SOCIAL CONSTRUCTS AS A PREDICTORS OF BOY-CHILD EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION: A STUDY OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN NAKURU COUNTY, KENYA

BY

BENJAMIN KOSKEI KIPKOECH

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ELDORET, KENYA

JULY, 2018

DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

I declare that this thesis has not been submitted in substance for any degree. I further
declare that this thesis is the result of my own investigation. Finally no part of this thesis may be reproduced without prior permission of the author and/or Moi University.

BENJAMIN K. KOSKEI ____________ DATE__________
EDU/D.PHIL.PGP/1002/14

Declaration by the Supervisors
This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University Supervisors.

DR. GODFREY. K. NGENO ____________ DATE __________
Department of Educational Psychology,
School of Education,
Moi University.

DR. CATHERINE. K. SIMIYU ____________ DATE __________
Department of Educational psychology,
School of Education,
Moi University.
DEDICATION

To my daughter Precious Cherono Tapradich. To my Late Sister Vicky Chepkorir and my Late Uncle Livingstone Kimutai Ngetich - May you Rest in Peace
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writing of this thesis has been made possible because of support and encouragement from various people. First, I thank the Almighty God for the gift of life, strength, and good health while pursuing this course. Secondly, I am indebted to my supervisors: Dr. Godfrey K. Ngeno and Dr. Catherine K. Simiyu of Moi University for their great interest and commitment to my research work. Their guidance and support was the key to moving me along to completion. Their constructive criticism and scholarly advice made this work a reality.

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I also thank the principals of public secondary schools and all participants that were involved in piloting of the research instruments and those selected for the actual study. I am indebted to them for granting me permission to use their institutions and the support they accorded me.

Finally, appreciation goes to my wife Everlyne Chepchumba Koskei who has supported and encouraged me throughout my studies and my son Churchill Kipkirui and my daughter Precious Cherono. I also thank my friends who contributed directly or indirectly to the success of this research. For all of you May the good Lord expand the borders of your blessing.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
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<tr>
<td>CDF</td>
<td>Constituency Development Fund</td>
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<td>CFSI</td>
<td>Child Friendly School Initiative</td>
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<td>CSA</td>
<td>Childhood Sexual Abuse</td>
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<td>CS</td>
<td>Cabinet Secretary</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>FAWE</td>
<td>Federation of African Women Educationists</td>
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<td>FGM</td>
<td>Female Genital Mutilation</td>
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<td>FPE</td>
<td>Free Primary Education</td>
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<td>GCSE</td>
<td>General Certificate Secondary Education</td>
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<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
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<td>HLM</td>
<td>Hierarchical Linear Modelling</td>
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<td>KCPE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Primary Education</td>
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<td>KCSE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
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<td>KESSHA</td>
<td>Kenya Secondary School Heads Association</td>
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<td>KMO</td>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin</td>
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<td>KNEC</td>
<td>Kenya National Examination Council</td>
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<td>MDGS</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MOEST</td>
<td>Ministry of Education Science and Technology</td>
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<td>MUSTER</td>
<td>Multi-Site Teacher Education Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>NACOSTI</td>
<td>National Council of Science Technology and Innovation</td>
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<td>NEA</td>
<td>National Education Association</td>
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<td>NER</td>
<td>Net Enrolment Rates</td>
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<td>OERI</td>
<td>Office of Educational Research and Improvement</td>
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<td>QCEC</td>
<td>Queensland Catholic Education Commission</td>
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<td>ROK</td>
<td>Republic of Kenya</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<td>SES</td>
<td>Socio-Economic Status</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization.</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nation International Children Educational Fund.</td>
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Abstract

Educational aspiration is one of the crucial determinants of a person’s success in life. It is influenced by a number of constructs. The purpose of this study was to investigate the social constructs as a predictor of boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools in Nakuru County, Kenya. The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school. The question of educational aspirations among Kenyan boys has become the subject of concern. It is against this background that the need for this study was envisaged. The research was guided by sociological theory, social learning theory. These theories were suitable because of the complex socio-psychological backgrounds of the students. The accessible population of the study was 9715 boys spread among secondary schools in Nakuru County, and 950 teachers. Four hundred and twenty boys were selected through simple random sampling from twenty one secondary schools. The schools were selected through stratified random sampling. Twenty one male teachers and twenty one female teachers, one of each gender from every sample school were selected through simple random sampling. The researcher employed a pragmatic paradigm which is regarded as the philosophical partner for mixed method approach. A causal comparative (ex-post facto) research design was used in the study and the research instruments used in collecting data were questionnaire and interview schedule. A pilot study was carried out in two schools which did not take part in the actual research. The reliability of the instrument was determined through the use of cronbach’s alpha formula and a coefficient of 0.867 and 0.923 for questionnaire and interview respectively. Expert judgment was employed to establish the validity of the research instrument. The researcher carried out analytical review of relevant literature. Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages) and inferential statistics (Anova, t-test, Pearson moment correlation coefficient, and linear regression). Null hypotheses were tested at \( \alpha = 0.05 \). The findings from this study revealed that gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education significantly influenced boys’ educational aspirations. The educational aspiration of boys in single sex schools was higher than that of boys in co-educational schools. It is strongly recommended that the government and education policymakers should consider establishing only single sex schools or convert progressively all the existing co-educational schools into single sex schools to enhance educational aspirations of students. Knowledge of such constructs would be useful to government, parents and teachers since it may guide in formulating strategies that may help improve boys’ educational aspirations.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, research hypotheses, justification of the study, significance of the study and the scope of the study. In addition it provides limitations to the study, assumptions of the study, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definitions of terms.

1.1 Background to the Study

The significance of education in national development as well as that of the individual development is indisputable. For any country, a highly most educated human resource contributes to national development in various perspectives. People have used education as a ladder to climb to desired social economic levels (Njuguna, 2011). Education is a major aspect which aims at human resource development. A person can increase knowledge and expand his/her vision only through education. The real aim of education is the unfolding of hidden potentialities of an individual. While quoting John Dewey, (Dash 2005) stated:

“Education is the process of living through a continuous reconstruction of experiences. It is the person development of all capacities which will enable one to control his/her environment and fulfill his/her possibilities” pg. 7.

Educational aspiration is a significant factor for the enhancement of the education of any person. It is a craving for high achievement in education. It is a crucial aspect of individual’s intrinsic motivation, since it determines efforts towards attaining goals.
High level of educational aspirations is an indicator of high level of achievement and success. Scholastic success of learners is significantly influenced by educational aspirations (Singh & Varma, 1995). In order to develop educational aspirations one should possess a strong desire and willingness to work hard. A person with higher educational aspirations tries to gather new knowledge from whichever field he/she enters. Development of educational aspirations is influenced by a number of factors. The significant influence of gender roles on educational aspiration was reported by Flaxman (1992). Family environment strongly influences educational aspiration of children (Tanya, Beth, Carolyn, & Deborah, 2009; Sino, 2010; Madarasova, Tavel, & Abel, 2010; Boxer, Delorenzo, Savoy, & Mercado, 2011; Gil, Padilla, Teresa, & Suarez, 2011).

The MDGS were succeeded by seventeen Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of which number 4 is about ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting life-long learning opportunities for all. Unlike the MDGs, it focuses predominantly on educational/learning outcomes and cognitive skills rather than school attendance and enrolment, thereby taking into serious consideration the recommendations made in recent years by the Education for All (EFA) initiative and new empirical research. In particular, it focuses specifically on access to knowledge beyond schooling for instance, access to information (media, newspapers, and internet). In the SDGs target 4.1 it requires by 2030 to “ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes” Hanushek & Ludger (2015).
According to Hanushek and Ludger (2015), the most important determinant of economic growth is the “knowledge capital” of nations, which is the aggregate skills of the country’s population and which is the measure of achievement scores. This argument indicates that the importance of the education goal will be to provide resources to reduce poverty, to improve health, and to provide for inclusive growth that lessens inequality within and between countries. The economic gains can be achieved by reaching universal secondary schooling along with all students having basic skills. While access to school is important (consistent with the Millennium Development Goals) improving the quality of schools is equally key in providing a much larger economic impact for both developing and developed countries. Achieving the SDGs requires economic growth that will provide the resources for achieving the range of goals that are considered.

Most African countries lagged behind in development due to high levels of illiteracy among the citizen and this has robbed these countries a chance to realize their development empowerment and potential. Education as a human right has been enshrined in several significant International Human Rights instrument, including Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Covenant on Economics, Social and Cultural Right (1969), the Convention on the Right of a Child (1989), the World Conference on Education For All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, (1990), the Dakar Declaration (2000), and the Millennium Declaration (2000).

