformative paradigm reveal the potential strength of combining qualitative and quantitative methods. The researcher sought to highlight fault. The fault in this research is differential enrolment which points to a problem with girls' education in Baringo County that needs to be solved. The Transformative paradigm focuses on the advocacy of the needs of the girl child.

3.5 The Study Population

A population is the entire group of individuals, events or objects having common observable characteristics. A target population is that population to which a researcher wants to generalize the results of a study (Kothari, 2008). The study was undertaken in primary schools in Baringo County. There are 656 primary schools in Baringo County with 140,011 pupils out of which 67,671 are girls and 72,340 are boys. The accessible population consisted of head teachers (656), teachers (656) and standard seven girls (8482) in public primary schools in the county because they had valuable information for this study. The standard seven girls were selected for the study because they were available since they were not preparing for national examinations unlike the class 8 pupils. The pupils helped obtain data on parental motivation and modeling.

Table 3.1 Accessible Population

Sub-county	Number of schools	STD. 7Girls	Head teachers	Class teachers
Baringo North	146	1752	146	146
Baringo central	118	1534	118	118
Mogotio	115	1265	115	115
Marigat	92	1472	92	92
East pokot	96	768	96	96
Koibatek	89	1691	89	89
TOTAL	**656**	**8482**	**656**	**656**

3.6 Sampling Procedures and Sample Size

Sampling is the process of selecting a sub-set of cases in order to draw conclusions about the entire set (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2003). A sample is a small part of a large population, which is thought to be representative of a larger population. Any statements made about the sample should be true for the entire population.

Multi-stage sampling was used in this study whereby schools were selected proportionately from the six sub-counties. Therefore, a total of 66 schools were selected which represents 10% of the total schools. This agrees with Neuman (2007) who noted that a sample size of at least 10%-30% is a good representation of the entire population. From each school, 30% of standard seven girls were selected as respondents through random sampling method. Each head teacher of the schools sampled and a class teacher of class seven from sampled schools were included in the study sample. In a case where a school had more than one stream for class seven, then simple random sampling was used to select one class to represent the rest. This meant that there were 66 Head teachers, 66

class teachers and 259 class seven girls(30% of total number in every sub-county), making a total of 391 respondents for this study. This is indicated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Sample frame

Sub-county	Total number of schools sampled	Std 7 girls in sampled schools	Girls sampled	Head teachers Sampled	Class teachers sampled
Baringo North	15	180	54	15	15
Baringo central	12	156	47	12	12
Mogotio	11	132	40	11	11
Marigat	9	144	43	9	9
East Pokot	10	80	24	10	10
Koibatek	9	171	51	9	9
TOTAL	**66**	**863**	**259**	**66**	**66**

3.7 Study Variables

Variable refers to a characteristic or attribute of an individual or organization that can be measured or observed (Creswell, 2014). The independent variables were parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies and the dependent variable was school attendance of primary school adolescent girls. The intervening variables were students' age and teacher's age, sex, experience and qualification. Teachers' working experience referred to the period the teacher has been doing the teaching profession and the relationship it has to motivation and modeling of the girls.

3.8 Research Instruments

Research instruments are techniques of data collection such as a quantitative standardized instrument (Creswell, 2003; van Manen, 1990). The researcher used questionnaire,

interview and document analysis as the tools for collecting data. The selection of these tools was guided by the nature of data to be collected, the time available as well as by the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The purpose of this study was to investigate pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance among primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County. The researcher was mainly concerned with the views, opinions, perceptions, feelings and attitudes. Such kind of information can be best collected through the use of questionnaire and interview techniques (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

3.8.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a set of questions on a topic or group of topics designed to be answered by a respondent. This implies that the respondent is in full control of the questionnaire and will thus complete and return it at his/her own convenient time. According to Kombo & Tromp (2006), a questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample. The questionnaire was suitable for this study, mainly because the variable under study could not be directly observed such as views, opinions, perceptions feelings and attitudes of the respondents. Such information is best collected through questionnaire (Kothari, 2008). The researcher also was able to collect information from members of various selected primary schools over a short period of time. Since it is a standard research instrument, it allows for uniformity in the manner in which questions are asked and makes it possible to be compared across respondents (Cohen, et al., 2003). It was also suitable because the target population was literate and thus limited chances of difficulties in responding to questionnaire

items. The questionnaire contained both closed ended and open ended items which were responded to by teachers and pupils (See Appendix II and Appendix III). The questionnaires of the teachers and pupils were divided into several sections. For students, section I was on girls background information. Section II was motivational strategies adopted by parents. Section III was modeling strategies adopted by parents. Section IV were motivational strategies adopted by teachers and section V were modeling strategies adopted by teachers. On teachers questionnaire the first section was information on their background. Section II were motivational strategies they adopted to increase pupils school attendance and the last section was on modeling strategies they adopted to increase school attendance. The questionnaires were designed by the researcher because he could not get questionnaires to adopt which could fit his study.

3.8.2 Interview schedule

Kothari (2008) observes that interview schedules are particularly suitable for intensive investigation. Interviews are flexible, take care of sensitive remarks and have high rate of response. The interview schedule was used for this study because it provided the researcher with great opportunity to describe the purpose of the study as stated by Best and Kahn (2005). The items were designed on the basis of the objectives and theory of the study as stated in chapter one. In this study interviews helped the researcher to obtain more information in greater depth, personal information as well as supplementary information about the respondent's personal characteristics and environment which is often of great value in interpreting results. Interviews enabled the researcher to get in

depth information about the teacher and parental motivational and modeling strategies and their influence on school attendance through the use of probing questions. Interviews gave the researcher the opportunity to clarify questions to the respondents thus avoid misinterpretation. In this study, interview schedules were conducted to gather data from head teachers (See Appendix IV).

3.8.3 Document Analysis Guide

The researcher analyzed important documents in the primary schools concerning the attendance of girls which included the school admission book and the class registers. This enabled the researcher to counter check with the information given by the respondents using other research instruments like questionnaire and interviews (See Appendix VI).

3.9 Pilot Study

The researcher carried out a pilot study using a sample similar to the study sample so as to be able to determine the reliability of the research instrument. This was done before the main study was carried out. The researcher visited three schools in Elgeyo Marakwet County. The sample constituted of 3 Head teachers, 3 class teachers of class seven and 27 girls from class seven. Elgeyo-Marakwet County was chosen for piloting because it is neighbouring Baringo County and both have rugged terrain and are within the ASAL region. Observations on school enrolment book and class registers during the piloting were useful in making provisional impressions about the situations prevailing in this setting. After piloting the research instruments were discussed with supervisors and where necessary modifications were done.

3.10 Reliability and Validity of the research instruments

The researcher tested both validity and reliability of the research instruments.

3.10.1 Reliability of the research instruments

A data collection instrument must be reliable. That means it should have the ability to consistently yield the same results when repeated measurements are taken of the same individuals under the same conditions. Creswell (2009) defines reliability as consistency or stability of the measurement or degree to which an instrument measures the same way, each time it is used under the same conditions with the same results. To estimate the reliability of the questionnaire used in this study, the test-retest method was used. The research tools were administered to teachers and pupils in Elgeyo Marakwet County which had similar characteristics as those of target population. This was repeated after a period of two weeks. From the responses that were obtained, a pearson product moment correlation formula was used to calculate the coefficient of the correlation in order to establish the extent to which the items in the questionnaire were consistent in eliciting the same responses every time they were administered. In this study correlation coefficient of 0.78 was obtained which indicated a high measure of reliability (Orodho, 2009). To ensure that internal and external consistency was addressed in the interview schedule, the researcher and his assistants used standardized methods to write field notes and transcripts. The researcher also compared observed data with his research assistants so as to increase dependability. To establish coding reliability the researcher and his assistants compared their responses and had a consensus estimate of over 90%.

3.10.2 Validity of the research instruments

Validity can be defined as the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure. It is the accuracy, truthfulness of inferences that are based on the data obtained from the use of a tool or variable in the study (Sheperis, Young &Daniels, 2010). The researcher tested both content and construct validity of the research instruments before administering them to the actual respondents in this study. Content validity is a type of validity that involves the systematic examination of the test content to determine whether it covers a representative sample of the behavior domain to be measured (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). In this study, the researcher sought the assistance of experts in the field of Educational Psychology, School of Education, Moi University. Through the validation, experts checked on the clarity of instructions to respondents, wordings of items and adequacy of items in addressing variables of the research. The researcher also sought guidance from fellow doctoral students. Their comments were incorporated in improving the validity of the instrument.

Construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data obtained from an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflects or represents a theoretical concept (Mugenda, 1999).This approach is often used where no criteria or domain of content is generally accepted. Concepts such as modeling and motivation are abstract and hypothetical. They cannot be directly observed but their effects on behavior of the subject can be observed (Mugenda, 2003).The supervisors helped to establish the extent to which the construct under investigation was measured. After piloting, the supervisors were given the

responses which they reviewed and thus helped the researcher to improve them hence making the instruments valid.

3.10.3 Triangulation

Triangulation is a powerful technique that facilitates validation of data through cross verification from two or more sources. In particular it refers to the application and combination of several research methods in the study of the same phenomenon (Bogdan &Biklen, 2006).The study used combination of questionnaire, document analysis guide and interview schedule at current data. The researcher and his assistants compared their notes so as to increase dependability. It was used in both quantitative (validation) and qualitative (dependability) because the study employed a mixed method.

3.11 Scoring of Instruments

The items measuring both motivational and modeling strategies in the questionnaire of teachers and pupils(See Appendix II and III) were scored using a five point likert scale whereby the scores were allocated depending on the favourableness or unfavourableness of the responses (Orodho, 2005). In the questionnaire, strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD) were scored as 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The highest score was 50 and the lowest was 10. A respondent who scored 35 and above agreed that motivational and modeling strategies increase adolescent girls' school attendance. Those who scored between 27 and 34 were neutral and those who scored 26 and below refuted the fact that motivational and modeling strategies increases

school attendance. The following table provides a summary of the scoring criteria that was used in this study.

Table 3.3 Scoring of Instruments

Variable	**Scoring criteria**		
	35-50	**27-34**	**26 and Below**
Motivation	High	Neutral	Low
Modeling	Positive	Ambivalent	Negative

Students' attendance was measured using a five point likert scale item. The students were required to state how frequent they attended school using the scale: always, most of the times, sometimes, less times and rarely. The responses were scored as 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively. The interviews collected qualitative data from the head teachers. The analysis of qualitative data followed the path of aggregating the words or images into categories of information and presenting the diversity of ideas gathered under specific corresponding objectives.

3.12 Data Collection Procedures

Before collecting data, the researcher sought an introductory letter from the School of Education, Moi University addressed to the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, Science and Technology(See Appendix IX). Thereafter, a permit and an authorization letter to carry out research was issued by National Commission for Science and Technology Innovation(See Appendix X and XI).The permit was presented to county Commissioner of Baringo county and County director of Education, Baringo county who

gave the researcher authority to collect data in their area of jurisdiction(See Appendix XII and XIII). Their authorization letters were collected by the researcher. The researcher with the assistance of research assistants proceeded to the field where they administered the research instruments. The research assistants were trained by the researcher on the ethical considerations to be observed throughout the data collection exercise.

3.13 Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical techniques were used in analyzing quantitative data that was obtained through the questionnaires. These were frequencies, percentages and mean scores. The mean scores were used because the mean was considered the most efficient measure of central tendency. Chi-square was the inferential statistical technique used to test the research hypothesis. The chi-square statistic is commonly used for testing relationships between two variables. The chi-square test results were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The researcher used the computer technology in the analysis of data Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 22. The analysis of the qualitative data (words or text or images) followed the path of aggregating the words or images into categories of information and presenting the diversity of ideas gathered during data collection. The responses obtained in the interviews were organized and prepared for analysis. The first step helped in providing a general sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect in its overall meaning. Therefore they were coded. This is the process of organizing data by bracketing chuncks and writing a word representing the category in the margins. After coding, themes were identified for analysis. After

identifying themes, the last step was to make an interpretation of the themes. Research assistants were called to check if what was included was indeed correct. The data was analyzed concurrently because the qualitative data provided an in-depth understanding of the quantitative data.

3.14 Ethical Considerations

Kombo and Tromp (2006) note that researchers who are people or animals must consider the conduct of their research, and give attention to the ethical issues associated with carrying out their research. This study dealt with people as respondents. In this study, the researcher observed the following research ethics: Permission to conduct the research. The researcher obtained a research permit from the ministry of Higher Education, Science and technology through the National council of Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI).The permit was presented to County Commissioner and County Director of Education Baringo. Concerning the Informed consent, participants were given enough information pertaining to the study before the administration of the research instrument (See Appendix I).

The possible benefits and value of the study were explained to participants. To demonstrate sensitivity to human dignity, participants' confidentialities were not compromised. Their names were not used and appeared nowhere in the collection of data instruments. No private or secret information was divulged since the right of confidentiality of the participants was respected; to establish good working relationship with the participants, the researcher developed a rapport with them; to ensure objectivity in this study the results were presented as they were found, without any artificial

alteration of information. Anonymity and confidentiality were demonstrated through thorough training of research assistants on how to handle ethical issues in research. Respondents were given the right to withdraw from the study if they so wished.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results of data analysis and hypotheses testing. The purpose of this study was to establish pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County. In the first section, a description of the demographic profiles of the respondents is presented. This is followed by a section that provides a descriptive analysis of the study variables in conjunction with the results of thematic analyses of the questionnaires and interviews conducted with 66 head teachers. The final section presents results of the hypotheses tests regarding parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance.

4.2 Return Rate

The questionnaires were administered to 259 class seven pupils and 66 class teachers. All the questionnaires were appropriately filled and therefore used in the analysis. The return rate was 100%. This is in agreement with Groves and Peytcheva (2008), who assert that high response rates are preferable to reduce the risk of non-response bias and ensure the sample is representative. Interview was also conducted on the 66 head teachers of the public primary schools where the study was done.

4.3 Background Information of the Respondents

The study sought to determine the general information of the respondents concerning the age, sex, frequency of school attendance, academic qualification and work experience.

4.3.1 Age of Class Seven Girls

The pupils who participated in the study were asked to state their age bracket. The responses are presented in fig 4.1.