According to United Nation International Children Educational Fund (UNICEF), 2004) Ghana has been cautioned against neglecting boy-child education. There has been too much emphasis on girl-child education and it has led to neglect of issues contributing to boy-child education. Statistics on enrolment by Ghana Education Service (GES) estimates Ghana’s primary school enrolment for both boys and girls to be at 83.3%. It was established for example in the Upper East and Upper West regions
that the number of girls in schools outshined that of boys. Thus, Upper East schools enrolment was 80.4%, gross enrolment for girls was 79.2% and that of boys was 76.3%, Upper West, gross enrolment for girls was 79.2% and that of boys was 75.6% when the total enrolment of both sexes was at 77.3%. Based on these statistics, the Upper West and East regions had the highest gender parity rates in the country 1.05 and 1.02% but it had the lowest number of boys in school (UNICEF, 2004).

Although the outcomes of students are different, 82.6% of African American high school sophomores report an intention to attend college within one year of high school graduation, compared to 81% of Caucasians, 87.1% of Asians and 73.8% of Hispanic students (Cahalan, Ingels, Burns, Planty, Daniel, and Owings (2006). The same disparities are prevalent between students of low SES, who are up to four times less likely to complete a Bachelor’s degree compared to those from high SES homes (Rojewski & Kim 2003). One study found that 62% of first-generation students (those who would be the first in their family to attend college) failed to achieve the level of education they aspired to as high school sophomores (McCarron & Inkelas 2006).

Socio-economic status appears to be the better predictor of educational aspirations with 69% of the most economically-disadvantaged students reporting intention to attend college, compared to 90.7% of the highest income students, although this gap has closed from 34% in 2000 to over 20% in 2006 (Cahalan et al. 2006). In Kenya particularly, a lot of activities are geared towards enhancing girl-child educational endeavors while that of boy-child appears to be ignored and many Non-Governmental Organizations in various counties are championing the girls’ agendas.

In Nakuru County, data by the Ministry of Education present declining situations especially for boys’ education in secondary schools. The Net Enrolment Rates (NER) at all levels are generally low compared to national averages. For instance, in 2009,
the NER at pre-school level was at 33.5% for boys and 34.5% for girls compared to national figures of 41.3% and 42.3% for boys and girls respectively. NER was higher than the national averages – 76.2 % and 78.3% for boys and girls respectively – at 84.1% for boys and 85.9% for girls. However, secondary education NER were 19.1% and 25.3%, compared to a national average of 22.2% and 25.9% for boys and girls respectively. The data revealed low secondary education NER particularly for boys. This trend raises fundamental questions regarding the boys’ educational aspirations. This study looked at the social constructs as a predictor of boys’ educational aspirations which has not been fully explored.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In Africa, international bodies and educationalists began in the 1960’s to look into ways girls and women were fairing in education. By 1970s pro-female initiatives by some African governments to encourage enrolment of girls in schools were started. All the attention was drawn to the girl-child and the welfare of a boy-child was not brought into picture. Consequently the boy-child suffered neglect progressively thus becoming vulnerable. According to Federation of African Women Educationists (FAWE, 1996), there has been a marked improvement in enrolment of girls within most countries in the continent.

For example, females now constitute 50% of children enrolled in grade one in Kenya, Zimbabwe, Tanzania and Rwanda. There has been a rise in enrolment from 22% in 1961 to 50% in 1990 in primary schools and 4% at secondary level in 1970 to 15% in the year 1990 in the above countries. All over the world there is agitation for equal rights after realizing that education has much more direct and powerful bearing on social positions of a person and that there is a strong positive correlation between levels of employment rate and education. Despite this strong view about education the number of boys who join and remain in school has remained low in virtually all countries over the world (FAWE, 1996).
FAWE, (1997) enumerates a number of reasons in favor of educating a girl child; it has the highest investment return in developing countries, further it has multiplier effects and empowers women to bring about other necessary changes like family size, increased income and market productivity which if combined with educating boy-child the achievement will be much more. Geiger (2002) indicates that education empowers people to participate in the public and political life. The poor participation of boys in education has raised concern and efforts have been made to find out the reasons behind it.

Notably, gender research in Kenya has often focused on the schooling experiences and outcomes for girls without comparable systematic analysis of the contexts within which boys engage with schooling which has great influence in educational aspirations. The over emphasis on the girl-child education in Nakuru County has seen the number of boys enrolling and attending schools going down and probably their aspirations too. Sub-Counties like Njoro, Rongai, Bahati, Nakuru Town, Naivasha for instance have only one boys’ boarding school each against three for girls in each of the mentioned sub-counties an indication that more girl are attending school than boys. Further, most mixed secondary schools in the region have been converted into girls’ schools leaving the boy-child with few options.

In 2013, 413,390 girls sat for KCPE examination compared to 396,310 in the year 2012, representing an increase of 17,080 girls, while boys increased from 415,620 in 2012 to 426,369 in 2013, and an increase of 10,749 boys. This raised concern over the dwindling number of boys sitting for exams (Limo, 2013). In the recent years there has been much talk about the rights of the girl child. The view that boys are gradually being sidelined in the schooling process which informed educational aspirations has
been part of the public discourse in Kenya. Indeed, education statistics have tended to support this view by portraying higher rates of schooling process in favour of girls. For example, during the official release of Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) examination 2014, former Education Cabinet Secretary (CS) Prof Kaimenyi appealed to relevant authorities not to neglect the boy-child. Data from Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) shows that girls have been consistently closing in on boys in terms of academic performance since the year 2010. Though the trend may be good news for gender activists who for decades have invested billions of shillings to campaign against the plight of the girl child, these gains made may have been at the expense of the boy who was always considered to be at an advantaged place.

The Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KESSHA) through the current chairman Kahi Indimuli has raised concerns over the fewer number of boys being enrolled into their schools and their consequent dwindling performance. The chairman noted that over the past years people have concentrated on the girl-child to such an extent that the boy child is no longer in the picture. He noted that the conditions in many girls’ schools were far much better than those in boys’ schools and urged the government to look into ways of creating a level learning ground (Lungai, 2016). According to Oduor and Ayaga, (2016) more than 6000 secondary students were out of school even as their parents worried about how to rebuild the institutions they burned. Most schools affected were those for boys in Nakuru County raising a lot of concern about boys’ educational aspirations.

In KCSE 2015, 28 out of 47 counties had more girls candidates compare to boys candidates. Nakuru County which is the focus of this study was one of them raising the concern resulting in this research. The CS pointed out that interventions should be put in place to ensure that girl child remains in school and at the same time not to lose
sight of the factors that may be hindering the boy child from completing the educational cycle (Wafula, 2014). In 2014, KCPE examinations girls outshined boys in Kirinyaga County. Girls took the first four positions to beat boys for the second year in a row. Dismal performance by boys has been blamed on parents neglecting boys, indiscipline, drug abuse and lack of commitment in studies (Munene, 2015). Keti, (2015), posits that in Samburu Central girls outperformed boys whereby three out of four top candidates were girls. According to Michira (2016) nearly 12,000 more girls than boys have qualified to join University, and that is a major upset since female students have previously been admitted with lower grades. Only 38,514 boys managed the minimum entry grade of C+ compared to 50,415 girls.
According to Aduda (2017) girls topped the charts in Nakuru County in the year 2017 KCPE examination. Comparatively, it was girls’ only affairs as the best boy nationally was ranked fourth overall. This means that there will be more female students participating in university education than males. In Nakuru County where the study was undertaken there were more female candidates (58.33%) in the top ten positions compared to male candidates (41.67%) in the KCSE results for 2016.

There was an increase in the number of girls sitting KCPE exams which has been consistently higher than that of boys over the past four years. In the year 2017, female candidates posted a 5.64 per cent increase, slightly higher than the number of male candidates which rose by 5.34 per cent. This year’s exam saw 27 counties record more female than male candidates compared to 23 counties in the year 2016. Nakuru County is among the counties which recorded more female candidates (Wambu & Ndunda 2017). This paints a grim picture of the educational status of the boy-child.

The current study looked at the influence of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors herein referred to as social constructs on boys’ educational aspirations which may be responsible for school attendance and performance.

**1.3 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the social constructs as a predictor of boy-child educational aspirations in public secondary schools in Nakuru County. This is based on the perceived relationship between the two variables as illustrated in the problem statement above.
1.4 Objectives of the study

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

i) To investigate the influence of gender roles on boys’ educational aspirations.

ii) To determine the influence of school factors on boys’ educational aspirations.

iii) To investigate the influence of teachers’ factors on boys’ educational aspirations.

iv) To determine the influence of home factors on boy’s educational aspirations.

1.5 Research questions

The study sought to answer the following questions:

i) To what extent do gender roles influence boys’ educational aspirations?

ii) What is the influence of school factors on boys’ educational aspirations?

iii) How do teachers’ factors influence boys’ educational aspirations?

iv) What is the influence of home factors on boys’ educational aspirations?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

The study tested the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: Gender roles have no significant influence on boys’ educational aspirations.

H₀₂: School type has no significant influence on boys’ educational aspirations.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers’ gender and boys’ educational aspirations.

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers’ expectations and boys’ educational aspirations.

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between paternal educational attainments and boys’ educational aspirations.

H₀₆: There is no significant relationship between paternal involvement in education and boys educational aspirations.

1.7 Justification of the study

The status of gender equity and equality in basic education has highlighted challenges
facing the girl-child in particular, overlooking the issues affecting the boy-child. This is in contravention of the recommendation of the Ominde commission 1963 that the goals of education should serve the people of Kenya and the needs of Kenyans without discrimination of any nature. Most studies and literature on boys’ educational aspirations have been done outside Kenya and therefore there is need to look more at the issue from the Kenyan perspective. Also most studies that have been done only concern girls’ educational aspirations and therefore there is need to investigate about the boy-child educational aspirations. The present study was aimed to fill the mentioned gaps.

This study emphasizes the opinion that education contributes towards the realization of all the seventeen SDGs; for example, it is generally acknowledged that schooling offers one an opportunity to break from the vicious cycle of poverty. The study therefore argues that anything that undermines the attainment of education goes against the spirit of SDGs. From January 2007, the government of Kenya committed itself to paying tuition fee for secondary school students while more funding may be sourced from the Constituency Development Fund (CDF). The basic assumption here was that a financial constraint is the single major hindrance in provision of universal education for all. However, it is becoming increasingly evident that there are other factors that have significant influence on boys’ educational aspirations apart from financial constraints. The researcher investigated the social factors herein referred to as constructs as a predictor of on boys’ educational aspirations.

1.8. Significance of the Study
Knowledge of factors that have hindered boy-child aspirations is important to various stakeholders. The study may help school administrators and teachers to use the findings to enhance boy-child educational aspirations. Policy-makers may use the findings of this study to develop programmes that highlight the importance of boys’ education.
Information from this study may be useful to child welfare organizations and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to develop appropriate training programmes on how they could enhance and promote boys’ educational aspirations. As parents and teachers play a great role in influencing their children towards their aspirations therefore the results of the study may help parents to create an enabling environment toward nurturing their children’s aspirations. It is anticipated that the information may help students, particularly the boys to keep abreast with their educational aspirations towards realistic careers in life. The findings may also provide valuable background information to assist scholars and other students who may be interested in pursuing studies in this field.

1.9 Scope of the study
The study was conducted in Nakuru County. It on social constructs specifically gender roles, home, teachers and school influence on educational aspirations of boys in public secondary schools. The study dealt with 420 Form three boys and 42 male and female teachers in twenty one schools within the study area. The variables were categorized into two namely the independent variables (presumed cause) and the dependent variable (presumed effect). The independent variables were gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal education and paternal involvement. The boy-child educational aspirations were taken as dependent variable.

1.10 Limitations to the study
One of the limitations of the study was that, visiting schools in interior of the rural areas was challenging especially during the rainy seasons. To overcome this challenge, the researcher used various means of transport such as four wheel drive car. Another limitation of the study was the ceiling effect of questionnaire associated with collusion of the respondents. This was mitigated by adopting a triangulation approach where other complementary instrument such as interview was utilized. Administration of the questionnaire was expected to evoke anxiety related to examination.
However, the researcher assured the participants that the questionnaire was not testing them in any way. The other limitation was the incomplete questionnaire where some questions were left unanswered. The effects were lessened through the use of interviews. Lastly, the findings may not be generalized outside the research population because of the unique differences. Thus, for such generalizations to be undertaken, other characteristics have to be taken into consideration.

1.11 Assumptions of the study

One of the assumptions of the study was that the boys’ educational aspiration in Nakuru County is low. The respondents would give relevant, objective honest responses to the information required in the questionnaires and interview schedule. This was necessary for providing valid interpretations and conclusions of the study. The study also assumed that intervening variables which were not included in the study (Government policies, maternal education, maternal involvement, school curriculum as well as teachers’ qualification) did not influence boys’ educational aspirations.

1.12. Theoretical framework

There are different theoretical perspectives on the interpretation of educational aspirations and their significance for the future behaviour. The social-psychological theories of educational aspirations were adopted for this study. The sociological theory of status attainment and social learning theory under social-psychological theories informed this study.

1.12.1 Sociological Theory of Status Attainment

The sociological theory of status attainment stresses aspirations as a cognitive state that motivates or drives young people to strive for academic success (Khoo & Ainsley, 2005). The model recognizes that both personal dimension for example the im-
pact of significant others or students’ perception of their own personal attributes) and social dimensions for example quality of schooling, or parental social class) are important factors. Parents in particular have been seen as the most significant others in shaping aspirations because they provide the opportunities, encouragement and support for childrens’ learning (Garg, Kauppi, Leuko & Urajnik 2002).

On the other hand, there exist differences in accessibility to education. The most obvious is between towns and rural areas. Usually various educational institutions are located in the former, while in most cases just only one is available in the latter. Moreover, this no choice option in rural areas may influence the process of aspirations formation. Usually literature on the subject mentions three groups of factors that form educational aspirations: background, personal factors and home factors. The background factor is comprised of social and demographic attributes such as age, gender, socio-economic status and a family structure. The personal factor is psychological in nature and is composed of an individual’s personal attributes, self-perception of competence and attitude toward education, school and work. The home factors include aspects of social support, i.e. paternal education and involvement, affecting the individual (Garg at al., 2002). This study looked at gender roles, school, teachers and home influence on boys’ educational aspirations.

Social-psychological explanations of educational aspirations take a variety of forms. However, they also share an important characteristic. Each theory identifies educational aspirations as dispositions (orientations, outlooks, desires, states-of-being) rather than purely economic calculations. In this view, educational aspirations are the product of beliefs and feelings (about the world and about one’s self), physical, cultural, emotional, and formal and informal educational environments, and a lifetime of observations of and interactions with significant others, caregivers, peers, and
strangers. In this view educational aspirations are not (not exclusively, at least) the product of completely conscious and completely rational economic considerations.

1.12.2 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory (also known as social cognitive theory or observational learning theory) (Bandura 1977; Bandura 1986) has enjoyed a wide range of uses in educational and social-psychological research since its conceptualization. It is used as a theory of learning that incorporates interpersonal, educational, familial, and environmental factors. It is also used as a theory of motivation that accounts for an individual’s contextually learned locus of control, sense of self-worth, and expectations of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and punishments. Social learning theory is based on the premise that most of the learning takes the form of observing the people and events around them. Learning behaviors are (or are not) motivated to engage in similar behaviors by observing the behaviors of others and observing the consequences (rewards and punishments) of their behaviors. In this view, educational aspirations reflect one’s motivation to achieve or succeed, which is formed by a lifetime of observations and experiences.

Social learning theory suggests that behaviour is determined primarily by the people around an individual. The theory holds that most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling. From observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed and, on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action. Children attempt to internalize the conduct of other people and acquire behaviour patterns that are similar to those people. The theory emphasizes the central role of society in learning behaviour. It gives insight on the significant impact which society and other people have on the development of a child’s personality (Bandura & Walters, 1963). The implication of the theory is that the social surrounding of a child contributes immensely to personality development because the people in
the social environment of a child are the ones he imitates and identifies with. Children’s behavior could be said to be a mirror image of the society. In this regard, the educational aspirations of the boy-child could be understood by largely examining his social environment—the significant others and the society at large. As children observe others, they might incorporate their goals and values to their own behaviours in an effort to feel connected or identify with those individuals.

According to Mcleod (2011), the impact can either be positive or negative based on the person whom the child chooses to emulate and the reasonable expectations the child can have of positive outcomes. When applied to this study, this theory suggests that the social environment is important in understanding the challenges the boy-child is facing today. The theory was thus useful in shedding light on different aspects of the boy-child’s social environment such as: the home, school, the role of his peers in relation to how this impacted on his behaviour and the general neighbourhood where he lived. As Rhee and Waldman (2002) observed, social environment is the most significant factor in influencing the behaviours of children and adolescents.

1.13 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual Framework is a research tool intended to assist a researcher to develop awareness and understanding of the situation under scrutiny and to communicate this. It forms part of the agenda for negotiation to be scrutinized and tested, reviewed and reformed as a result of investigation (Mutai, 2000). The independent variables that were considered in the conceptualization were gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement whereas boy-child educational aspirations were itemized as a dependent variable. Government policies, maternal education, maternal involvement, school Curriculum as well as teachers’ qualification were the intervening/mediating
variables. These intervening variables have some impact on the independent and the dependent variables. To control the intervening variables in the study, techniques such as matching and random selection of respondents from appropriate population was done. The model (figure 1.1) employed for this study focuses on the social constructs as a predictor of boy-child educational aspirations in public secondary schools in Nakuru County of Kenya.
**Figure 1.1: Interaction of variables of social constructs on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school.**

*Source: Researcher, (2018).*
1.14. Operational Definition of Terms

The following operational definitions of key terms were used in the study.

**Boy’s Academic Performance:** The boy’s combined average score in the tests from the school records for example high and low performers as indicated in KCSE performance for selected years.