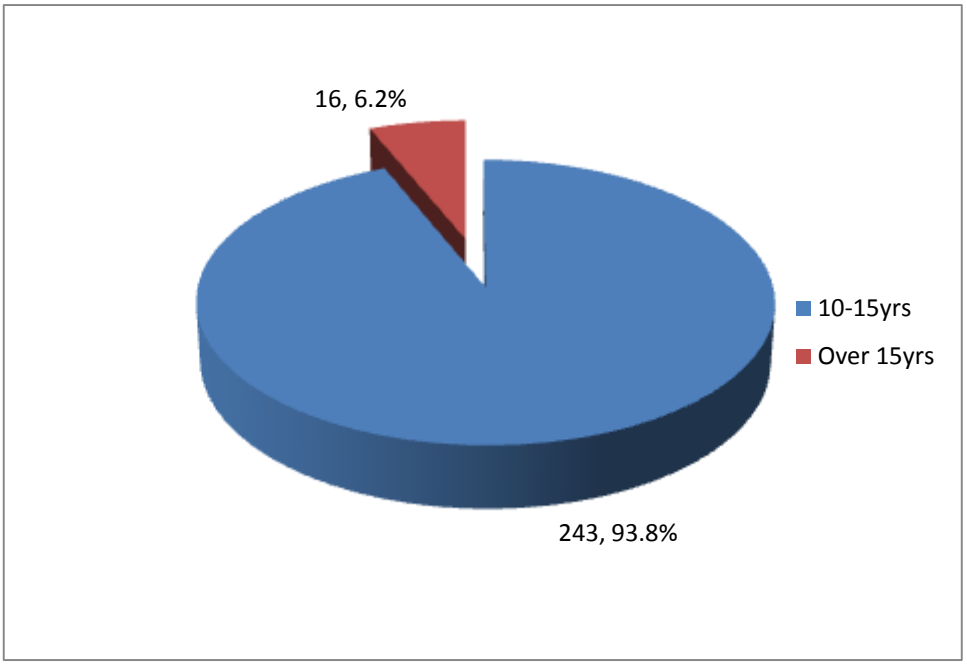

Fig. 4.1 Age of Pupils

As presented in fig. 4.1 majority 243 (93.8%) of the pupils were aged between 10 and 15 years whereas 16(6.2%) were over 15 years.

4.3.2 Frequency of School attendance

Pupils who participated in this study were asked to state how frequent they attended school. Their responses are presented in fig. 4.2.

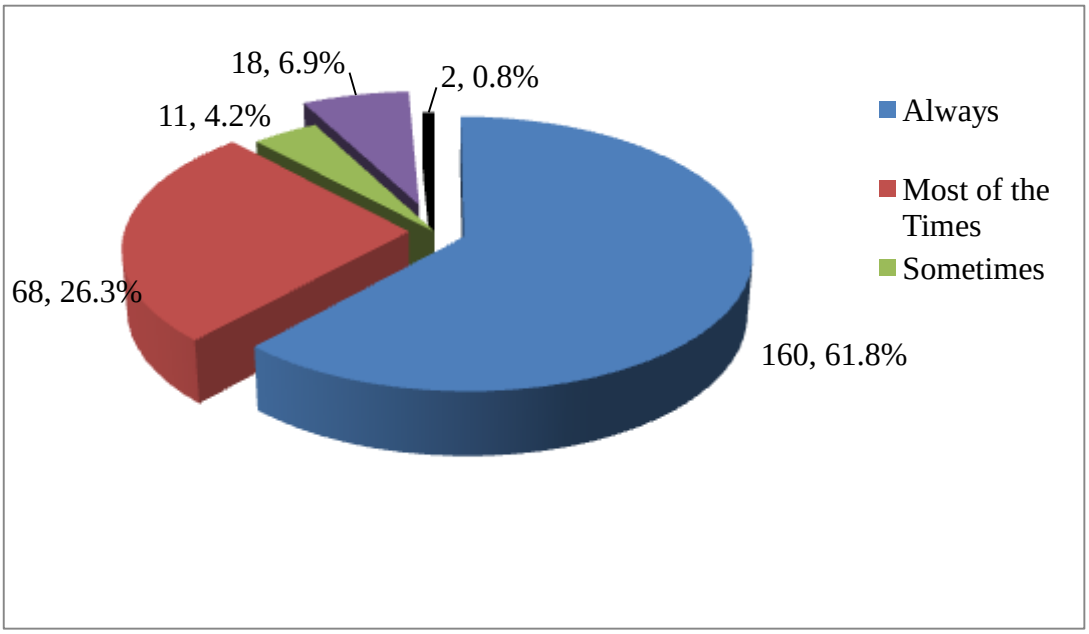

Fig. 4.2 Frequency of school attendance

As shown in fig. 4.2, majority 160 (61.8%) of the pupils stated that they always attend school while 68(26.3%) most of the times attend school. There were 11(4.2%) of the pupils who sometimes attend school as 18(6.9%) attended school less times. However, only 2(0.8%) of the pupils stated that they rarely attend school. The findings implies that majority of the girls who participated in this study always attend school.

4.3.3 Age of Teachers

Teachers were asked to state their age and the responses are shown in fig 4.3.

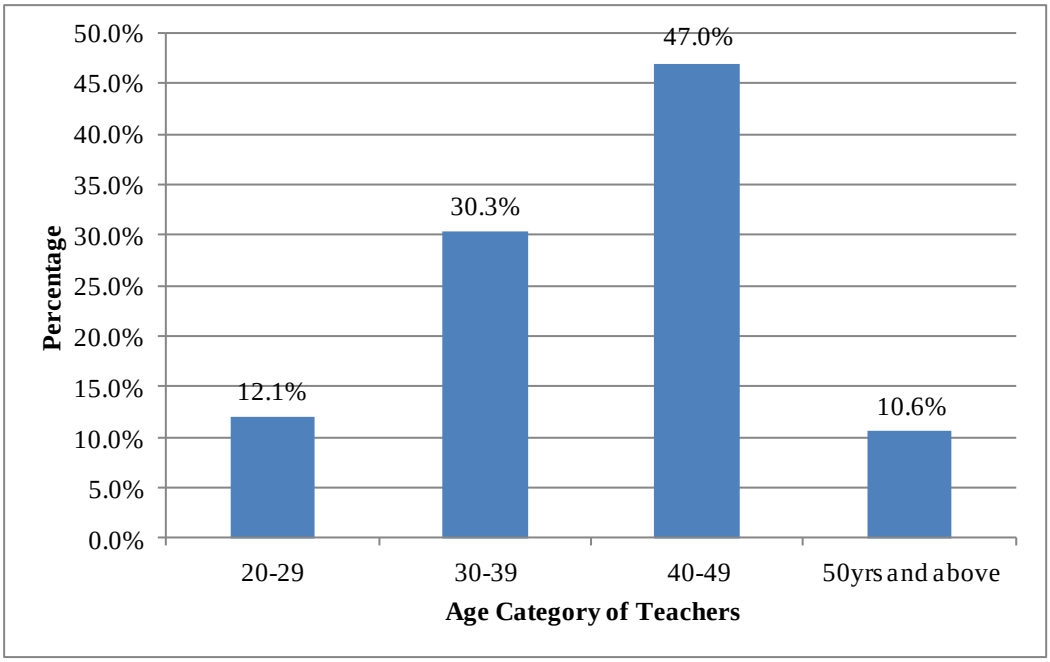

Fig. 4.3 Age of Teachers

It was noted that 31(47%) teachers who participated in this study were 40-49 years while 20(30.3%) were 30-39 years and 8(12.1%) were 20-29 years. Another 7(10.6%) were over 50 years. This shows that majority of the teachers were between 30 and 49 years. This implies that they had adequate life experience to influence pupils' school attendance.

4.3.4 Teachers' Sex

The responses on the sex of the teachers who participated in the study is shown in fig. 4.4. As shown in fig. 4.4, over half 37 (56.1%) of the teachers were male whereas 29(43.9 %) were female. This shows that the male teachers were more than the female teachers. Female teachers are expected to be role models to girls who will in turn be

encouraged to continue attending school. More male teachers mean that the adolescent girls have few role models among the teaching staff.

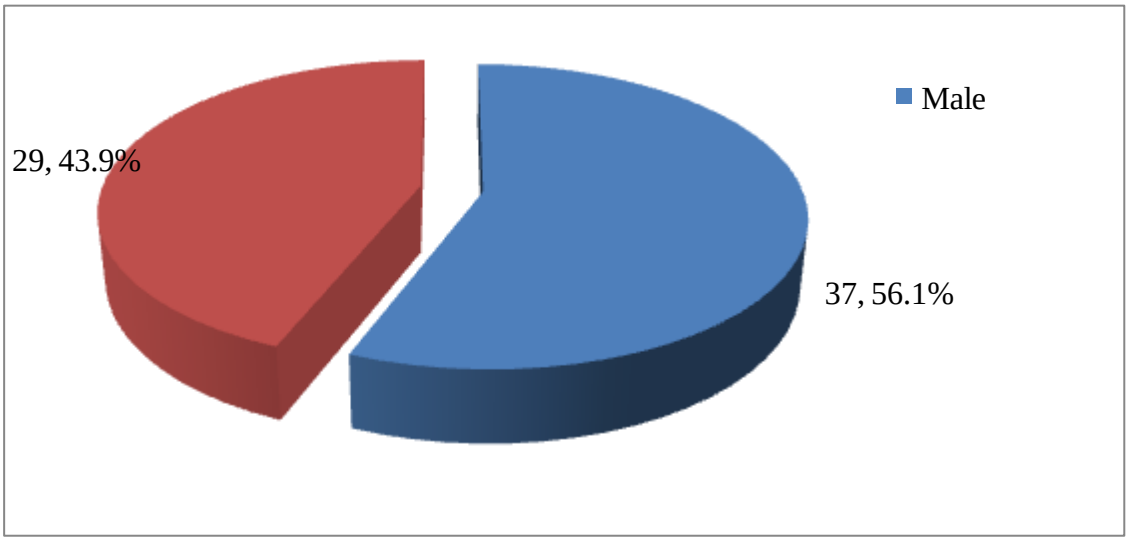

Fig. 4.4 Sex of the Teachers

4.3.5 Academic Qualification of the Teachers

A response on the academic qualification of the teachers is presented in fig 4.5.

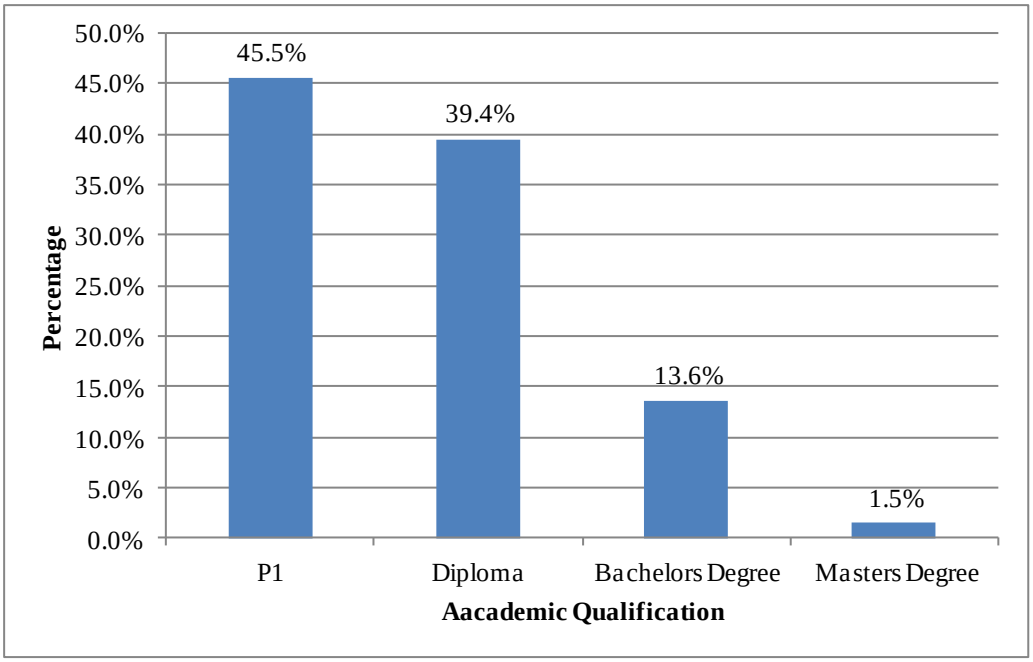

Fig. 4.5 Academic Qualification of Teachers

Most 30 (45.5%) of the teachers who participated in the study were P1 holders, 26(39.4%) were diploma holders with 9(13.6%) being holders of bachelors degree in education. Only 1(1.5%) had masters degree in education. This implies that all the teachers had the required qualification to teach in the primary schools in Baringo County. This high qualification of the teachers can also be a motivating factor to the pupils to achieve higher scores by attending school frequently. This agrees with the findings by Gesinde (2000), who asserts that, those who have high achievers as their models in their early life experience would develop the high need to achieve, while those who have low achievers as their models hardly develop the need to achieve.

4.3.6 Length of Stay in Current Working Station

The teachers were asked to state the number of years they have been in their current schools. The longer you stay in a station the better motivational or modeling strategies. Teachers' responses are presented in Fig 4.6.

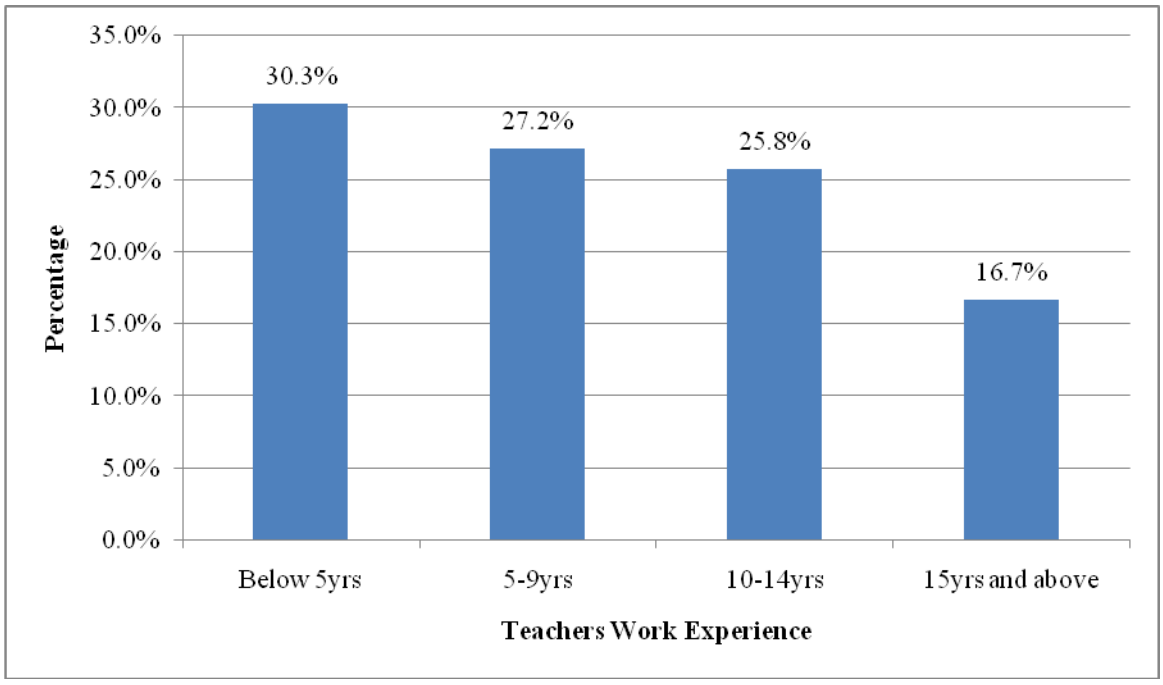

Fig.4.6 work experience

Fig. 4.6 shows that 20(30.3%) of the teachers had teaching experience of below 5 years in the institution while another, 18 (27.2%) had been teaching for a period of 5-9 years, 17(25.8%) had teaching experiences in the institution of 10-14 years and 11(16.7%) had teaching experience of more than 15 years in the institution. It is clear from the findings that most of the teachers who participated in this study had been in the current schools for a period of more than 5 years. They therefore had adequate experience concerning the factors that influence school attendance among the adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County.

4.4 Influence of Parental Motivational Strategies on School Attendance

The first objective of this study was to establish the motivational strategies adopted by the parents to promote schools attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. There were ten items measuring motivational strategies employed by parents. The responses were in five point Likert scale: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. For the purpose of data analysis, strongly agree and agree will be treated as agree while strongly disagree and disagree will be considered as disagree. This implies that in the reporting of data, there will be three options: agree, neutral and disagree. Pupils' responses on this variable are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Pupils' Responses on Motivational Strategies Adopted By Parents

Statement	**SA**		**A**		**N**		**D**		**SD**		**TOTAL**	
I am encouraged to attend school when:	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**
parent-teacher contact is increased	181	69.9	70	27.0	6	2.3	1	.4	1	.4	259	100.0
my parents are involved in my academic activities	170	65.6	76	29.3	9	3.5	3	1.2	1	.4	259	100.0
my parents get involved in school activities	164	63.3	74	28.6	10	3.9	4	1.5	7	2.7	259	100.0
my parents help me to complete a homework assignment	167	64.5	65	25.1	17	6.6	8	3.1	2	.8	259	100.0
my parents support me in my academics in a way that gives me independence	156	60.2	83	32.0	15	5.8	4	1.5	1	.4	259	100.0
my parents have high expectations for what i can achieve	168	64.9	74	28.6	13	5.0	1	.4	3	1.2	259	100.0
my parents protect my self-esteem	158	61.0	63	24.3	27	10.4	8	3.1	3	1.2	259	100.0
my parents offer rewards in a motivating manner	183	70.7	63	24.3	7	2.7	3	1.2	3	1.2	259	100.0
my parents are always available for me	172	66.4	64	24.7	18	6.9	2	.8	3	1.2	259	100.0
my parents create confidence in me	174	67.2	62	23.9	15	5.8	5	1.9	3	1.2	259	100.0

Pupils' Responses on parents motivational strategy index=45.4

The findings presented in Table 4.1 yields an index of 45.4 for pupils' responses on the motivational strategies employed by their parents to enhance school attendance. This index lies between 35 and 50, which implies that the students' perception towards the motivational strategies employed by their parents to enhance their school attendance was high. Specifically, 251(96.9 %) pupils stated that increased number of parents- teachers contacts increases their attendance while only 2(0.8%) disagreed. This implies that parent-teacher contacts motivate the pupils to attend school in primary schools where the study was done. The pupils were also of the opinion that their school attendance increases when their parents get involved in their academic activities as stated by 246(95%) pupils. Another 4(1.6%) disagreed while 9(3.5%) remained neutral. Further, 238(91.9%) pupils stated that their parents involvement in school activities like academic days increases their school attendance. However, 11(4.2%) disagreed. There were 239(92.3%) pupils who stated that their parents support them in academics in a way that give them independence, while 5(1.9%) disagreed. It is also shown that 232(89.6%) pupils were of the view that their school attendance increases when their parents help them to complete their homework assignment. Only 10(3.9%) disagreed and 17(6.6%) were neutral.

The findings of this study are in agreement with previous studies that established that increased frequency of activities was associated with higher levels of child misbehavior in the classroom (Izzo, Weissberg, Kasprow, & Fendrich, 1999), whereas positive attitudes towards education and school were associated with the child's increased academic performance (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, Cox, & Bradley, 2003). Specifically, Izzo et al. (1999) reported that an increase in the parent's school activities may help the teacher to manage the child's existing behavior problems thus enhancing school

attendance. When parents are involved in their children's academic lives, children tend to perform better academically than when their parents are not involved. Parents involvement in their child's academics can take a number of different forms, such as attending parent-teacher conferences, helping a child with homework, going to school activities, such as school fairs, and knowing what the child is doing in class, as well as how they are doing in class (Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, & Doan Holbein, 2005).

The study also revealed that majority 242 (93.4%) of the pupils stated that parents high expectations for what they can achieve enhance their school attendance whereas 4(1.6%) disagreed. Another 221(85.3%) pupils stated that parents who protect their self-esteem, increases their school attendance. Those who disagreed to this statement were only 11(4.3%). The study established that when parents offer rewards in a motivating manner it increases school attendance of their daughters. This was stated by 246(95%) pupils. Rewards act as an extrinsic motivation. According to Gesinde (2000), human beings are said to be extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. When parents offer rewards to their daughters, they encourage them to continue attending school. This actually acts as a positive reinforcement. Further, parents who are always available for their daughters increases school attendance of their daughters as reported by 236(91.1%) pupils who participated, 5(2%) disagreed and 18(6.9%) were neutral. According to 236(91.1%) pupils, parents who create confidence in them increases their school attendance whereas 8(3.1%) disagreed. Research suggests that it is the supportive type of involvement, rather than the monitoring type of involvement that contributes to better academic outcomes (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989).

It was of great value for the study to establish whether there was any significant influence of pupils' age on the motivational strategies adopted by their parents. Age was measured in two categories: those between 10 and 15 years; and those who were over 15 years. The hypothesis to be tested stated:

There is no statistically significant influence of motivational strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on adolescent girls' age.

This hypothesis was tested using chi-square. This section presents the contingency table and chi-square values for testing the influence of pupils' age on motivational strategies employed by parents. This is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Contingency Table for Pupils' Age and Parents Motivational strategies

Pupils age	**Parental motivational strategy**			
	High	Neutral	Low	**Total**
10-15	238	4	1	**243**
Above 15	15	1	0	**16**
Total	**253**	**5**	**1**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 1.74$, df=2 and p = 0.302

As presented in Table 4.2, a Pearson's chi-square value of 1.74, degrees of freedom of 2 and p-value of 0.302 was obtained. Since p>0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. The contingency coefficient for the association between pupils' age and the parental motivational strategies influencing school attendance was 0.082, which is very weak. The parental motivational strategy variation that may be attributed to pupils' age is about 0.7%.

The researcher used an inferential statistic (chi-square) to show whether there existed a significant relationship between the parents' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The hypothesis that stated: there is no significant relationship between parents' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County was tested.

Before testing this null hypothesis using chi-square, a contingency table was constructed as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Contingency Table for Parents Motivation and School Attendance

School attendance frequency	**Parental motivational strategy**			
	High	Neutral	Low	**Total**
Always	159	1	0	**160**
Most of the times	65	2	1	**68**
Sometimes	18	0	0	**18**
Less times	10	1	0	**11**
Rarely	1	1	0	**2**
Total	**253**	**5**	**1**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 274.90$, df=8 and p = 0.000

From the contingency Table 4.3, a Pearson's chi-square value of 274.90, degrees of freedom of 8 and p-value of 0.000 was obtained. The rejection level was set at 0.05. The null hypothesis is rejected if the p-value or sig is less than or equal to 0.05 and if more than 0.05, then we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This implies that p-value <0.05, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there was a significant relationship between the parents' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in

primary schools in Baringo County. The computed contingency coefficient is 0.718 which implies that there is a high degree of association between parental motivational strategies and girls' school attendance. This implies that parental motivational strategies can account for about 51.8% of variation in pupils' school attendance.

This agrees with the responses provided by head teachers during the interview who stated that the parents who provide guidance and counseling to their daughters increase their school attendance (See Appendix V no.36). The head teachers also stated that the parents who provide enough personal effects enhance school attendance of their daughters. This includes provision of sanitary towels and enough uniforms (See Appendix V no.31). One of the head teachers interviewed said:

> *Very few parents are encouraging the girls by giving them chance to be in school and provide the necessary requirement for example school uniforms, sanitary towels and even books. This applies to the few who are literate but the rest do not see the need. (See Appendix V no.37).*

Further, another headteacher said:

> *Every time we call parents to come to school for class meetings or prize giving days, only a small number attend. These are the same parents who do not provide basic needs for their children like sanitary towels, smart uniform and even food. (See Appendix V no.38).*

The headteachers interviewed also stated that some parents intentionally retain their daughters at home to look after the young ones while others take the girls for casual labour (See Appendix V no.16). These factors are likely to discourage the girl's school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County.

4.5 Impact of Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers on School Attendance

The second objective of the study was to determine the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to promote school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County. Motivational strategies employed by teachers were also measured by ten items that were in five point likert scale: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Strongly agree and agree were treated as agree while strongly disagree and disagree were considered as disagree. Pupils' responses on the items are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Pupils' Responses on Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers

Statement	**SA**		**A**		**N**		**D**		**SD**		**TOTAL**	
I am encouraged to attend school because:	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**
teachers care about my academic progress	205	79.2	42	16.2	6	2.3	5	1.9	1	.4	259	100.0
teachers are always available	175	67.6	73	28.2	6	2.3	3	1.2	2	.8	259	100.0
teachers set high expectations for what i can achieve	171	66.0	54	20.8	22	8.5	8	3.1	4	1.5	259	100.0
teachers help me to improve my language-related attitudes	171	66.0	70	27.0	13	5.0	3	1.2	2	.8	259	100.0
teachers help me to be focused	158	61.0	83	32.0	18	6.9	0	0	0	0	259	100.0
teachers make learning stimulating	184	71.0	53	20.5	17	6.6	1	.4	4	1.5	259	100.0
teachers protect my self –esteem	150	57.9	81	31.3	21	8.1	6	2.3	1	.4	259	100.0
teachers promote cooperation among the learners	176	68.0	64	24.7	64	24.7	5	1.9	3	1.2	259	100.0
teachers teach pupils to be independent	161	62.2	68	26.3	22	8.5	3	1.2	5	1.9	259	100.0
teachers offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner	168	64.9	71	27.4	12	4.6	4	1.5	4	1.5	259	100.0

Pupils' index on teacher motivational strategies=46.08

The overall score on pupils' responses concerning the motivational strategies employed by teachers to enhance their school attendance was 46.08. This indicates that the pupils had a high perception on the motivational strategies employed by teachers. It was further established that majority 247 (95.4%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when the teachers care about their

academic progress. There were 248(95.8 %) pupils who asserted that teachers who are available enhance school attendance while 5(2%) disagreed. The findings also shows that 225(86.8%) pupils were of the opinion that when teachers set high expectations for what they can achieve their school attendance increase whereas 12(4.6 %) disagreed. Teachers who help their pupils to improve their language related attitudes increases the pupils school attendance as stated by 241(93.1%) pupils who participated in the study. Further, a similar proportion 241 (93.1%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their teachers help them to be focused.

There were 237(91.5%) pupils who stated that their school attendance improves when teachers make learning stimulating and enjoyable while 5(1.9%) disagreed. It is also clear that teachers who protect the pupil's self-esteem increases school attendance of the pupils 231(89.2%). However, 7(2.7%) disagreed. Teachers who promote cooperation among the learners increases school attendance as study shows that when teachers teach pupils to be independent, the pupils school attendance increases as stated by 249(88.4%) pupils and 8(3.1%) disagreed. According to 239(92.3%) pupils, their school attendance increases when teachers offer them rewards and grades in motivating manner.

To determine whether there was any significant influence of pupils' age on the motivational strategies adopted by their teachers, a contingency table was prepared to enable the use of chi-square to test the null hypothesis that: there is no significant influence of motivational strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on pupils' age. Since the marginal total frequency for low teachers' motivational strategy was zero, it was not included in the data analysis.

The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Contingency Table for Pupils' Age and Teachers' Motivation

Pupils age	High	Neutral	**Total**
10-15	237	6	**243**
Above 15	10	6	**16**
Total	**247**	**12**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 0.161$, df=1 and p = 0.65

As shown in Table 4.5, a Pearson's chi-square value of 0.161, degrees of freedom of 1 and p-value of 0.65 was obtained. Since p>0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. The corresponding contingency coefficient was 0.025 which represents a very weak association between pupils' age and teachers' motivational strategies that influence school attendance.

Further statistical analysis was done to establish whether there existed a relationship between the teachers' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. This was achieved by testing the null hypothesis that: there is no significant relationship between teachers' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The low teacher motivational strategies were not included in the analysis since there were no respondents in this category.

The Chi-square values were extracted from the values indicated in the contingency Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Contingency Table for Teacher Motivation and School Attendance

School attendance frequency	High	Neutral	**Total**
Always	156	4	**160**
Most of the times	65	3	**68**
Sometimes	16	2	**18**
Less times	8	3	**11**
Rarely	2	0	**2**
Total	**247**	**12**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 16.21$, df=4 and sig = 0.01

As shown in Table 4.6, a Pearson's chi-square value of 16.21, degrees of freedom of 4 and p-value of 0.01 was obtained. This implies that $p<0.05$. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is a significant relationship between teachers' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The computed contingency coefficient is 0.243 which implies that there is a moderate degree of association between teacher motivational strategies and girls' school attendance. Therefore teachers' motivational strategies can account for about 5.9% of the variation in pupils' school attendance.

Teachers were also asked to state their opinion on motivational strategies they used to improve school attendance of pupils. Their responses are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Teachers' Responses on Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers

Statement	SA		A		N		D		SD		Total	
Pupils are encouraged to attend school when:	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
teachers care about their academic progress	47	71.2	19	28.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers are physically and mentally available	42	63.6	22	33.3	2	3.0	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers have sufficiently high expectation for what they can achieve	32	48.5	28	42.4	5	7.6	1	1.5	0	0	66	100
teachers enhance their language-related values and attitudes	32	48.5	28	42.4	5	7.6	1	1.5	0	0	66	100
teachers help them to be goal-oriented	37	56.1	23	34.8	6	9.1	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers make learning stimulating	48	72.7	18	27.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers protect the learners' self-esteem	36	54.5	27	40.9	3	4.5	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers promote cooperation among the learners	33	50	27	40.9	6	9.1	0	0	0	0	66	100
teachers create learner autonomy	27	40.9	29	43.9	9	13.6	1	1.5	0	0	66	100
teachers offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner	46	69.7	17	25.8	3	4.5	0	0	0	0	66	100

Teachers' index on teacher motivational strategies=45.08

It is worth to note that teachers reported a lower index on motivational strategies they use (index of 45.08) as compared to the pupils' index of 46.08 on the same variable.