**Boy-Child:** In this study it referred to the male child attending secondary school.

**Educational Aspirations:** In this study it refers to a strong desire, hopes and ambitions for high achievement in education of the boys that is influenced by intrapersonal and interpersonal factors. In this study, educational aspiration is replicate of student hopes in terms of educational attainment and career after finishing their study and it was measured through academic performance, progression in schooling.

**Gender Roles:** This is defined as society expectations of how male should behave and their responsibilities within the society. In this study this definition was maintained.

**Home Constructs:** These are home based influences on one’s behavior. In this study they were limited to paternal level of education and paternal involvement in education assumed to influence boy-child educational aspirations.

**Paternal Educational Attainment:** In this study, it referred to the level of education of a father. It was measured through questionnaire and interviews to determine that performance was high, medium and low.

**Paternal Involvement in Education:** In this study it refers to the father-boy
influences regarding educational aspirations and career preferences and orientation that students bring with them to secondary school and persist during the course of the student’s school years. It also refers to time spend by a father discussing academic issues and encouraging the boy.

**School Constructs:** In this study it refers to school related factors which hinder boy-child educational aspirations and in this study the only factor that was investigated was the type school.

**School Type:** In this study it refers to the classification of schools that take into consideration aspects such as whether the school is single-sex or mixed schools.

**Social-Constructs:** These define meanings, notions or connotations that are assigned to objects and events in the environment and in this study it refers to gender roles, school, teachers and home related factors which hinder boy-child educational aspirations.

**Teachers’ Expectations:** This refers to teachers’ perceived boys’ educational abilities and pressure expected by teachers on the boys to perform in school and to pass the exams.

**Teachers’ Constructs:** In this study it refers to teacher related factors which hinder boy-child educational aspirations and in this study includes teachers’ expectations and teachers’ gender.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter has reviewed literature that is general in nature and specific to boy-child educational aspirations. These studies give a description of the social constructs in relation to educational aspirations, gender roles, school factors (school type), teachers factors (teachers’ gender and teachers’ expectations), and home factors (paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement). The purpose of this literature review was to form a basis for the present study. This chapter reviewed a number of publications (articles, seminar papers, government policy papers, research reports, journals, textbooks, theses, newspapers, and periodicals). To shed light on social constructs as a predictor of boy-child educational aspirations in public secondary schools this literature review discussed the findings of various authors on the study.

2.1 Gender as a Social Construct

Since attaining political independence, the Kenya government has been following policies geared toward social equality and non–discrimination. In the educational sector, considerable efforts have been made to ensure that regional, special needs and gender disparities are addressed. The girl-child has been fore grounded at the expense of boy-child thus reversing the gains so made about the closing the gap on gender disparities. Obanya, (2005) states that an educated female is likely to become: a more competent and knowledgeable mother, a more productive and better paid worker, an informed citizen, a self-confident individual and a skilled decision maker. Also the significant contribution of female education is expressed in terms of economic, cultural and political aspects in a country.
According to Robinson (2009) it is not only in the workplace where women are showing more aggressiveness and more promising future even in school during parents, teacher and children's meetings, it’s always the girls who ask questions or offer prayers at the end of the sessions. All this time boys have been encouraged to come up and also make comments but at that point, the boys’ are not interested and not willing at all to participate prompting the researcher to investigate what is making the boys to behave in a certain manner. It is interesting that of the top 20 positions in class, 60% are often taken up by girls. This situation is more pronounced in Nakuru County where even at the KCSE national exam level, girls are now scoring higher than boys. The only Counties where boys are still doing better than girls in academic performance are in Nyanza, North Eastern and Coast regions in Kenya. Curiously these are the last three regions in terms of wealth endowment (Robinson, 2009).

According to World Declaration on EFA (1990) Jomtien targets are: the expansion of early childhood care and development; universal access to and completion of primary education by the year 2000; a reduction of adult illiteracy rates to one half of the 1990s levels by 2000, with an emphasis on female literacy; improved learning achievement; based on the attainment of defined levels of performance; expansion of basic education and training for adults and youths; improved dissemination of knowledge, skills, and values required for sustainable development. It is instructive to note that the Kenya government is also signatory to major International Conventions and agreement that address human rights and gender equality issues. These efforts are aimed at the realization of MDGs and EFA. All these efforts are done in order to increase gender parity and equity while enhancing efficiency and effectiveness of the system. It is worth noting that there has been an important shift in educational outcomes in the Commonwealth Caribbean for both boys and girls. On the one hand, educational outcomes for girls have improved significantly: girls now constitute the majority of secondary school enrolments in the region.
(Reddock, 2004). Andres, Adamuti-Trache, Yoon, Pidgeon and Thomsen (2007) have shown that there are between-gender changes in the level of education that is aspired to over time. These authors, however, did not formally analyze the nature of this change. For example, parents’ level of education has been found to be significantly related to adolescent educational aspirations (Kirk, Lewis-Moss, Nilsen, & Colvin, 2011; Kerpelman, Eryigit, & Stephens, 2008; McWhirter, Larson, & Daniels, 1996), and appears to have differing influences depending upon the gender of the student (Andres et, al. 2007; Evans, 2009). Therefore, it appears reasonable to explore the possibility that gender roles interact in influencing the boys’ educational aspirations.

The major reason for all this is “reduced gender gap”. Empirical research revealed in Kenyan context is that in some counties Nakuru included boys have been surpassed in enrolment and performance which is a wake-up call and that forms the basis of this research. This research provides a framework for planning and formulating a gender responsive education at all levels. It is extrapolated that its implementation will bring to fruition the overall goal of the educational and employment sector that is, to provide equitable education for all Kenyans regardless of gender. Education has a critical role to play in addressing issues of gender equality in Kenya. The overall goal of the government is to promote equal access to education for both boys and girls. To shed light on social constructs as predictors of boy-child educational aspirations in public secondary schools this literature review discussed the findings of various authors on the study.

2.2 Educational Aspirations

According to Sirin, Diemer, Jackson and Howell (2004), aspirations have been defined as the educational and vocational dreams that students have for the future. Aspirations begin to be shaped early in a child’s life, but are modified by experience and the environment as they mature up in response to their growing understanding of
the world and constraints imposed by previous choices and achievements. Educational aspirations refer to the highest educational level individuals expect to achieve, thus, the higher the aspirations, the more advanced degrees individuals want to attain. Many students identify academic achievement as an important value (Robbins, Wallis & Dunston, 2003).

Educational aspirations is a paramount variable in predicting academic achievement and aspirations and may be seen as an element in academic achievement motivation, focusing on the desire for success and the development of goals to succeed in particular educational fields or to gain a particular degree. Students’ educational aspirations have strong positive effects on their educational achievement and attainment (Kao & Tienda 1995; Marjoribanks, 2003; Mau 1995; Wilson & Wilson 1992), which, in turn, have strong effects on their earnings (Pascarella & Terenzini 2005; Perna 2003). Students with high educational aspirations are more likely to: do well in school, attain higher education degrees, and reap the economic rewards of higher education degrees in the labor market than students with low educational aspirations.

Students’ educational aspirations also mediate the effects of their socioeconomic origin (parents’ socioeconomic status) on their achievement and attainment (Garg et, al. 2002); Marjoribanks, 1995; Mau & Bikos 2000; Seginer & Vermulst, 2002). In other words, students’ educational aspirations can strengthen or diminish the effects of where they come from and how far they go in school. Researchers have thoroughly studied students’ educational aspirations and identified a number of factors that affect variation in these aspirations. Among the strongest predictors of students’ educational aspirations are the educational aspirations students’ parents have for them (Okagaki & Frensch, 1998; Qian & Sampson Lee 1999; Teachman & Paasch, 1998; Trusty, 1998).
According to Cahalan et al. (2006) a considerable 38% increase in aspirations was reported between 1980 and 2002, with four out of five students reporting a desire to attain at least a Bachelor’s degree (while this aspirational increase is positive and is correlated with comparable increases in post-secondary enrollment, it fails to paint the whole picture of educational aspirations. Despite more than 90% of students reporting aspirations to attend some form of college, the actual enrollment in college is approximately 57% with as few as 29% of students obtaining a Bachelor’s degree (US Department of Education 2006). More importantly, the disparities between adolescent aspirations and future educational attainment are more pronounced with students from minority groups (Messersmith & Schulenberg 2008) and those with low SES. While African-Americans and Caucasians graduate from high school at similar rates, Caucasian students are still almost twice as likely as African Americans to graduate from college (Children’s Defense Fund 2010; US Department of Education 2006).