However, both indices imply a high perception on the motivational strategies employed by teachers to enhance pupils' school attendance. Similarly, as presented in Table 4.7, all the teachers who participated in this study stated that teachers who care about their students' academic progress increases school attendance of the pupils, whereas 64(97 %) stated that teachers who are physically and mentally available for students enhance school attendance. There were 60(90.9%) teachers who have sufficiently high expectation for what their students can achieve. Klem and Connell (2004) noted that students who perceive teachers who create caring, well-structured learning environment in which expectations are high, clear, and fair are more likely to report engagement in school. Further, 60(90.9%) teachers asserted that teachers who enhance the learners language-related values and attitude increases school attendance while 1(1.5%) disagreed. Teachers who help learners to be goal-oriented increases school attendance as stated by 60(90.9%) teachers.

The findings also indicate that all teachers asserted that teachers who make learning stimulating and enjoyable increases school attendance, while 63(95.5%) teachers stated that teachers who protect the learners' self-esteem increases school attendance. Teachers who promote cooperation among the learners increase school attendance as stated by 60(90.9%) teachers. It should be noted that the culture and climate of the school, particularly as it relates to teacher-student relationships and more broadly to issues of student safety, has been moderately associated with student absenteeism. The likelihood that a student will not attend school increases when students feel unsafe or threatened by the school community. Stewart (2008), disclosed that student outcomes were related to the student's sense of belongingness or connection to the community. Majority (84.8%)

of the teachers stated that teachers who create learners autonomy increase school attendance while 63(95.5%) teachers stated that teachers who offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner encourage pupils to attend school.

Further analysis was done to find out whether there was a significant gender difference in motivational strategies among teachers in the area where the study was done. Gender responses were coded for purposes of categorization as Male and Female. Motivational strategies were measured in a five point likert scale that had ten items. The scale required the teachers to indicate the extent to which they agree to each of the 10 statements, using the following response format: 5 = strongly agree, 4= Agree, 3= Neutral, 2= Disagree, 1=strongly Disagree. Teacher motivational strategies were categorized as high or neutral since there were no low responses. The hypothesis to be tested stated: There is no significant gender difference in teacher motivational strategies.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher used chi-square test. This test was appropriate for this hypothesis since concern was comparing the frequencies in teacher motivational strategies between the male and female teachers where the study was done. The results are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Contingency Table for Gender and Teacher motivational strategies

Gender of teachers	High	Neutral	**Total**
Male	36	1	**37**
Female	29	0	**29**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 0.798$, df=1 and p = 0.092

After running the chi-square test on the data with a 95% confidence level, it was found that there was no significant gender difference in teacher motivational strategies (χ^2 = 0.798, df=1 and p = 0.092). Therefore the null hypothesis was accepted since the p-value was more than the significance level of 0.05. This implies that the teacher motivational strategies were not different among female and male teachers where the study was done. The computed contingency coefficient was 0.11, which can only account for about 1.2% of the variation in teachers' motivational strategies due to gender.

The other concern of the study was to establish whether there was a significant age difference in motivational strategies among teachers. Age was categorical in scale with four options as: 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and over 50 years. This was investigated using the null hypothesis that: There is no significant age difference in teacher motivational strategies.

This hypothesis was tested using chi-square. The results are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Contingency Table for Age Difference in Teacher Motivation

Age of teachers	High	Neutral	**Total**
20-29	7	1	**8**
30-39	20	0	**20**
40-49	31	0	**31**
50 and above	7	0	**7**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

χ^2 = 7.37, df=3 and p = 0.10

Table 4.9 reveals that there was no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies among teachers based on age (χ^2 = 7.37, df=3 and p = 0.10). However, since

the contingency coefficient is 0.32, the teacher motivational strategy of about 10.1% can be attributed to teacher's age. It was also important to establish statistically whether there was any significant difference in motivational strategies among teachers based on teacher qualification. The qualification of the teachers had four options measured as masters, bachelors, diploma and P1. The hypothesis was formulated as: There is no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies based on teacher qualification.

This hypothesis was tested using Chi-square. The results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Contingency Table for Teacher Motivation Based on Qualification

Teacher Qualification	High	Neutral	**Total**
Masters	1	0	**1**
Bachelors	8	1	**9**
Diploma	26	0	**26**
P1	30	0	**30**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 6.43$, df=3 and p = 0.10

The findings indicate that there was no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies among teachers based on their qualification ($\chi^2 = 6.43$, df=3 and p = 0.10). The contingency coefficient for the association was 0.297. Although the association is not significant, about 8.9% of the variations in teacher motivational strategies can be attributed to teacher qualification.

The study also sought to find out whether there was any statistical difference in teacher motivational strategies among teachers based on teacher working experience. Teacher experience had four options that were: below 5 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years and above

15 years. The hypothesis to be tested was that: There is no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies based on teacher experience.

This hypothesis was tested using a chi-square. The output is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Contingency Table for Teacher Motivation Based on Experience

Teacher Experience	High	Neutral	**Total**
Below 5 years	19	1	**20**
5-9 years	18	0	**18**
10-14 years	17	0	**17**
Above 15 years	11	0	**11**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 2.43$, df=3 and p = 0.50

The study established that there was no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies among teachers based on their teaching experience ($\chi^2 = 2.43$, df=3 and p = 0.50). The corresponding contingency coefficient was 0.19, thus about 3.6% of the variation in teacher motivational strategies can be due to teacher working experience.

As stated by head teachers during the interview, teachers who encourage girls to take up responsibilities of leadership in schools encourage the girls to attend school. There is also need to create a gender friendly learning atmosphere for the girl-child that will make her continue attending school. The head teachers also said that the teachers motivate girls to attend school by allowing them to participate in co-curricular activities (See Appendix V no.24). One head teacher said:

> We have trained our female teachers to be friendly to the girls and show care. They raise the self-esteem of the girls by teaching them on how to groom themselves, talk well in English and to learn life skills.(See Appendix V no.28).

Another head teacher said:

> The number of girls rewarded is normally many as compared to boys. The most improved girls are also rewarded and encouraging remarks are given by the teachers to all the girls.(See Appendix V no.29).

As presented in the above paragraphs, the head teachers, teachers and pupils who participated in this study were in agreement concerning the teachers' motivational strategies used by teachers to enhance school attendance among girls in Baringo County.

4.6 Effect of Modeling Strategies Adopted By Teachers on School Attendance

The other concern for this study was to establish the teacher modeling strategies that affect school attendance of pupils in primary schools in Baringo County. The pupils' responses on teacher modeling strategies that influence school attendance are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Pupils' Responses on Teacher Modeling Strategies

Statement	**SA**		**A**		**N**		**D**		**SD**		**TOTAL**	
I am motivated to attend school when:	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**
Teachers are enthusiastic, interesting, with positive emotions and encouraging	186	71.8	57	22.0	12	4.6	3	1.2	1	.4	259	100.0
Teachers keep my secrets	169	65.3	63	24.3	19	7.3	6	2.3	2	.8	259	100.0
Teachers are friendly with me	158	61.0	73	28.2	23	8.9	3	1.2	2	.8	259	100.0
Teachers are patient and attentive listeners	160	61.8	77	29.7	15	5.8	4	1.5	3	1.2	259	100.0
Teachers demonstrate an understanding of individual differences	161	62.2	71	27.4	20	7.7	6	2.3	1	.4	259	100.0
Teachers help me to minimize my stress and embarrassment	181	69.9	54	20.8	18	6.9	4	1.5	2	.8	259	100.0
Teachers create a particular area where we may go with a teacher to share feeling and thoughts	163	62.9	62	23.9	23	8.9	5	1.9	6	2.3	259	100.0
Teachers teach respect, kindness and empathy	199	76.8	48	18.5	10	3.9	0	0	2	.8	259	100.0
Teachers give me opportunities to share and listen in class	167	64.5	70	27.0	19	7.3	1	.4	2	.8	259	100.0
Teachers encourage successful pupil interaction by pairing shy pupils that are well liked	168	64.9	69	26.6	13	5.0	7	2.7	2	.8	259	100.0

Pupils' index on teacher modeling strategies=45.38

As shown in Table 4.12, the index of the pupils' perception on teacher modeling strategies to enhance school attendance was 45.38. This is a high level of perception. Therefore the pupils were very optimistic that teacher modeling strategies enhance their school attendance to a great extent. It is further indicated that teachers who are enthusiastic, interesting with positive emotions and encouraging increases school attendance of the pupils. This was stated by 243(93.8 %) pupils while 4(1.6 %) disagreed. There were 232(89.6%) pupils who stated that school attendance is increased when teachers keep their secrets while 8(3.1%) disagreed. Further, 232(89.6 %) pupils also stated that teachers who are friendly with them increases their school attendance whereas 5(2%) disagreed. The relationship a student has with the teacher is one of the best predictors of students' effort and engagement in learning (Stipek, 2006). The teacher's enthusiasm, interest, positive emotion and encouragement promote different attitudes towards students' achievement and willingness to participate (Turner & Patrick, 2004). Students need to view a teacher as someone who is genuinely concerned, invests time in them, and is interested in what is occurring in their lives; not a person who only gives assignments and tests (Phillips, 2003; Utay & Utay, 2005). Teachers who are respected, trusted, and cared for personally are inclined to support their students in the same manner (Stipek, 2006). This is expected to enhance girls' school attendance.

The study also found that 237(91.5%) pupils were of the opinion that their school attendance increases when teachers are patient and attentive listeners. However, 7(2.7%) disagreed and 15(5.8%) were neutral. Teachers who demonstrate an understanding of individual differences within the classroom increases school attendance as stated by 232(89.6 %). Another 235(90.7%) pupils stated that their attendance increases when

teachers help them to minimizes stress and embarrassment, while 6(2.3%) disagreed. Further, the findings show that 225(86.9%) pupils stated that their school attendance increases when they share feelings and thoughts with the teachers.

According to 247(95.4 %) pupils, teachers who teach respect kindness and empathy increases their school attendance whereas 12(4.7 %) disagreed. According to Cohen (2005), to engage and support a shy student, a teacher needs to initiate interaction, even through simple conversations. Patience, listening attentively, being sensitive to the interests and feelings of the student, and providing encouragement is also important (Lacinda-Gifford, 2001). Teachers need to consistently demonstrate an understanding and appreciation of individual and cultural differences within the classroom (McCay & Keyes, 2001/2002). School attendance of the pupils is also increased when teachers give the pupils opportunities to share and listen in class as stated by 237(91.5%) pupils. The same proportion (91.5%) of the pupils also stated that their school attendance will increase when teachers encourage successful pupils' interaction by pairing shy pupils with pupils that are well liked.

The study sought to find out whether there was a significant influence of pupils' age on the modeling strategies adopted by their teachers. A contingency table was prepared to enable the use of chi-square to test the hypothesis that: there is no significant influence of modeling strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on pupils' age. The results are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Contingency Table for Pupils' Age and Teachers' Modeling strategies

Pupils age	**Teacher modeling**			
	Positive	Ambivalent	Negative	**Total**
10-15	239	3	1	**243**
Above 15	16	0	0	**16**
Total	**255**	**3**	**1**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 0.27$, df=2 and p = 0.90

A Pearson's chi-square value of 0.27, degrees of freedom of 2 and p-value of 0.90 was obtained. Since p>0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. The contingency coefficient for the association was 0.032, which implies that only 0.1% of variation in teachers' modeling strategies can be due to influence of pupils' age.

For the general influence of teacher modeling strategies on girls' school attendance, the non-parametric inferential statistic-Chi-square was also used. The null hypothesis that was tested was stated as: there is no significant relationship between teachers' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The Chi-square values were extracted from the values indicated in the contingency Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Contingency Table for Teacher modeling and School Attendance

School attendance frequency	**Teacher modeling strategy**			
	High	Neutral	Low	**Total**
Always	158	1	1	**160**
Most of the times	67	1	0	**68**
Sometimes	18	0	0	**18**
Less times	10	1	0	**11**
Rarely	2	0	0	**2**
Total	**255**	**3**	**1**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 161.571$, df=8 and p = 0.000

The findings reveals that there was a significant relationship between teachers' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 = 161.571, df =8 and p = 0.000). The computed contingency coefficient is 0.62 which implies that there is a moderate degree of association between teacher modeling strategies and girls' school attendance. This implies that about 38.4% of the variation in school attendance can be attributed to the teachers' modeling strategies.

Teachers' responses concerning the modeling strategies they adopt to promote pupils school attendance is presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Teachers' Responses on Modeling Strategies Employed By Teachers

Statement	SA		A		N		D		SD		TOTAL	
Pupils are encouraged to attend school when:	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**
Teachers are enthusiastic and encouraging	39	59.1	24	36.4	2	3.0	1	1.5	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers are confidants of students	34	51.5	24	36.4	6	9.1	1	1.5	1	1.5	66	100.0
Teachers have secure relationship with their pupils	35	53.0	21	31.8	9	13.6	1	1.5	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers are patient and attentive listeners	48	72.7	13	19.7	4	6.1	1	1.5	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers demonstrate an understanding of cultural differences	25	37.9	21	31.8	18	27.3	2	3.0	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers support pupils to minimize stress	41	62.1	24	36.4	0	0	1	1.5	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers create a comfort corner	32	48.5	28	42.4	4	6.1	2	3.0	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers teach compromise, respect, kindness and empathy	36	54.5	25	37.9	3	4.5	2	3.0	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers give pupils opportunities to share and listen	31	47.0	30	45.5	4	6.1	1	1.5	0	0	66	100.0
Teachers encourage successful students interaction by pairing shy students with students that are well liked	30	45.5	24	36.4	12	18.2	0	0	0	0	66	100.0

Teachers' index on teacher modeling strategies=43.97

The overall index of the perception of teachers on teachers modeling strategies was 43.97. This was less than the index of the perception of pupils on teachers modeling strategies that enhance school attendance (index of 45.38). It is also instructive to note that majority (95.5%) of the teachers were of the opinion that teachers who are enthusiastic and encouraging increases school attendance while 58 (87.9%) stated that teachers who are confident of students increases school attendance. The findings also show that 56(84.8%) teachers stated that teachers who have secure relationship with their pupils' increases school attendance. However, one (1.5 %) respondent disagreed.

Teachers who are patient and attentive listeners and have feelings of students' increases school attendance as stated by 61(92.4%) teachers. There were 46(69.7%) of the teachers who demonstrate an understanding of cultural differences within the classroom increases school attendance while 2(3%) disagreed. Another 65(98.5%) of the teachers stated that support of teachers help to minimize a child stress which in turn increases school attendance. As stated by 60(90.9%) teachers, pupils school attendance can be increased by teachers who create comfort corners where pupils share feeling, thoughts and ideas with the teachers.