Educational aspirations are influenced by multiple intrapersonal and systematic factors (Gottfredson, 2002). Some factors related to aspirations include their level of intrapersonal skills, self-reliance, self-control, and self-concept (Marjoribanks, 2002). Systematic variables related to educational aspirations include students’ socio-economic status (SES), the level of family’s involvement in their children’s education, ethnicity, race, familial aspiration and level of parental education (Suh & Suh, 2006). As one aspect of educational engagement, educational aspirations have been found to be one of the most significant predictors of actual educational and career educational attainment for young people (Garg, Melanson, & Levin, 2007; Mau & Bikos, 2000). This current study looked at boys’ educational aspirations in relation to social constructs for example gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal educational attainment and involvement on
According to Dounay (2006), one in three individuals obtains a degree. It is reasonable to propose that aspirations serve as a motivational factor in students’ educational success. Past research on aspirations focused on structural factors (social class, resources and school system). For example, Ali and McWhirter (2006) reported that educational aspirations are positively associated with SES. In addition, students have increased aspirations when their parents are more educated and have higher SES. More specifically, theory and empirical evidence converge to indicate that level of educational aspiration is predictive of persistence in schooling (Bui, 2007; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; Tinto, 1993); academic motivation (Domene, Socholotiuk, & Woitowicz, 2011); subsequent educational attainment (Anders et, al. 2007) and eventual occupational outcomes (Eccles, 2009; Schoon & Parsons, 2002). Extant work has also shown that educational aspirations differ according to ethnicity (Chang, Chen, Greenberger, Dooley, & Heckhausen 2006; Strand & Winston, 2008; Uwah, McMahon, & Furlow, 2008), socioeconomic status (Marjoribanks, 2003), and family composition-single-parent homes (Garg et, al. 2007).
Engin-Demir (2009) stated that education is not a charity but rather a fundamental human right for all people irrespective of their sex, race and economic status. In any society, availability and quality of education is fundamental and basic for human resource development. Human resource development constitutes an underlying basis upon material development. One of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) stated that by the year 2015 all children in developing countries should complete primary school education, but again those who have managed to complete this level of education often perform dismally on academic tests (Glewwe & Kremer, 2006). The target of MDG number 3 was the elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary education preferably by the year 2005 and at all levels of education not later than the year 2015. Yet in developing countries pupils who have

In attempting to identify factors that influence the educational aspirations, research has also explored how other aspects of educational engagement predict school outcomes. For example, in a longitudinal study, Wang and Eccles (2011) demonstrated that drops in school participation, sense of school belonging, and self-regulated learning was linked to drops in educational aspirations. Personality factors, such as self-esteem and self-concept have also been shown to influence educational aspirations (Garg et al. 2007; Uwah et al. 2008).

In addition, there is reason to believe that the developmental course of educational aspirations is a gendered phenomenon (Evans, 2009; Shapka, Domene & Keating 2008). Eccles has proposed that the subjective task value of a particular achievement-related choice may differ by gender (Eccles, 2005; Wigfield & Eccles, 1992); that is, evaluating the costs and benefits of pursuing a particular educational goal may involve weighing very different things for girls than for boys. Some support for this possibility is provided in Marjoribanks (1995) study of university students’ explanations for pursuing a bachelor’s degree, which revealed that female students
were more likely than male students to provide internal reasons (e.g. desire for self-fulfillment), and less likely to provide explanations based on luck or circumstances.

Existing research on gender differences in high school students’ levels of educational aspiration have provided a mixed picture, with some studies indicating that boys have higher educational aspirations (Inoue, 1999; Mendez & Crawford, 2002; Wilson & Wilson, 1992), some studies indicating that girls have higher educational aspirations (Mahaffy & Ward, 2002; Mau, 1995; Mau & Bikos, 2000), and others finding no significant gender differences (Garg et, al. 2002). A potential resolution to these seemingly contradictory findings is the possibility that the aspiration levels of male and female adolescents have distinct trajectories over time, such that boys will have higher aspirations at some ages, while girls will have higher aspirations at other ages (Shapka et, al. 2008). Whatever the case, this study concerned itself with the educational aspirations of boys only.

In reference to school systems, Griffin, Allen, KimuraWalsh and Yamamura (2007) found that high school students with higher aspirations are more likely to be involved in college courses, have increased access to counselors, gain sufficient knowledge on college preparation or adjustment, and receive information from parents and peers regarding the college environment. Similar to Patterson (2007), prior studies indicated that students with structural advantages have high aspirations. However, such studies might reveal little about students who do not have a desire or opportunity to enter college immediately after high school. Indeed, it is possible for aspirations to develop from a variety of venues or experiences after high school. For example, Crume (2005) argued that college aspirations might increase as young adults gain employment, learn a new skill or seek hobby-related interests. So, while it is important to identify factors that might affect aspirations for post-high school employed adults, the scope of this
study is limited to high (secondary) school.

McCracken and Barnicas (1991) studied differences between urban and rural schools, student characteristics and students aspirations in Ohio and found that rural youth are less likely to plan to attend colleges and more likely to plan for vocational training than their non-rural peers. Mau (1995) studied educational planning and academic achievement of middle school students and found significant racial and gender differences in educational vocational planning. Also, there was significant race and sex interaction in student’s educational aspirations as well as perception of parental expectations. Park (2008) compared the levels of educational aspirations and students disengagement between students with two parents and those with a single parent. The study was conducted over 9th and 12th grade students of Korea and found that students with single parents have low aspirations to complete four year university education and more likely to be disengaged than their counterparts with two parents.

Strand and Winston (2008) studied educational aspiration in inner city schools over 800 pupils of age group 16-18 years and found no significant differences in aspirations by gender or year group but differences between ethnic groups were marked. Conway (2010) explored educational aspirations of immigrant and native students in urban community college and found that immigrant students who were educated in United States high schools were more likely than other students groups to aspire to college. According to the study done by Rothon in 2011 about the relationship between education aspirations and achievement of secondary education in deprived area of London the researcher found out that girls were more likely to express a wish to remain in education beyond the age of 16 than the boys. The researcher also opined that ethnic differences, socio-psychological variables, self-esteem and particularly psychological distress were associated with high educational aspirations. In another study by Singh (2011) who researched on educational
aspirations among secondary school students he found out that educational aspirations of boys are better than that of girls. These conflicting findings prompted the researcher to undertake this current study.

According to James (2002) students with low educational aspirations possess the following characteristics and vice versa. They have little interest in the subjects they could study at the university or any other institution of higher learning, and they have less confidence in their academic results. Young people who are presently in secondary school are preparing for a life in which knowledge and the capacity to renew knowledge is critical in their future lives. They will have working careers that will extend through to the year 2050 and beyond. While the future nature of work cannot be foreseen with precision the anticipation is that these young people will have working careers which are complex and in continual state of change. The majority of the workers will add value through highly specific knowledge that will need regular renewal. These trends will place a premium on initial levels of educational attainment and many people may require them to participate in formal education and training at certain stages in their lives. This makes their present levels of aspirations for higher education of paramount importance. The imperative for lifelong learning makes it important to understand student’s aspirations, the influences on them and their decision making process for these are likely to be central in shaping their aspirations in ongoing involvement in formal learning. In these circumstances it is important to understand the conditions that lead to educational advantage and disadvantage if the current gaps in higher education between community subgroups are to be narrowed, (James, Baldwin & McInnis, 1999b).

In higher education there are persistent participation inequalities in Kenya. Despite the steady expansion in the number of people entering higher education, certain im-
balances in the student overall representation are experienced. Patterns of access to universities and courses and across fields of study are significantly ethnically stratified with pastoral communities being under represented in prestigious courses. Since the more highly selective courses and institutions offer particular benefits and opportunities, the stratification experienced in Kenyan institutions of higher education is a significant. The initial remedial step to correct this situation is in understanding the levels of aspirations for higher education among the youth. Current evidence from a range of national and international studies indicates that boys are less likely than girls to be actively engaged in schoolwork (Bleach, 1998; Jha & Kelleher, 2006; Gosai, 2009).

According to Belal, (2010), the phenomenon of gender gap in education has been recognized in both developed and developing countries since the 1990s. In the UK during the 1960s and 1970s, boys’ underachievement was seen as a byproduct of inequalities in social class and/or race rather than gender differences. In the 1990s the “problem” of boys’ underachievement was construed as ‘boys being boys’ in their reaction to major changes in the educational system. In the United States, studies conducted on boys’ underachievement found that boys scored lower in language arts on standardized tests than girls. Furthermore, statistics reveal that boys are underachieving at a higher rate than girls in both reading and writing, including the National Assessment for Educational Progress report indicating significant gender differentials in the 1998 reading and writing assessments. Boys also enroll in fewer advanced courses and have higher dropout rates ((Belal, 2010).

In some developing countries such as those in Latin America and the Caribbean, boys generally have higher repetition rates in grades and lower academic achievement levels than girls, and in some countries, a higher rate of absenteeism. It also stressed the
fact that boys’ underachievement is a growing problem in some developing countries and it requires policy attention. In the Arab States, a gender gap to the disadvantage of boys is observed in graduation ratios at the lower secondary level. In three-quarters of the countries with available data, boys’ completion rates at the lower secondary education tend to be below the rates for females (United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 2006). Girls in most Arab countries as reported by UNESCO for example, tend to have higher graduation rates than boys with the exception of, Djibouti and Oman. The UNESCO also reported that the increase in enrollments in secondary education for girls was higher than that of boys and this gender parity suggests that if trends continue, women soon would be the majority (UNESCO, 2006).