According to 61(92.4%) teachers who teach compromise, respect, kindness and empathy increases school attendance among pupils in primary school where the study was done. It should also be noted that majority 61 (92.4%) of teachers asserted that when teachers give pupils opportunities to share and listen, pupils school attendance increases while 1(1.5%) disagreed. It is also evident that teachers who encourage successful students' interaction by pairing shy pupils with students that are well liked also increases school

attendance 54 (81.9%). The teacher should take time to make each child feel unique and valuable (Phillips, 2003). Children know teachers care about them when they are greeted as they enter the classroom, their emotional needs are addressed, and they are treated fairly (Stipek, 2006).

The study sought to establish whether there was a significant gender difference in modeling strategies among teachers in the area where the study was done. Gender was measured in nominal scale as either “Male” or “Female”. Gender responses were coded for purposes of categorization as Male-1 and Female-2. This was necessary so that the responses can be entered in the SPSS for analysis. Modeling strategies was measured in a five point likert scale that had ten items. The scale required the teachers to indicate the extent to which they agree to each of the 10 statements, using the following response format: 5 = strongly agree, 4= Agree, 3= Neutral, 2= Disagree, 1=strongly Disagree. The hypothesis formulated was that: There is no significant gender difference in teacher modeling strategies.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher used chi-square to compare the frequencies of the two groups. The teacher modelling strategies were categorized as positive or ambivalent, since negative perception was not manifested. This test was appropriate for this hypothesis since concern was comparing the frequencies in teacher modeling strategies between the male and female teachers where the study was done. The results are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Contingency Table for Gender and Teacher modelling strategies

Gender of teachers	Positive	Ambivalent	**Total**
Male	36	1	**37**
Female	29	0	**29**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 0.796$, df=1 and p = 0.40

After running the chi-square on the data with a 95% confidence level, it was found that there was no significant gender difference in teacher modeling strategies ($\chi^2 = 0.796$, df=1 and p = 0.40). Therefore the null hypothesis was accepted since the p-value was more than the significance level of 0.05. This implies that the teacher modeling strategies were not different among female and male teachers where the study was done. This is described by a contingency coefficient of 0.11, which is a weak association.

The study sought to establish whether there was a significant age difference in modeling strategies among teachers in the area where the study was done. Age was categorical in scale with four options as: 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and over 50 years. The perception of modeling strategies was considered as positive or ambivalent since there were no teachers in the negative category. The data was analyzed by testing the hypothesis that: There is no significant age difference in teacher modeling strategies.

To test this hypothesis, the researcher used the Chi-square. This was used in comparing the difference in frequencies of more than two groups. This test was appropriate for this hypothesis since concern was comparing the frequencies in teacher modeling strategies between teachers aged 20-29, 30-39, 40-49 and over 50 years. The results are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Contingency Table for Age Difference in Teacher Modeling Strategies

Age of teachers	Positive	Ambivalent	**Total**
20-29	8	0	**8**
30-39	19	1	**20**
40-49	31	0	**31**
50 and above	7	0	**7**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 2.34$, df=3 and p = 0.60

As shown in Table 4.17, $\chi^2 = 2.34$, df=3 and p = 0.60 was obtained. This implies that there was no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on age. The contingency coefficient was 0.185.

There was also need to establish statistically whether there was any significant difference in modeling strategies among teachers based on teacher qualification. The qualification of the teachers had four options measured as masters, bachelors, diploma and P1. The hypothesis stated that: There is no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher qualification. Teacher modeling strategy was considered as either high or neutral. There were no respondents in low category.

This hypothesis was tested using the chi-square. The results are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Contingency Table for Teacher Modeling Based on Qualification

Teacher Qualification	High	Neutral	**Total**
Masters	1	0	**1**
Bachelors	8	1	**9**
Diploma	26	0	**26**
P1	30	0	**30**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 6.43$, df=3 and p = 0.10

The findings indicate that there was no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on their qualification ($\chi^2 = 6.43$, df=3 and p = 0.10). However, teacher qualification could account for about 8.9% of the variation in the teacher modeling strategies since the contingency coefficient was 6.43.

Further statistical analysis was done to find out whether there was any statistical difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on teacher working experience. Teacher working experience had four options that were: below 5 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years and above 15 years. The category of low modeling strategies had zero respondents, thus not included in the analysis. The hypothesis formulated stated that: There is no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher working experience.

A chi-square was used to test this hypothesis. The output is shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Contingency Table for Teacher Modeling based on Experience

Teacher Experience	High	Neutral	**Total**
Below 5 years	20	0	**20**
5-9 years	17	1	**18**
10-14 years	17	0	**17**
Above 15 years	11	0	**11**
Total	**65**	**1**	**66**

$\chi^2 = 2.98$, df=3 and p = 0.40

The study established that there was no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on their experience ($\chi^2 = 2.98$, df=3 and p = 0.40). However, the contingency coefficient was 0.208, therefore the teaching experience could account for about 4.3% of variation in teacher modeling strategies.

Responses from the headteachers during the interview indicated that teachers enhance pupils' school attendance by getting interested in what the pupils are doing and developing positive thinking in them. The headteachers also said that teachers help students when faced with challenges by developing a secure relationship with them and listen attentively and appreciate all students despite individual and cultural differences. Teachers also develop a positive and a warm relationship with the pupils that enable the pupils to continue attending school. Teachers create a quiet corner where male teachers take boys to a particular place where they share feelings or ideas. Lady teachers also do the same with girls. It was found that teachers dress well, are self-disciplined and communicate effectively and have human face (See Appendix V nos.39-45). This encourages the pupils to attend school.

One head teacher said:

> Every Thursday we separate the girls and the boys. The male teachers take the boys and the lady teachers take the girls to a quiet corner or under a tree shade in school. In these meetings both girls and boys share issues with their teachers and teachers listen to them and advise them. This is done once every week during school days. (See Appendix V no.46).

4.7 Influence of Modeling Strategies Adopted by Parents on School Attendance

The study was also concerned with the modeling strategies adopted by parents to promote school attendance. The pupils' responses are presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20 Modeling Strategies Adopted By Parents to Promote School Attendance

Statement	**SA**		**A**		**N**		**D**		**SD**		**TOTAL**	
I am encouraged to attend school when:	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**f**	**%**	**F**	**%**
my mother is supportive	191	73.7	55	21.2	9	3.5	3	1.2	1	.4	259	100.0
my mother is focused on my academic work	166	64.1	74	28.6	13	5.0	0	0	6	2.3	259	100.0
my parents emphasize solutions that come from families as opposed to those from schools	151	58.3	61	23.6	19	7.3	10	3.9	18	6.9	259	100.0
my parents make home visits to families of chronically absent pupils	165	63.7	58	22.4	18	6.9	12	4.6	6	2.3	259	100.0
my parents establish a contact person at school to work with	160	61.8	65	25.1	20	7.7	11	4.2	2	.8	259	100.0
my parents refer me to counselors when i miss school for many days	165	63.7	59	22.8	22	8.5	6	2.3	7	2.7	259	100.0
my parents reward me for improved attendance	178	68.7	63	24.3	13	5.0	2	.8	3	1.2	259	100.0
my parents hold responsibilities concerning my education progress	174	67.2	71	27.4	12	4.6	0	0	2	.8	259	100.0
my parents teach me on how to respect and be kind to others	194	74.9	51	19.7	11	4.2	2	.8	1	.4	259	100.0
parents help me to minimize my stress	162	62.5	69	26.6	19	7.3	6	2.3	3	1.2	259	100.0

Pupils' index on parental modeling strategies=45

There was a high pupils' index on parental modeling strategies (with index of 45). This is a positive perception of the pupils on parental modeling strategies in relation to their school attendance. It is also shown in Table 4.20, that 246(95%) pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their mothers are supportive while 4(1.6%) disagreed. Table 4.20 also shows that majority 240 (92.7%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their mothers are focused on their academic work. It should also be noted that 223(86.1 %) pupils stated that when their parents make home visits to families of chronically absent pupils, their school attendance increases whereas 18(6.9%) disagreed. There were 212(81.9%) pupils who stated that their school attendance increases when their parents emphasize solutions that come from families as opposed to those from school while 28(10.8%) disagreed. Further, 225(86.9%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their parents establish a contact person at school to work with. Only 3(1.2 %) disagreed.

Majority 224 (86.5%) of the pupils asserted that their school attendance increases when their parents refer them to counselors when they miss school for many days. Only 13(5%) disagreed and 22(8.5%) were neural. The respondents stated that when parents reward their daughters, their school attendance increases 241(93.1%). It is also revealed that their school attendance increases when their parents hold responsibilities concerning their education progress. Parents who teach their daughters on how to respect and be kind to others, increases the school attendance of their daughters, as stated by 245(94.6%) pupils who participated in this study. Another 231(89.2 %) pupils stated that their school attendance is increased when parents help them minimize stress.

Chi-square was used to determine whether there was a significant influence of pupils' age on the modeling strategies adopted by parents. From the contingency table shown below, chi-square value, degrees of freedom and p-value were computed. This was done in order to test the hypothesis that: there is no significant influence of modeling strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on pupils' age. The category of negative parental modeling was not included in the analysis since it was not manifested by the participants.

The results are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Contingency Table for Pupils' Age and Parents' Modeling strategies

Pupils age	Positive	Ambivalent	**Total**
10-15	230	13	**243**
Above 15	16	0	**16**
Total	**246**	**13**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 0.901$, df=1 and p = 0.40

A Pearson's chi-square value of 0.901, degrees of freedom of 1 and p-value of 0.40 was obtained. Since p>0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. The contingency coefficient was 0.059, which implies that only 0.4% of parents' modeling strategies variation can be attributed to pupils' age.

A further hypothesis was also tested using Chi-square. This was done in order to determine whether there existed a significant relationship between the parents' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The

hypothesis stated that: there is no significant relationship between parents' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County.

The results are presented as follows:

Table 4.22: Contingency Table for Parental modeling and School Attendance

School attendance frequency	**Parental modeling strategy**			
	High	Neutral	Low	**Total**
Always	158	2	0	**160**
Most of the times	67	1	0	**68**
Sometimes	15	3	0	**18**
Less times	6	4	1	**11**
Rarely	0	1	1	**2**
Total	**246**	**11**	**2**	**259**

$\chi^2 = 383.668$, df=8 and p = 0.000

The findings revealed in the above table show that $\chi^2 = 383.668$, df =8 and p = 0.000 was obtained. This implies that there is a significant relationship between the parents' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County ($p<0.05$). Hence the null hypothesis was rejected. The computed contingency coefficient is 0.77 which implies that there is a high degree of association between parental modeling strategies and girls' school attendance. Therefore about 59.3% of variation in pupils' school attendance can be attributed to the influence of parental modeling from the pupils' perspective.

During the interview with the head teachers, it was established that mothers' parenting style can influence their children attitude to like school. Parents, especially mothers who support their girls and have more secure relationship with them enable their daughters to

confide in them and therefore make the girls to like attending school. The head teachers also said that parents who get interested in what their girls are doing in school and encourage them to think positively and regularly check how they are performing in school, enhances school attendance of their daughters (See Appendix V nos.47, 48&49).

One head teacher said:

> Many parents are not interested in what their children do in school even when they are told to attend class meetings. However, there are a few parents who are interested in what their children do in school. These are mostly the mothers who are learned. These parents volunteer to have time to talk to the girls (See Appendix V no.51).

The few parents who are interested in what their children do in school encourage their children to continue attending school.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has presented the analysis and interpretation of the findings of the study. The analysis established an index of 45.4 for pupils' responses on the motivational strategies employed by their parents to enhance school attendance. This index lies between 35 and 50, which implies that the students' perception towards the motivational strategies employed by their parents to enhance their school attendance was high. It was found that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 =1.74, df=2 and p = 0.302). However, the parental motivational strategy variation that may be attributed to pupils' age is about 0.7%. Further, the analysis reveals that there was a significant relationship between the parents' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County (χ^2 =274.90, df=8 and p = 0.000). There is a high degree of association

(0.718) between parental motivational strategies and girls' school attendance. Parental motivational strategies can account for about 51.8% of variation in pupils' school attendance.

Pupils' responses concerning the motivational strategies employed by teachers to enhance their school attendance had an index of 46.08. This indicates that the pupils had a high perception on the motivational strategies employed by teachers. The findings shows that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 =0.161, df=1 and p = 0.65). It was found that there was no significant gender difference in teacher motivational strategies (χ^2 = 0.798, df=1 and p = 0.092). Further, there was no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies among teachers based on age (χ^2 = 7.37, df=3 and p = 0.10), qualification (χ^2 = 6.43, df=3 and p = 0.10) and teaching experience (χ^2 = 2.43, df=3 and p = 0.50). However, the analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County (χ^2 =16.21, df=4 and p = 0.01). Teachers' motivational strategies can account for about 5.9% of the variation in pupils' school attendance.

The index of the pupils' perception on teacher modeling strategies to enhance school attendance was 45.38. This is a high level of perception. Therefore the pupils were very optimistic that teacher modeling strategies enhance their school attendance to a great extent. The study also found that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 =0.27, df=2 and p = 0.90). Only 0.1% of variation in teachers' modeling strategies can be due to influence

of pupils' age. Further, there was no significant gender difference in teacher modeling strategies (χ^2 = 0.796, df=1 and p = 0.40). There was no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on age (χ^2 = 2.34, df=3 and p = 0.60), qualification (χ^2 = 6.43, df=3 and p = 0.10) and experience (χ^2 = 2.98, df=3 and p = 0.40). The findings reveals that there was a significant relationship between teachers' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 = 161.571, df =8 and p = 0.000).

There was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. However, there was a significant relationship between the parents' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County ($p<0.05$). In conclusion it is clear from the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data that parents and teachers can play a big role in increasing school attendance of adolescent girls in primary School. Parental motivational strategies can account for about 51.8% of variation in pupils' school attendance according to pupils' perspective which is very high. The pupils' perception on teacher modeling strategies to enhance school attendance of girls was 43.38% which is very high also. This means girls were very optimistic that teacher modeling strategies can enhance their school attendance. From the qualitative data it is also clear that when parents motivate their daughters by giving them basic needs like smart uniform and sanitary towels and become their confidants their school attendance increases.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the pupils' perception of parents and teachers motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County. In this chapter, the results of the study are summarized and conclusions drawn. Finally, the potential areas of future research are outlined. The analysis was done with the outline of the principles of Albert Bandura's Social Learning theory, Porter and Lawler's Theory of Motivation and the proposed Motivational and Modeling Strategy and Attendance Model (MMSAM).

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The summary of findings focuses on the following sub-headings that formed the study objectives:

5.2.1 Influence of Motivational Strategies Adopted by Parents on School Attendance

The first objective of the study was to identify the motivational strategies adopted by parents to promote pupils' attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The findings indicated that pupils' attendance increases when parents- teachers contacts increases 251(96.9%), when parents get involved in academic activities of their daughters 246 (95%), when parents increase involvement in school activities like academic days 238 (91.9%) and when parents support their daughters in academics in a way that give them independence 239 (92.3%). The study further established that when parents assist

their daughters to complete their homework assignment 232(89.6%) and when parents have high expectations for what their daughters can achieve enhance their school attendance 242(93.4%). Similarly,221 (85.3%,)246 (95%,) 246 (95%) and 236(91.1%) of the pupils who participated in this study stated that parents who protect their self-esteem, offer rewards in a motivating manner, are always available for their daughters and create confidence in them, increases school attendance of their daughters respectively. The findings indicated a statistically significant relationship between parents' motivational strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County (χ^2 =274.90, df=8 and p = 0.000). The computed contingency coefficient is 0.718 which implies that there is a high degree of association between parental motivational strategies and girls' school attendance.

5.2.2 Impact of Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers on School Attendance

The study also sought to determine the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to promote school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County. Responses from the pupils who participated in this study indicated that school attendance increases when the teachers care about pupils' academic progress, when teachers are available and when teachers set high expectations for what they can achieve. Teachers who help their pupils to improve their language related attitudes and help them to be focused increases the pupils' school attendance 241(93.1%). Teachers who make learning stimulating and enjoyable 237(91.5%), protect the pupil's self-esteem , promote cooperation among the learners, teach pupils to be independent 229(88.4%) and offer

them rewards and grades in motivating manner 239(92.3%) increase the school attendance of the pupils in the primary schools where the study was done.

Teachers' responses concerning this variable revealed similar results with those provided by the pupils. All the teachers who participated in this study stated that teachers who care about their students' academic progress increases school attendance of the pupils, whereas 64 (97%) stated that teachers who are physically and mentally available for pupils enhance school attendance. Further, 60(90.9%) of the teachers who have sufficiently high expectation for their students increase pupils' school attendance. Another 60(90.9%) of the teachers asserted that teachers who enhance the learners' language-related values and attitude and help learners to be goal-oriented increases school attendance of the pupils. All teachers also stated that teachers who make learning stimulating and enjoyable increases school attendance. The findings indicated that teachers who protect the learners' self-esteem 63 (95.5%), promote cooperation among the learners 60(90.9%), create learners autonomy 56(84.8%) and offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner increase school attendance of the pupils in the schools where the study was carried.

It is worth to note that teachers reported a lower index on motivational strategies they use (index of 45.08) as compared to the pupils' index of 46.08 on the same variable. However, both indices imply a high perception on the motivational strategies employed by teachers to enhance pupils' school attendance. Further statistical analysis indicated a Pearson's chi-square value of 16.21, degrees of freedom of 4 and p-value of 0.01 which implied that there was a significant relationship between teachers' motivational strategies

and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County. The computed contingency coefficient was 0.612 which implies that there was a moderate degree of association between teacher motivational strategies and girls' school attendance.

5.2.3 Effect of Modeling Strategies Adopted By Teachers on School Attendance

The third objective of the study was to establish the teacher modeling strategies that promote school attendance of pupils in primary schools in Baringo County. The pupils who were involved in this study stated that teachers who are enthusiastic, interesting with positive emotions and encouraging 243(93.8 %) increases school attendance of the pupils. School attendance is also increased when teachers keep their pupils' secrets 232 (89.6%), teachers who are friendly with them 232(89.6 %), teachers who are patient and attentive listeners 237 (91.5%) and teachers who demonstrate an understanding of individual differences within the classroom increases school attendance 232(89.6 %). It was also established that teachers who help pupils to minimize stress and embarrassment 235(90.7%), when pupils share feelings and thoughts with the teachers 225(86.9%), teachers who teach respect kindness and empathy 247(95.4 %), when teachers give the pupils opportunities to share in class 237(91.5%) and when teachers encourage successful pupils' interaction by pairing shy pupils with pupils that are well liked increase school attendance of the pupils.

The teachers were of similar views concerning the teacher modeling strategies that promote school attendance of pupils in primary schools in Baringo County. As shown in the findings presented in chapter four, majority 63 (95.5%) of the teachers were of the opinion that teachers who are enthusiastic and encouraging increases school attendance

while 58(87.9 %) stated that teachers who are confident of students increases school attendance. The findings also show that 56(84.8 %) of the teachers stated that teachers who have secure relationship with their pupils' increases school attendance. Teachers who are patient and attentive listeners and have feelings of students 61 (92.4%), demonstrate an understanding of cultural differences within the classroom 46(69.7%), help to minimize a child stress 65(98.5%) and create comfort corners where pupils share feelings and thoughts with the teachers 60(90.9%) increase pupils school attendance. It was also established that teachers who teach compromise, respect, kindness and empathy 61 (92.4%) and when they give pupils opportunities to share and listen and encourage successful students' interaction increases school attendance.

The general index of the pupils' perception on teacher modeling strategies to enhance school attendance was 45.38. This is a high level of perception. Therefore the pupils were very optimistic that teacher modeling strategies enhance their school attendance to a great extent. The findings reveals that there was a significant relationship between teachers' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County(χ^2 = 161.571, df =8 and p = 0.000). The computed contingency coefficient is 0.62 which implies that there is a moderate degree of association between teacher modeling strategies and girls' school attendance.

5.2.4 Influence of Modeling Strategies Adopted by Parents on School Attendance

Finally, the study sought to establish the modeling strategies adopted by parents to promote school attendance. Majority 246(95%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their mothers are supportive, focused on their academic work 240(92.7%), make home visits to families of chronically absent pupils 223(86.1 %) and when their parents emphasize solutions that come from families as opposed to those from school 212(81.9%). Further, 225(86.9%) of the pupils stated that their school attendance increases when their parents establish a contact person at school to work with while 241(93.1%) stated that their attendance increases when parents reward them for improved attendance. Parents who teach their daughters on how to respect and be kind to others 245(94.6%) and parents who help them minimize stress 231(89.2 %) increase the school attendance of their daughters in the primary schools in Baringo County. The inferential statistics indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between parents' modeling strategies and girls' school attendance in primary schools in Baringo County (χ^2 = 383.668, df=8 and sig = 0.000). The computed contingency coefficient is 0.77 which implies that there is a high degree of association between parental modeling strategies and girls' school attendance. Therefore about 59.3% of variation in pupils' school attendance can be attributed to the influence of parental modeling from the pupils' perspective.

5.2.5 Difference in Teacher Motivational Strategies Based on Teacher Characteristics

The fifth objective of the study was to determine the difference in teacher motivational strategies based on teacher characteristics. Chi-square was used to test the hypotheses that were formulated to achieve the stated objective. The study established that there was no significant difference in teacher motivational strategies based on gender (χ^2 = 0.798, df=1 and p = 0.092), age (χ^2 = 7.37, df=3 and p = 0.10), qualification (χ^2 = 6.43, df=3 and p = 0.10) and teaching experience (χ^2 = 2.43, df=3 and p = 0.50). This implies that the teacher motivational strategies were not different based on teacher characteristics.

5.2.6 Difference in Teacher Modeling Strategies Based on Teacher Characteristics

The study sought to establish the difference in teacher modeling strategies based on teacher characteristics. The results found that there was no significant gender difference in teacher modeling strategies (χ^2 = 0.796, df=1 and p = 0.40). Further, there was no significant difference in teacher modeling strategies among teachers based on age (χ^2 = 2.34, df=3 and p = 0.60), qualification (χ^2 = 6.43, df=3 and p = 0.10) and experience (χ^2 = 2.98, df=3 and p = 0.40).

5.2.7 Influence of Motivational Strategies by Parents and Teachers for School Attendance Based on Pupils' Age

The study also sought to determine the influence of motivational strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on pupils' age. From statistical analysis, a Pearson's chi-square value of 1.74, degrees of freedom of 2 and p-value of 0.302 was

obtained. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. However, the parental motivational strategy variation that may be attributed to pupils' age is about 0.7%. It was also established that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' motivational strategies in primary schools in Baringo County($\chi 2$ =0.161, df=1 and p = 0.65).

5.2.8 Influence of Modeling Strategies by Parents and Teachers for School Attendance Based on Pupils' Age

There was need to establish whether there was a significant influence of modeling strategies by parents and teachers for school attendance based on pupils' age. Using chi-square, a Pearson's chi-square value of 0.27, degrees of freedom of 2 and p-value of 0.90 was obtained. This implies that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on teachers' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. Similarly, a Pearson's chi-square value of 0.901, degrees of freedom of 1 and p-value of 0.40 was obtained which implied that there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County. The contingency coefficient was 0.059, which implies that only 0.4% of parents' modeling strategies variation can be attributed to pupils' age.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the motivational strategies adopted by parents to promote pupils' attendance in primary schools were parent- teacher contacts, parents' involvement in academic activities and school activities in the schools

where their daughters are learning and parents support their daughters in academics in a way that give them independence and encouraging them to complete their homework assignment. Further, when parents have high expectations for what their daughters can achieve and protect their self-esteem, offer rewards in a motivating manner, always available for their daughters and create confidence in them motivates learners to continue attending school.

It can also be concluded that the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to promote school attendance among adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County were teachers caring about pupils' academic progress, teachers providing sanitary towels, uniforms and other learning material, involvement of girls in co-curriculum activities like games and music, educational tours and giving them leadership positions, teachers being available and setting high expectations for what their learners can achieve. It was also established that teachers help their pupils to improve their language related attitudes and assist them to be focused. Making learning stimulating and enjoyable, protecting the pupil's self-esteem, promoting cooperation among the learners, teaching pupils to be independent and offering them rewards and grades in motivating manner were some of the motivational strategies adopted by the teachers to enhance school attendance among the adolescent girls in primary schools where the study was done.

As for the modeling strategies adopted by teachers, it can be concluded that teachers who are enthusiastic, friendly, patient, attentive listeners, interesting with positive emotions and encouraging makes the adolescent girls to continue attending school. It should also be noted that when teachers keep their pupils' secrets, demonstrate an understanding of

individual differences within the classroom and help pupils to minimize stress and embarrassment motivates learners to attend school. The pupils' school attendance is also increased when teachers allow pupils to share feelings and thoughts with the teachers and their colleagues through successful pupils' interaction by pairing shy pupils with pupils that are well liked.

Concerning the modeling strategies adopted by parents to promote school attendance, the findings revealed that when parents are supportive, focused on academic work of their daughters, make home visits to families of chronically absent pupils and emphasize solutions that come from families as opposed to those from school, the pupils' school attendance increases. Further, when parents establish a contact person at school to work with, rewarding their daughters for improved attendance and teaching their daughters on how to respect and be kind to others increase the school attendance of the adolescent girls in primary schools in Baringo County. It can also be concluded that there was no significant difference in teacher motivational and modeling strategies based on gender, age, qualification and teaching experience. Further, there was no significant influence of Pupils' age on parents' and teachers' motivational and modeling strategies in primary schools in Baringo County.

5.4 Recommendations of the study

Basing on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made:

i. Parents should be encouraged to visit schools of their daughters frequently and create a good rapport with the teachers in the schools where their daughters are

learning. Parents should also have high expectations for what their daughters can achieve and offer rewards in a motivating manner.

ii. Variety of instructional resources should be used in order to make teaching and learning process to be interesting and enjoyable in order to motivate the learners to continue attending school.

iii. Teachers should be able to determine the individual needs of the learners and be concerned with the pupils' academic progress. This will encourage the learners to continue attending school. Forums should be created to enhance student-teacher interaction so that the pupil's self-esteem and cooperation among the learners can be enhanced.

iv. Parents should support the academic endeavors of their daughters and teach them on how to respect and be kind to others as this is likely to increase the school attendance of their daughters in primary schools. Parents should also be confidants of their daughters.

v. Parents are expected to provide the best modeling strategies which include being supportive, trusted and facilitate home learning.

vi. Since the study established that characteristics of teachers that provided good modeling strategies included being enthusiastic, friendly, patient and attentive listeners, this study recommends that teachers be enthusiastic, friendly, patient and attentive listeners in their interaction with students.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following suggestions are made for future research.

i. A similar study should be conducted in public Day Secondary schools in other Counties with similar challenges as Baringo.

ii. Further research should be conducted in which other variables can be investigated, for instance, insecurity, instructional resources and culture.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Introductory letter

Malatit C.K,

Moi University,

P.O Box 3900-30100,

ELDORET.

Dear Respondent,

RE: COLLECTION OF DATA

The above subject matter refers.
I am a postgraduate student at the School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology Moi University. I am carrying out a study entitled: **"*Pupils' Perception of Parents and Teachers Motivational and Modelling Strategies on School Attendance Amongst Primary School Adolescent Girls in Baringo County, Kenya*".**

You are kindly requested to respond to the questionnaire given. Your responses will help to improve school attendance of adolescent girls in primary school. The information you will give will be treated with outmost confidentiality. **Do not write your name in the questionnaire.**

Thank you

Yours faithfully

Malatit C.K (Researcher)

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APPENDIX II: Questionnaire for Class Teachers

You are kindly requested to respond to the items. Any information you will provide will be treated as strictly confidential. Respond as honestly and as truthfully as possible.

Part A: Background information

In the space(s) provided, please tick (√) appropriately as applies to you.

1. What is your sex
   a) Male ☐
   b) Female ☐
2. What is your age bracket?
   a) 20-29 ☐
   b) 30-39 ☐
   c) 40-49 ☐
   d) 50 and above ☐
3. What is your highest academic qualification?
   a) Masters ☐
   b) Bachelors ☐
   c) Diploma ☐
   d) P1 ☐
   e) Others(specify)_____
4. For how long have you worked in this Institution?
   a) Below 5year ☐
   b) 5-9 Years ☐
   c) 10-14 years ☐
   d) 15 years and above ☐

Part B- Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers to Promote School Attendance

The following statements relate to the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your response.

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

Statement	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
5. Teachers who care about their students' academic progress increase school attendance.					
6. Teachers who are physically and mentally available for students increase school attendance.					
7. Teachers who have sufficiently high expectations for what their students can achieve, increase school attendance.					
8. Teachers who enhance the learners' language-related values and attitudes increase school attendance.					
9. Teachers who help learners to be goal-oriented, increase school attendance.					
10. Teachers who make learning stimulating and enjoyable increase school attendance.					
11. Teachers who protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence, increases school attendance.					
12. Teachers who promote cooperation among the learners increase school attendance.					
13. Teachers who create learner autonomy increase school attendance.					
14. Teachers who give rewards and grades in a motivating manner increase school attendance.					