2.3 Gender Roles on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations.

According to Figueroa (2000) female gender roles are more conducive to the requirements of successful studious behavior. The researcher contends that girls’ early childhood socialization and their role within the household work well with the demands of homework and reading, whereas the social space occupied by boys rejects this. As equal opportunities have increased within the educational system, these female gender identities have become more and more in tune with the ethos of education (discipline, more adult supervision, more responsibility) while boys have increasingly been alienated from inhabiting the space of academic aspiration. As boys fall behind within schooling, this problem becomes exacerbated by their acquisition of a defensive posture.

Figueroa (2000) ties this discussion into a broader issue of Creole and Slang and their usage by boys in Jamaican society as a badge of masculinity, whereas Standard English is viewed as effeminate. This issue surrounding language presents a further
dialogue on class and ethnicity that will be explored later. More generally, the researcher once again approaches the dominance of better female performance in the humanities as a consequence of gender stereotyping, where ‘harder’ subjects, such as the physical sciences and mathematics, continue to be the preserve of males. Some of the literature on the feminisation of schooling has a complexity that places it within the limits of (a) certain academic subjects that are dominated by girls, often referred to as ‘soft’ subjects; and (b) a certain time-frame of schooling that sees these perceptions of femininity being overcome by some boys as they grow older. This presents a broader perspective on the overall issue of boys’ educational aspirations that challenges the idea of boys being disadvantaged in the long term. The humanities and languages in particular have come under serious focus as the areas where boys mainly underachieve (Figueroa 2000).

In the Guyanese context, Hunte (2002) argues the opposite by maintaining that as time goes by, the sciences are also becoming more open to women. The changing roles of men and women, he argues, are proving to be educationally disadvantageous for men, with “the educated male fast becoming an ‘endangered species’, as witnessed by the outnumbering of men by women at the tertiary level graduations of the University of the West Indies and the University of Guyana. Conversely, in one of the few findings on this subject in Africa, the Multi-Site Teacher Education research Project (MUSTER) included statistics showing that despite successful attempts to address gender stereotyping in Lesotho – with boys showing considerable interest in such traditional female subjects as nutrition and cookery – there was nonetheless a rise in drop-out rates among boys as they reached late primary and transitioned to early secondary school (Jobo, 2001).

Marks (2001), shows that by age 14 girls in the UK start to substantially out-perform boys in English. Boys’ lower performance has been attributed to the use of more
female-oriented’ reading materials, with suggestions that the inclusion of more factual, ‘male-oriented’ works could increase male performance. This argument can also be found in Hunte (2002) in the context of Guyana. A number of studies have pointed out how better performance by boys in traditionally feminine subjects such as languages is perceived to be ‘gender inappropriate’ and hence undesirable in different contexts. Epstein’s study (1998) on British education draws attention to the limitations of the timeframe within which the impact of masculine perceptions and the subsequent view of schooling as ‘feminine’ takes place. The researcher argues that although girls outperform boys in schools from late primary until they sit for GCSE examinations, this phenomenon does not extend to the sixth form and ‘A’ levels, where boys become free to aspire academically due to a shift within masculine identity from anti-‘feminine’ and anti-school, to that of a “muscular intellectualness” inherent within hegemonic middle-class masculinity. But the fact that the British sixth form is a non-compulsory form of education, coupled with the availability of this “muscular intellectualness” in only a narrow class context, presents further questions of gender roles and academic universality that need to be addressed when studying boys’ underachievement. In other words, while disaffection towards schools may inhabit a limited timeframe, and any disparity for middle-class boys may be redressed in later stages of academia, educational opportunities would already have passed for many boys who lack the privileges of class.

According to Dube (2005) continuous lobbying and advocacy, and training to mainstream gender equity in the entire education system will have to be intensified. Development of realistic gender sensitive benchmarks and indicators is a critical variable in achieving EFA goals. Targeting of the girl-child, and in some instances the boy-child, is necessary if not essential for EFA. This has led the boy child to be relegated to the periphery and thus endangered. Although most studies on the long-
term consequences of Childhood Sexual Abuse (CSA) have focused on girls, sexual abuse of both boys and girls is common. In Africa, for example, children are often needed to work on the family land and the loss of their labour is a cost to their parents, even if paid employment in the ‘modern sector’ is not available. This propels parents not to educate their children especially the boy-child so that they work for the family. Boy-child often engages in manual jobs, does not attend schooling and they are exploited as result of child labour. Empirical studies contend that more emphasis should be placed on girl-child education in many countries thus leading to back grounding of boy-child which is detrimental (Dube, 2005).

The employment data in Samoa reveals that a high proportion of men are employed in traditional occupations such as agriculture, mining and forestry, the proportion being as high as 44 percent as against 14 percent for females according to the 2001 national census. It is likely that a preponderance of occupations that do not call for modern education as a pre-requisite means there is no catalyst to increase the demand for secondary schooling among males (Government of Samoa, 2003b). The literature available from Africa where boys are not academically achieving as well as girls, the alignment of gender and economic roles emerges more clearly as a determinant of boys’ dropping out of school and underachieving. The comparison between Botswana and Ghana already mentioned highlighted the lower performance of boys compared to girls within peri-urban and rural schools, and attributed this in part to the need for those boys to access employment opportunities at an earlier age (Dunne, 2005). Further research in Botswana noted in Equals Newsletter makes a correlation between the traditional role of boys as cattle herders and increased drop-out and low enrolment rates in the transition from primary to secondary school (Challender, 2004).

The absence of fathers and older brothers, who leave to work in the diamond mines, puts the pressure on boys to take on their position at home. With half of families in
Botswana owning cattle, this is not necessarily a factor only applicable to economically marginalized groups. A ‘graduation’ on to the mines as the boys grow older only compounds the perceived lack of need for boys’ education. The current experience in Lesotho with boys’ underachieving in school lies within an economic and cultural history of gendered economic alignment (Jobo, 2001). It argues that male child labour is very common in Lesotho, with young boys in the rural areas being denied their right to education by being hired out as herdboys from a very young age. This phenomenon is rooted in Lesotho’s past, where boys from early years of age would go the South African mines and parents felt that boys did not need any education to work. Many boys in Lesotho lack education as compared to their girls counterparts.

Among the Kalenjin Communities of Kenya and especially the Kipsigis, boys’ education is sacrificed for the sake of livestock herding and labour. Also boys among the Kalenjin communities are taught to be masculine and this takes place in the various institutions of society such as the family, school and church. Implicit in such education are beliefs that the boy child is stronger, more intelligent and more powerful than girl-child, and therefore does not need protection as girl child. The boy is not expected to express his emotions for example, the boy is taught not to cry but always behave in a brave manner. Since the boy child is socialized not to display his weakness; he tends to suffer in silence. These dynamics have contributed to the neglect of issues that affect the boy child among the Kalenjin (Chang’ach, 2012a).

Society teaches males that they must be in control all the times. Therefore males tend to dominate in many aspects of life. The confounding power, control and domination imply that males do not have problems. Quite often males look well and confident on the outside, but are not so on inside thus cognitive discordance (Republic of Kenya, 2007). Lutta, (2015) pointed out that negative
cultural aspects and domestic instability are the main challenges facing education. Therefore, there was need to establish the influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations at the secondary school level.

2.4. School Constructs and Boy-Child Educational Aspirations.

In Kenya, the national examinations council found out that girls outperformed in literacy by 10 percentage points while they trailed behind the boys with a relatively lower by 4 percentage points in numeracy. Similarly, Uwezo Kenya (2010) confirmed the apparent lagging behind of the boys in literacy. Further, qualitative factors within Kenyan schools have been attributed to the notable disillusionment with schooling among the boys as noted through an evaluation study of the Child Friendly School Initiative (CFSI) (UNICEF, 2004), where some of the scholars describe school as anti-boys. Such revelations about boys’ perceptions of schooling question the role of school in constructing new models of men. In this context therefore, there is need to interrogate how boys navigate the route to manhood, especially through schooling. This notwithstanding, Mkhize (2006) cautioned against a looming crises for the African family, especially where material, economic and physical power are the glorified- more than schooling. The school type was discussed as the only school factor in the subsequent section.

Mael (1998), posit that there is a growing trend towards co-education in many countries prompting legal, social and economic considerations. Three longitudinal studies of the changeover from single sex to coeducation have indicated no adverse effects on student academic achievement (Yates, 2001a; 2001b; 2002a), academic self-concept (Marsh & Rowe, 1996; Smith, 1996; Jackson and Smith, 2000) and explanatory style (Yates, 2000). Another study found girls were uncomfortable and perceived teachers gave more attention to the boys during mathematics lessons in mixed sex classrooms (Steinbeck and Gwizdala, 1995), but whether these differences
persisted beyond the initial transition period was not examined. Student perceptions of the school learning environment have not been considered in the changeover from single to mixed sex settings.

Learning takes place in social contexts both inside and outside the classroom (Hofman, Hofman and Guldemond, 2001), with the climate of the school and classroom impacting significantly on students’ learning (Fraser, 1994). A large body of evidence attests to strong relationships between student perceptions of the psychosocial climate of the classroom learning environment and cognitive and affective outcomes (Fraser, 1998). A meta-analysis of studies of 17,805 students in 823 classes in eight subject areas across four nations found student achievement to be higher in classrooms with greater cohesiveness, goal direction and satisfaction and less disorganization and friction (Fraser, 1998). All three dimensions have been studied in many different environments, but have not been measured at the school level following the conversion from single to mixed sex education. Proponents of single sex education and coeducation claim various benefits for the social, emotional and educational development of students (Caspi, 1995; Mael, 1998; Woodward, Fergusson, and Horwood, 1999), but research evidence as to the efficacy of each school type is inconsistent and inconclusive (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, (OERI), 1993).

Hunte (2002) argues that, in Guyana’s case, the re-introduction of single-sex secondary schools could put the education of boys on a fast track; as such schools are able to bring boys’ emotional and learning needs more sharply into focus. The debate over whether boys perform better in single-sex or co-educational schools remains fractured. Arguments that suggest boys adopt anti-school masculine identities as a response to the feminized ethos of schooling can lend themselves to conclusions that the provision of single-sex schools might be effective in alleviating the problem. Davis
(2002) claims that single-sex school will allow the freedom of multiple masculinities, but also maintains that although these schools can help boys to embrace the diversity of male roles, many position themselves as restoring a “normative masculinity” and act as compensatory institutions.

Research conducted in New Zealand by Aitken in 1999 has provided evidence that boys in single sex schools perform better than boys in co-educational schools. The Education review Office report by Aitken showed that both boys and girls achieved better results in single-sex schools. Interestingly, however, even though boys in single-sex schools outperformed both boys and girls in co-educational schools, they lagged even more significantly behind their female counterparts in single sex schools than they would have done their female counterparts in co-education schools. Further data provided by the report also suggested higher levels of managerial performance from girls’ schools as opposed to boys’ schools. This, together with the continued higher academic performance levels of girls over boys in single-sex schools, fosters the earlier arguments that girls and schools are somehow conducive to one another where boys and schools are not (Aitken, 1999).

Separate and mixed sex schools have been compared and evaluated in relation to academic achievement and attitudes, curriculum access, selection of non-stereotypical subjects, classroom discipline, social interaction, student self-esteem, self-concept and post school success (Mael, 1998; Jackson & Smith, 2000). Some studies support single sex education for boys (McGough, 1991; Reisman, 1991; Hawley, 1993; Watts, 1994), some single sex education for girls (Cairns, 1990; Lawrie & Brown, 1992; Moore, Piper & Scheafer, 1993), while yet others find no advantages in single sex schooling for either boys or girls, particularly once other variables have been taken into account (Harker & Nash, 1997; Harker, 2000).
Large scale studies of secondary schools in Ireland, Australia and the United States found adolescent achievement to be higher in single sex schools, but these academic advantages were tied to higher career and educational aspirations (Trice, Naudu, Lowe & Jaffee, 1996). Furthermore, students from single sex schools were more likely to undertake postgraduate programmes at the University level (Lee & Marks, 1990), although this effect disappeared once controls were applied for attendance (Haag, 2000). The majority of single sex and coeducational studies have focused on female students at the secondary level (Mael, 1998; Pollard, 1999).

There is dearth of systematic long-term studies of single and coeducational learning environments (Pollard, 1999), particularly in relation to academic achievement (OERI, 1993), psychosocial development (OERI, 1993) and the socio-emotional effects of school type (Mael, 1998). Such studies need to take individual, group and school level differences into account (Mael, 1998) using statistical procedures such as Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) in which the effects of change can be assessed as a function of multiple levels. HLM is also eminently suited to longitudinal designs (Von Eye, 2001). It has been suggested that within-type differences such as the characteristics of the student body, teachers and school may be more important than between type differences.

Students seem to understand well and early how the school system is designed to move them from grade level to grade level. One stressor within school life for students relates to their hopes for graduating out of the system. Building on prior research of Atkinson, (as cited in Meece, Glienke, & Burg, 2006), a social cognitive model was formed building on academic choices made as a result of the role of; culture, parents, and teachers in shaping achievement-related beliefs. Studies have shown that both children and adolescents separate what activities they are good at and
what activities they value.

According to Hu (2003) critical transition points in student pathways to postsecondary education is important. Differences in educational aspirations by students in urban, suburban, and rural schools were evident. Lower percentages of rural students had aspirations for four year college education (28.2% for rural in contrast to 30.8% for urban and 32.9% for suburban schools) and graduate education (22.0% for rural in contrast to 31.1% for urban and 27.3% for suburban schools). Higher percentages of students in rural schools had aspirations for high school or below (16.6% for rural in contrast to 11.0% for urban and 10.6% for suburban schools) and two year college education (33.1% for rural in contrast to 27.1% for urban and 29.3% for suburban schools).

Goodenow and Grady (1993) confirmed by stating that “school belonging” (decision making, communication) contributes largely to academic motivation. School belonging, or the sense that a student feels “personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others—especially teachers and other adults in the school social environment” contributes largely to academic motivation, (Goodenow & Grady, 1993). In a study conducted with urban youth, Goodenow and Grady found that “school belonging was significantly associated with several motivation-related measures, expectancy of success, valuing schoolwork, general school motivation and self-reported effort.”

Young (2000) conducted a longitudinal study to identify characteristics of effective high schools in Western Australia. Student outcomes in science and mathematics were adjusted for student background, gender, academic self-concept, socioeconomic status, science and math achievement, classroom learning environment, grade and prior attainment. Taking all variables into account, this study concluded that schools were not disadvantaged by their location. Rather, rural students were disadvantaged by
their self-concept. Students in rural schools had a weaker belief in their own academic ability to perform, irrespective of their actual ability (Young, 2000).

Haller and Virkler (1993) found that the economic context between rural and non-rural youth existed because of the lower socioeconomic status of many rural families. It is evident that socioeconomic status directly and indirectly impact rural youth. The banks are gone, the grange hall is closed, and commercial services are nominal. The last remaining public institution in many rural communities is the school. Rural schools have an essential community development function. They are often the central meeting place for community members, the location for most recreation and cultural events, and the repository of articulate leaders for community organizations. They are frequently the rural town’s museum, symphony hall, sports arena, fitness center, polling place, and the venue for public meetings on policy issues. The immediate environment and resources, (family, teachers, peers) are often the community’s supporters/leaders (Haller & Virkler, 1993).

The influence of peers in the school setting has been documented widely (Brown, as cited in Chenoweth & Galliher, 2004) particularly with adolescence in which individuals are most influenced by their peers. Peers influence academic achievement in positive and negative ways. The arenas of children, analyzed as parts of their life course, are socially and culturally situated in time and place and heavily structured by adults, e.g. teachers, parents and peers. However, the form and content of child activities with their particular cognitive, emotional, social and cultural dimensions are certainly created by the children themselves individually and through peer groups. Collier’s study (as cited in Bajema, 2002) explains that people tend to compare themselves to groups with similar beliefs and abilities. The group serves as a powerful anchor that limits the level of aspiration. Particularly when the group is cut off from other group, people
tend to use others who are similar or have similar levels of ability as a source of social comparison. Kvusland (2004) supports this theory stating that children and young adults become socialized through activities constructed by the children themselves. But the statistics offered by this report also disaggregate the overall percentage finding according to other factors such as the rural-urban divide and public private school ownership (Aitken, 1999). Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of school type on boy-child educational aspirations.

2.5. Teachers’ and Boy-Child Educational Aspirations.

There are many teachers’ factors that may influence boy-child educational aspirations but this study looked at teachers’ gender and teachers’ expectations.

2.5.1 Teachers’ Gender on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations

The experience of students at school has the ability to promote both academic achievement and future aspirations (Uwah et al. 2008). School climate, including relationships with teachers, contributes to global life satisfaction (Suldo, Shaffer, & Riley 2008), lower rates of depression (Eamon, 2002) and fewer behavior problems (De-Santis King, Hueber, Suldo & Valois, 2006; Gilman & Huebner, 2006). Satisfaction with school is usually higher in children and reaches its lowest levels around eighth grade. Attitudes towards school have been shown to predict aspirations (Geckova, Tavel, VanDijk, Abel, & Reijneveld, 2010), and school bonding has been shown to be greater in students with congruent aspirations and expectations (Boxer, Goldstein, De-Lorenzo, Savoy, & Mercado, 2010). Connection to school may become the key in helping students think about attending college, although this may be true of white students than black students (Lowman & Elliott 2009).