Part C- Modelling Strategies Adopted By Teachers to Promote School Attendance

The following statements relate to the modeling strategies adopted by teachers to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your response.

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

Statement	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
15. Teachers who are enthusiastic and encouraging, increase school attendance.					
16. Teachers who are confidants of students increase school attendance.					
17. Teachers who have secure relationship with their pupils increase school attendance.					
18. Teachers who are patient, attentive listeners and have feelings of students increase school attendance.					
19. Teachers who demonstrate an understanding of cultural differences within the classroom increase school attendance.					
20. Support of teachers help to minimize a child's stress which in turn increase school attendance					
21. Teachers who create a comfort corner (a particular area where students may go, accompanied by teachers to share feeling, thoughts and ideas) increase school attendance.					
22. Teachers who teach compromise, respect, kindness and empathy increase school attendance.					
23. Teachers who give students opportunities to share and listen, increase school attendance.					
24. Teachers who encourage successful student interaction by pairing shy students with students that are well liked increase school attendance.					

APPENDIX III: Questionnaire For Pupils

You are kindly requested to respond to the items. Any information you will provide will be treated as strictly confidential. Respond as honestly and as truthfully as possible.

Part A: Background information

In the space(s) provided, please tick (√) appropriately as applies to you.

1. What is your age bracket?

   a) 10-15 ☐

   b) over 15 ☐

2. How frequent do you attend school?

   Always ☐ most of the times ☐ Sometimes ☐ less times ☐ rarely ☐

Part B- Motivational Strategies Adopted By Parents to Influence School Attendance

The following statements relate to the motivational strategies adopted by parents to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your opinion concerning each of the items. Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
3. Increased number of parent-teacher contacts increases my school attendance.					
4. When my parents are involved in my academic activities, my school attendance increases.					
5. My parents' involvement in school activities such as school academic days increases my school attendance.					
6. When my parents help me to complete a homework assignment, my school attendance increases.					
7. When my parents support me in my academics in a way that gives me independence, my school attendance increases.					
8. When my parents have high expectations for what I can achieve, my school attendance increases.					
9. Parents who protect my self-esteem, increase my school attendance.					
10. Parents who offer rewards in a motivating manner increase my school attendance.					
11. Parents who are always available for me increase my school attendance.					
12. Parents who create confidence in me increase my school attendance.					

Part C- Motivational Strategies Adopted By Teachers to Influence School Attendance

The following statements relate to the motivational strategies adopted by teachers to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your response.
Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
13. Teachers who care about my academic progress increase my school attendance.					
14. Teachers who are always available for me increase my school attendance.					
15. Teachers who have set high expectations for what I can achieve, increase my school attendance.					
16. Teachers who help me to improve my language-related attitudes increase my school attendance					
17. Teachers who help me to be focused, increase my school attendance.					
18. Teachers who make learning stimulating and enjoyable increase my school attendance					
19. Teachers who protect my self-esteem, increase my school attendance					
20. Teachers who promote cooperation among the learners increase my school attendance					
21. Teachers who teach pupils to be independent increase my school attendance					
22. Teachers who offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner increase my school attendance					

Part D- Modelling Strategies Adopted By Teachers to Influence School Attendance

The following statements relate to the modeling strategies adopted by teachers to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your response. Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
23. Teachers who are enthusiastic, interesting, with positive emotions and encouraging, increase my school attendance.					
24. Teachers who keep my secrets increase my school attendance.					
25. Teachers who are friendly with me increase my school attendance.					
26. Teachers who are patient and attentive listeners increase my school attendance.					
27. Teachers who demonstrate an understanding of individual differences within the classroom increase my school attendance.					
28. Teachers who help me to minimize my stress and embarrassment, increase my school attendance.					
29. Teachers who create a particular area where we may go with a teacher to share feeling and thoughts, increase my school attendance.					
30. Teachers who teach respect, kindness and empathy increase my school attendance.					
31. Teachers who give me opportunities to share and listen in class, increase my school attendance.					
32. Teachers who encourage successful pupil interaction by pairing shy pupils with pupils that are well liked increase my school attendance.					

Part E- Modeling Strategies Adopted By parents to Influence School Attendance

The following statements relate to the modeling strategies adopted by parents to influence school attendance. Using the rating given below, provide your response.

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

Statement	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**
33. When my mother is supportive, my school attendance increases.					
34. When my mother is focused on my academic work, my school attendance increases.					
35. When my parents emphasize solutions that come from families as opposed to those from schools, my school attendance increase.					
36. When my parents make home visits to families of chronically absent pupils, my school attendance increase.					
37. When my parents establish a contact person at school to work with, my school attendance increases.					
38. When my parents refer me to counselors when I miss school for many days, my school attendance increase.					
39. When my parents reward me for improved attendance, my school attendance increase.					
40. When my parents hold responsibilities concerning my education progress, my school attendance increase.					
41. Parents who teach me on how to respect and be kind to others, increase my school attendance.					
42. Parents who help me to minimize my stress, increase my school attendance.					

APPENDIX IV: Interview Schedule for Head Teachers

1. For how long have you been a head teacher in this institution?
2. What is the current student enrollment by gender?
3. How frequent do girls attend school?
4. What factors disengage girls from school?
5. Which motivational strategies do parents use to promote attendance of girls in your school?
6. Which motivational strategies do teachers use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?
7. Which modeling strategies do teachers use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?
8. Which modeling strategies do parents use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?
9. Suggest strategies of enhancing girls' school attendance in your school.

APPENDIX V: Head Teachers Responses During the Interview

1. Researcher: For how long have you been in this institution?

Respondents : Below 5yrs-35%

Between 6-9-70%

2. Researcher: What is the current student enrolment by gender?

Respondents: In 41 schools boys were more than the girls, in 25 schools girls were more than boys.

3. Researcher: How frequent do girls attend school?

Respondents:

i. Always 1

ii. Sometimes 2

iii. Rarely 3

Most of the girls attend school frequently during wet seasons. During dry season they attend school twice a week but during peak ceremonies days they rarely attend. 4

4. Researcher: What factors disengage girls from school?

Responses:

Circumcision of girls (FGM) 5

Early marriage 6

Nomadic way of life 7

Lack of sanitary towels 8

Peer influence 9

Drugs and alcoholism 10

Cultural retrogressive practices and dances 11

High rate of literacy of the parents 12

Poverty level of families 13

Culture whereby girls are perceived as wealth 14

Early pregnancies 15

Household chores, looking after babies and casual labor 16

Thorn uniforms or lack of it 17

During December holidays girls normally undergo (FGM) and this can spill to mid January when school calendar has began hence missing school learning days. 18

Some parents follow alcohol to the extent that they forget their families, the elder girls are forced to skip school so that they can look for casual Labor to buy food for their siblings. 19

Due to the ASAL nature of our area poverty levels are so high and parents cannot afford to buy descent uniform and sanitary towels for their daughters. The daughters therefore are forced to look for casual labor during school days hence missing school in order to get money to meet these basic needs. 20

5. Researcher: Which motivational strategies do teachers use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?

Respondents:

Provision of sanitary towels every month 21

Giving them leadership positions 22

Giving them uniforms and other necessary learning material 23

Involvement of girls in co-curriculum activities and music festival and games 24

Taking them for educational tours 25

Seeking Sponsorship for bright girls through NGO's and well wishers 26

Creating gender friendly learning atmosphere 27

We have trained our female teachers to be friendly to the girls and show care. They raise the self esteem of the girls by teaching them on how to groom themselves, talk well in English and to learn life skills. 28

The number of girls rewarded are normally many as compared to boys.

The most improved girls are also rewarded and encouraging remarks

are given by the teachers to all the girls 29

6. Researcher: Which motivational strategies do parents use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?

Responses:

Provision s of rewards 30

Provision of sanitary towels and uniforms 31

Supporting them with learning materials 32

Attending academic days 33

Minimizing home chores 34

Provision of shelter and food and other basic needs 35

Provision of guidance and counseling to their daughters 36

Very few parents are encouraging the girls by giving them chance to be in school and provide the necessary requirement for example school uniforms sanitary towels and even books. This applies to the few who are literate but the rest do not see the need 37

Every time we call parents to come to school for class meeting or prize giving days only a small number attend. These are the same parents who do not provide basic needs for their children like sanitary towels, smart uniform and even food 38

7. Researcher: Which modeling strategies do teachers use to encourage attendance of girls in your school?

Responses:

Teachers getting interested in what the pupils are doing 39

Developing a positive thinking in them 40

Teachers help students when faced with challenges by developing a secure relationship with them 41

Listening attentively and appreciating all students despite individual and cultural differences 42

Developing positive and warm relationship with the pupils 43

Creating a quiet corner where male teachers take boys to a particular place where they share feelings or ideas and lady teachers do the same for girls 44

Teachers dress well, are self disciplined, communicate effectively and have human face 45

Every Thursday we separate the girls and the boys .The male teachers take the boys and the lady teachers take the girls to a quiet corner or under a tree shade in school. In these

meetings both girls and boys share issues with their teachers and teachers listen to them and advice them. This is done every week during school days. 46

8. Researcher: Which modeling strategies do parents use to encourage attendance of girls?

Respondents: Supporting and having more secure relationship which enables the girls to confide in them 47

Parents get interested in what the girls are doing in school 48

Encouraging them to think positively and regularly check how they are performing in school 49

Organizing for resources parents to talk to them 50

Many parents are not interested in what their children do in school even when they are told to attend class meetings. However, there are a few parents who are interested in what their children do in school. These are mostly the mothers who are learned.

These parents volunteer to have time to talk to the girls 51

9. Researcher: Suggest strategies of enhancing girl's school attendance in you school?

Respondents: Rewarding those who do well 52

Enhancing follow up of girls who have dropped 53

Provision of sanitary towel 54

Building boarding school for girls 55

Educating them on life skills 56

Giving them leadership positions in school 57

Provision of guidance and counseling services 58

Creating conducive environment in school 59

Soliciting scholarship by NGO's 60

Doing campaigns for the girl child education 61

Having anti-FGM campaigns 62

Provision of good uniform, food and learning materials 63

Frequently reminding them of the fruits of education 64

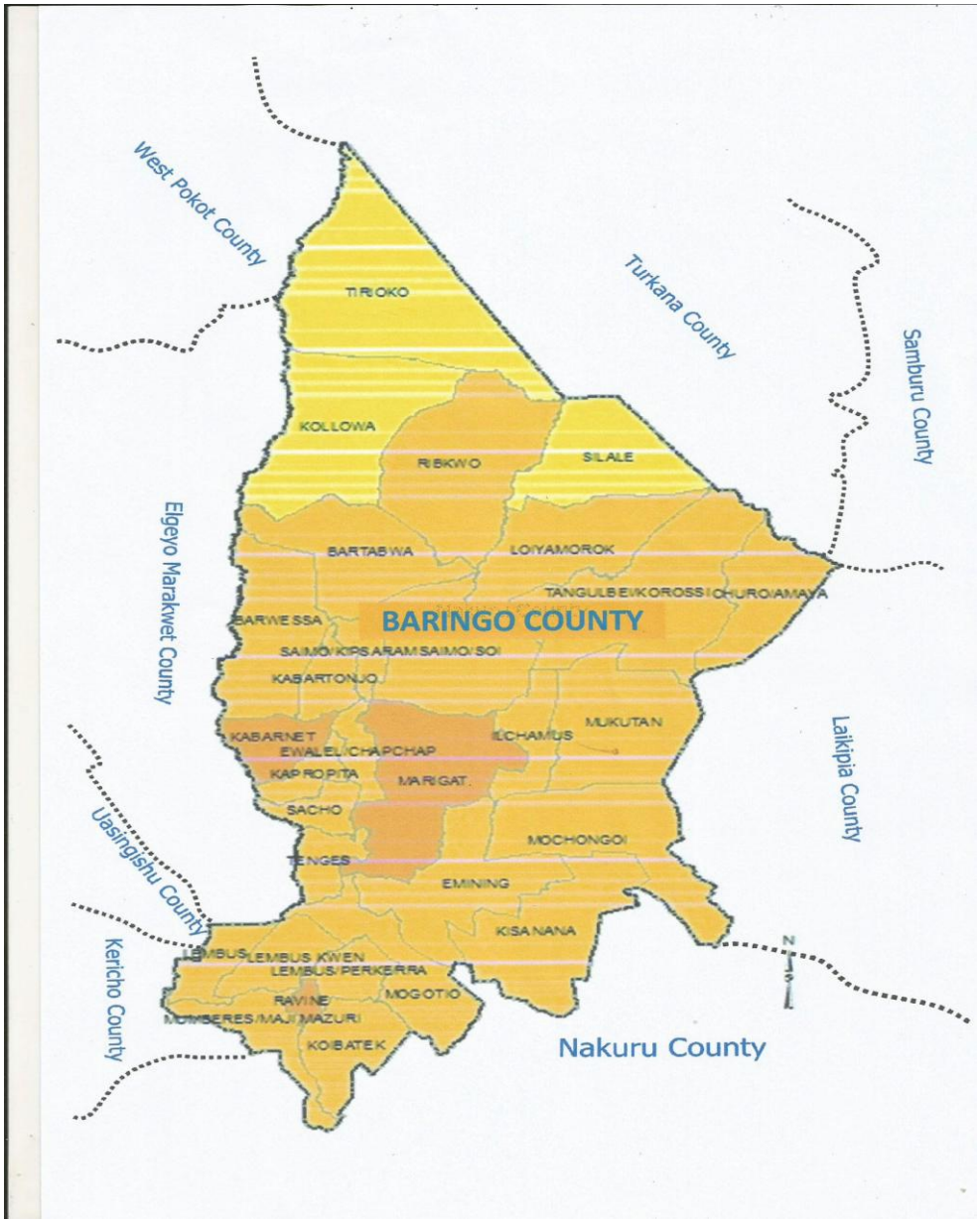
Encouraging competition in class between boys and girls 65

APPRNDIX VI: Document Analysis Guide

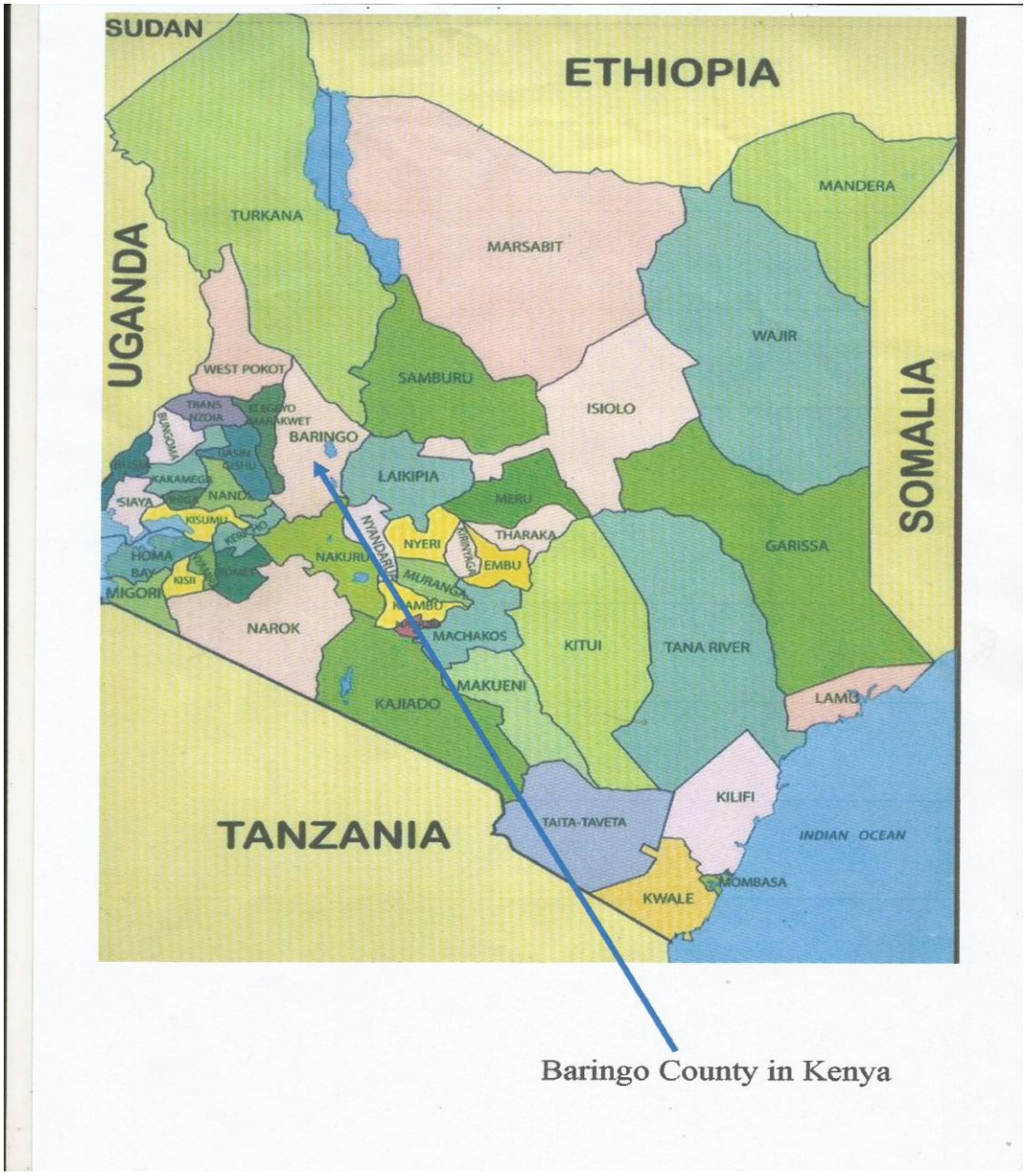
The following documents were analysed

Document	**What was analyzed**
Admission Register	The admission of girls and boys in every class
Class Register	Was attendance of girls, consistency of attendance

APPENDIX VII: Baringo County Map



APPENDIX VIII: Location of Baringo County in Kenya



APPENDIX IX: Introductory Letter from Moi University

MOI UNIVERSITY
Office of the Dean School of Education

Tel: (053) 43001-8
(053) 43555
Fax: (053) 43555

P.O. Box 3900
Eldoret, Kenya

REF: MU/SE/PGS/54 **DATE:** 24th August, 2015

The Executive Secretary
National Council for Science and Technology
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: **RESEARCH PERMIT IN RESPECT OF MALATIT KIPKEMEI CHARLES – (EDU/D.PHI/pgp/1005/13)**

The above named is a 2nd year Doctor of Philosophy (D.Phil) student at Moi University, School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology, School of Education.

It is a requirement of his D.Phil Studies that he conducts research and produce a thesis. His research is entitled:

"Parental and Teacher Motivational and Modelling Strategies on School Attendance Amongst Primary School Adolescent Girls in Baringo County."

Any assistance given to him to enable him conduct his research successfully will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
24 AUG 2015

PROF. J. N. KINDIKI
DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

JNK/db

APPENDIX X: Authorization Letter

NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: secretary@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.

Date:

7th October, 2015

NACOSTI/P/15/34289/8089

Charles Kipkemei Malatit
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on ***"Parental and teacher motivational and modelling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County"*** I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Baringo County** for a period ending **6th October, 2016.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Baringo 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.

DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW
FOR: DIRECTOR GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Baringo County.

The County Director of Education
Baringo County.

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation is ISO 9001: 2008 Certified

APPENDIX XI: Research Permit

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
MR. CHARLES KIPKEMEI MALATIT
of MOI UNIVERSITY, 3900-30100
Eldoret,has been permitted to conduct
research in *Baringo County*

on the topic: *PARENTAL AND TEACHER MOTIVATIONAL AND MODELLING STRATEGIES ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AMONGST PRIMARY SCHOOL ADOLESCENT GIRLS IN BARINGO COUNTY*

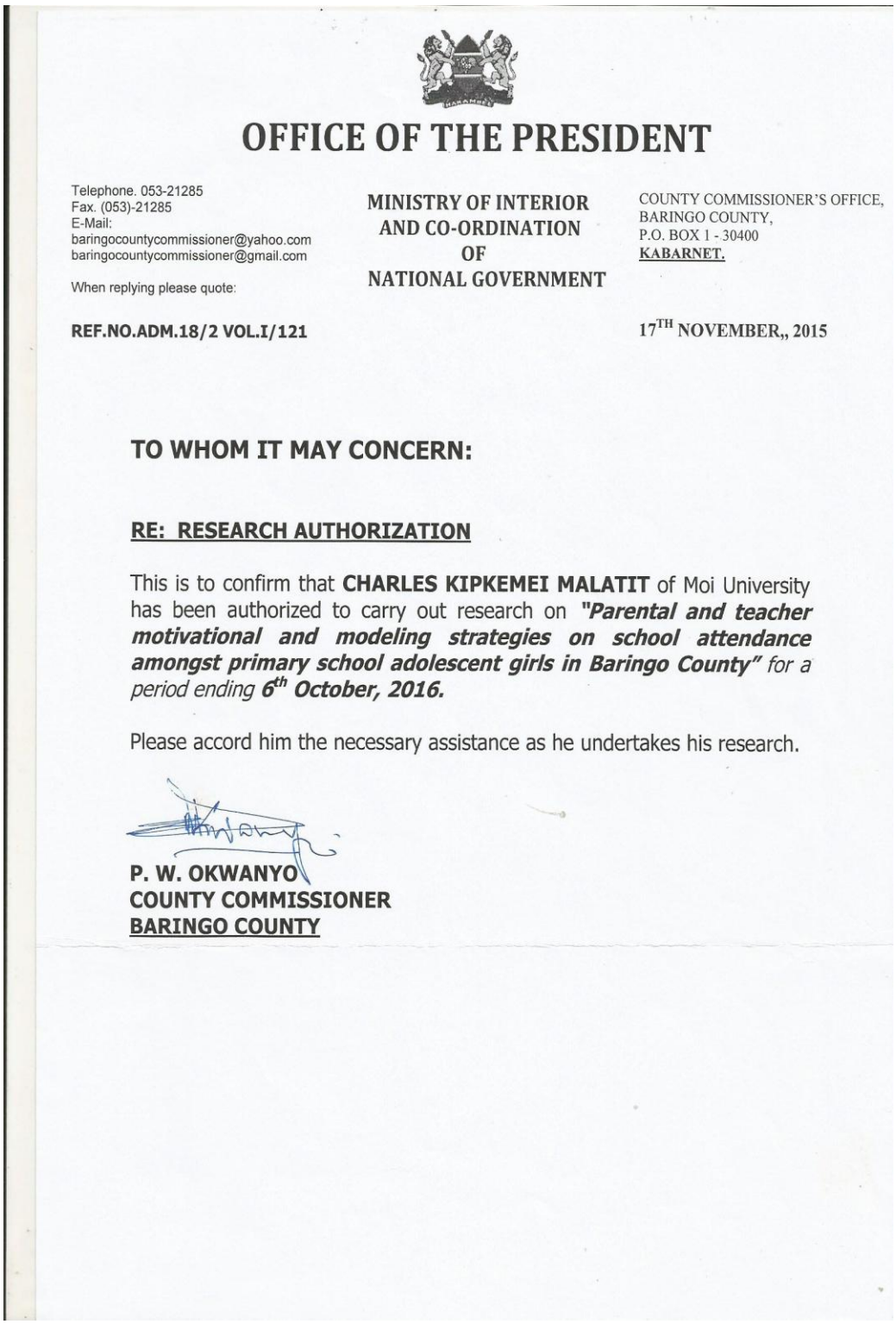
for the period ending:
6th October,2016

.....
Applicant's Signature

Permit No : NACOSTI/P/15/34289/8089
Date Of Issue : 7th October,2015
Fee Recieved :Ksh 2,000

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

APPENDIX XII: Authorization Letter (County Commissioner-Baringo)



OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

Telephone. 053-21285
Fax. (053)-21285
E-Mail:
baringocountycommissioner@yahoo.com
baringocountycommissioner@gmail.com

When replying please quote:

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND CO-ORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

COUNTY COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE,
BARINGO COUNTY,
P.O. BOX 1 - 30400
KABARNET.

REF.NO.ADM.18/2 VOL.I/121

17TH NOVEMBER,, 2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

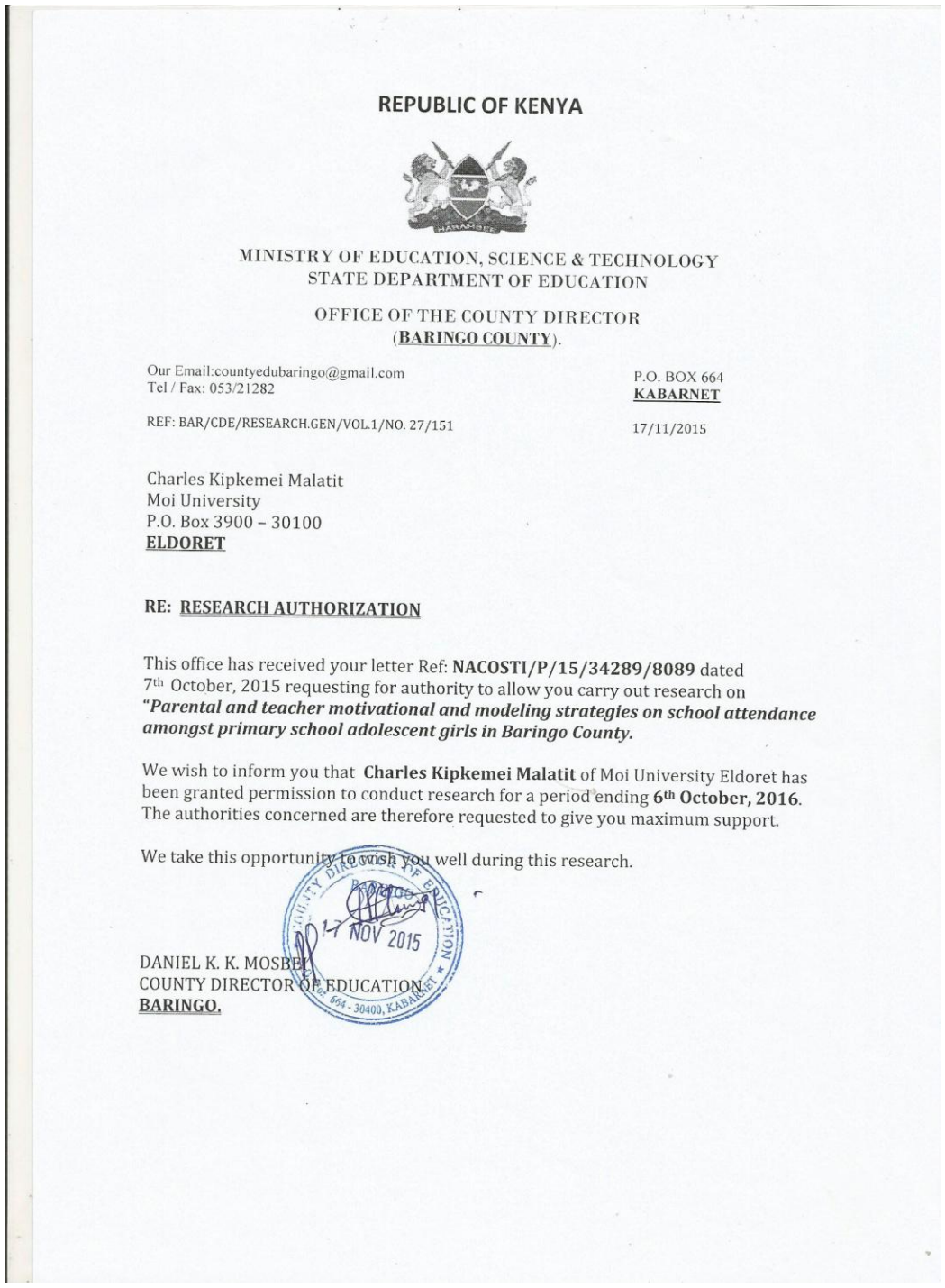
RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This is to confirm that **CHARLES KIPKEMEI MALATIT** of Moi University has been authorized to carry out research on ***"Parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County"*** *for a period ending* ***6th October, 2016.***

Please accord him the necessary assistance as he undertakes his research.

P. W. OKWANYO
COUNTY COMMISSIONER
BARINGO COUNTY

APPENDIX XIII: Authorization Letter (County Director of Education-Baringo)



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

OFFICE OF THE COUNTY DIRECTOR
(**BARINGO COUNTY**).

Our Email:countyedubaringo@gmail.com
Tel / Fax: 053/21282

P.O. BOX 664
KABARNET

REF: BAR/CDE/RESEARCH.GEN/VOL.1/NO. 27/151

17/11/2015

Charles Kipkemei Malatit
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900 – 30100
ELDORET

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This office has received your letter Ref: **NACOSTI/P/15/34289/8089** dated 7th October, 2015 requesting for authority to allow you carry out research on ***"Parental and teacher motivational and modeling strategies on school attendance amongst primary school adolescent girls in Baringo County.***

We wish to inform you that **Charles Kipkemei Malatit** of Moi University Eldoret has been granted permission to conduct research for a period ending **6th October, 2016**. The authorities concerned are therefore requested to give you maximum support.

We take this opportunity to wish you well during this research.

17 NOV 2015

DANIEL K. K. MOSBEI
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
BARINGO.