Another influence on the achievement of boys may be the lack of male teachers. The majority of primary school teachers in the Asia-Pacific region are women. This was perceived as a factor contributing to boys’ underachievement in a report from
Malaysia (Goolamally & Ahmad, 2010), where the majority of teachers are female and are seen to favour girls. It is widely recognized that the fewer the female teachers, the wider the enrolment, retention and promotion gaps are between female and male students. The link between female teachers and girls’ educational achievement has been clearly charted (UNESCO, 2006). There is a common perception in Mongolia that boys are likely to be more severely punished by teachers than girls. Boys reported that they prefer dealing with female teachers and are in fact afraid of male teachers as they beat them painfully (Undarya & Enkhjargal, 2011).

According to McLeod (2011), children pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode the behaviour they have observed regardless of whether it is appropriate or inappropriate. Neuert (2007) and Mbevi (2010) found male role models to have more influence on a boy-child’s character. This may therefore be suggesting that the boy-child educational aspiration has been imitated from the males he interacted with particularly. A phenomenon in the school system that has been rather disturbing is the fact that despite the clamour for gender equality treatment, boys and girls do not seem to exhibit the same level of academic achievement. Ammermueller and Dolton (2006) drew attention to the fact that large literature existed on the difference between the academic achievement of boys and girls. They reported that historically, there had always been a gap favouring girls in reading, English and the Arts and languages. According to them, the pattern had been changing in recent times with girls improving in Mathematics and the Sciences, and even outperforming boys in many countries. They further reported that there was in the United Kingdom, widespread evidence of girls outperforming boys at most levels in school and specifically, there was a gap between boys and girls by the age of 14-16 in the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) public examination results.
Smith (2004) observed that the diminishing presence of male teachers was a global issue and that the proportion of men within teaching ranks was declining significantly. He cited many studies whose findings demonstrated the continual decline of males in the teaching profession. He quoted figures from Commonwealth of Australia (CA) (2002), Queensland Catholic Education Commission (QCEC) (2002), National Education Association (NEA) (2003), and Nelson (2003) to illustrate the situation of gender imbalance among primary school teachers, especially within Australia. Nelson (2003), for instance, was cited to have claimed that in 2002, the proportion of male primary teachers (within Australia) was only 20.9% and NEA (2003) was said to have indicated that only nine percent of American elementary school teachers are men. It has also been speculated in some quarters that teacher’s gender affected the performance of the child.

Studies by Dee (2005) found that the sex of the teacher has an influence on student’s test performance and engagement with academic material, as well as the teacher’s perception of students. “Simply put, girls have better educational outcomes when taught by women and boys are better off when taught by men”. A research conducted by Dee in 2006 asserts in the first theory that the teacher’s gender shapes communications between teacher and pupil, while another says the teacher acts as a gender-specific role model, regardless of what he or she says or does. Dee further explained that the second theory stipulated that students were more engaged, behaved more appropriately, and performed at a higher level when taught by one who shared their gender.

It is clear that the preponderance of female teachers at lower education levels has left few male role models for boys in their early years in school (UNICEF, 2004). It is noteworthy that at secondary and tertiary levels, where the ‘dropout rate’ for boys seems to be at its highest, the majority of teachers are male. One area in which male teachers may play significant role is as informal counselors and mentors for male
students. However, such informal mentoring systems should be supplemented with formal guidance counseling systems within schools, including training of mentors. Such systems can advocate for meaningful, personal career choices for boys, and serve to bridge the gap between the academic curriculum in post-primary education and labour market needs. School career guidance can help students to prepare for market-oriented employment. Counselling and guidance services that are gender-responsive redress gender inequalities by promoting attitudinal and behavioural changes (Raghavan, 2009).

Hunte (2002), in the context of Guyana, argues that boys will seek out negative role models to fill the gaps at home or school, and that the resultant anti schooling attitudes will leave an emotional deficit that inhibits their progress. In the Caribbean context, where the number of women-dominated and single parent households has been on the rise, the literature reviewed presents strong concerns about the lack of male presence within the home as well as the school. The absence of male role models is a factor that comes up regularly within the literature on boys’ underachievement, and it assumes the stance that boys’ needs within both school and the broader society are different from those of girls. Figueroa (2000) takes this further and suggests that the absence of male role models leads to a lot of indiscipline cases of boys in Jamaica.

West (2002) analyses the problem of an imbalance of male and female teachers, which potentially disadvantages boys by giving messages that ‘only women teach’ and ‘only women read’. His paper further outlines studies that have been conducted in Australia showing that boys value male teachers as role models to get them through the difficulties of the classroom. West quotes a paper by Bress (2000), who argues that males and females have a different language – ‘genderlects’. This theory arguably takes the issue of role models out of purely socialization discourses and into the more contentious area of gendered heredity. One of the few findings that addressed the
issue of boys’ educational underachievement and under-participation in Lesotho also stressed the lack of male teachers in the educational system. However, the MUSTER project conducted in that country showed that the cause of boys’ dropping out was work obligations due to hard economic circumstances (Jobo, 2001).

Researchers have identified school factors such as the availability of male teachers, teacher quality, pupil-teacher-ratio, and school infrastructure as affecting boys’ academic achievement (Koutros, 2010). Teachers play a significant role in providing students with opportunities to discover and reach their full potential, thereby ensuring that societies progress. Yet teacher shortages have long been a concern in many parts of the world. According to UNESCO (2006), it was estimated that achieving the educational millennium development goal of universal primary education by the year 2015 was dependent upon recruiting million new teachers around the world. The proportion of men within teaching ranks is declining significantly. Moreover, Koutros (2010) indicated that the lack of male teachers, particularly at the elementary level, has become epidemic throughout the world. A recent survey, conducted by the National Education Association (NEA), revealed that men accounted for less than one-fourth of all teachers (Koutros, 2010). Countries with the greatest shortfall in teachers tend to have low secondary enrollment ratios, thus resulting in a small pool of educated adults from which to recruit teachers (UNESCO, 2006).

According to Chege (2001) the contemporary family was characterized by parents, mainly mothers, who made explicit efforts not only to keep their daughters in school but also motivate them and support them to attain educational success both in the process of the school cycle and in the benefits or outcomes. It was argued that many parents apparently constructed their daughters as worthwhile investments whose economic and material returns to the parents were guaranteed. Boys were constructed as self-centred and less likely to support their parents after completing school. The re-
searcher pointed out that schooling culture had increasingly made girls more confident both socially and in academic performance. In addition, the school workforce which was, in most cases, predominantly female portrayed an explicit enthusiasm of empowering girls through education and documentary evidence supported the fact that overall, there were more women teachers in the schools than men. There was little doubt that schools were becoming progressively more feminized with women teachers being the majority overall.

According, Chege, (2007), the female head teachers and their deputies raised concerns that while the men teachers were relatively few, they also portrayed themselves ‘laid back’ and were apparently not interested in connecting with the boys. In addition, the dearth of available school-based mentors also played havoc in the construction of masculinities through schooling. It was also revealed that boys lacked male figures that could guide and counsel them in the same way as the girls in the schools, thus resulting in frustration with the schooling career and eventually apathy when the girls outdo them in school work. Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of teachers’ gender on boy-child educational aspirations.

2.5.2 Teachers’ Expectations on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations
Some authors have argued that teachers in the classroom have been guilty of gender stereotyping, and that low expectations of boys’ behavior and academic effectiveness contribute to the levels of boys’ underachievement. Figueroa (2000), for example, suggests that there is a growing ambivalence within the Jamaican educational system that allows the misbehavior of boys to continue, partly as a result of reluctance to curb the tendencies of traditional masculinity that would endanger that identity. Davis (2002) goes further to argue that boys are treated differently than girls as early as preschool, and that throughout primary school they receive lower ratings by teachers for social behavior and academic expectations. Martino and Berrill (2003) put forward
suggestions that male teachers in particular sometimes reinforce gender stereotypical behaviors in boys rather than challenging them.

Jones and Myhill (2004a) argue that the identity of the underachiever has become synonymous with the stereotypical identity of boys. What is interesting is the authors’ concern that such teacher expectations are not based on a belief of boys’ innate academic inability, but more a belief in boys’ innate inclination to misbehave despite being quite bright, often due to boredom. These teachers run the risk of rendering girls invisible and of attributing girls’ higher achievement purely to hard work and performance, whereas boys are seen as harbouring natural but latent abilities. In another study, Jones and Myhill (2004b) articulate this concern further by suggesting that when teachers attribute high performance to girls as a gender norm, the underachieving girls become overlooked, whereas the high-achieving boy is credited for having challenged his gender stereotyping. Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of teachers’ expectation on boy-child educational aspirations. Similarly, the value for boy-child labour is very common in Lesotho, where young boys in the rural areas are denied their right to education because they are often hired out as herd’s boys.

According to Jha and Kelleher (2006), this phenomenon is rooted in Lesotho’s past, where boys above 18 years would go to the South African mines to work for their families’ upkeep. Consequently, parents felt that boys did not need any education to carry out such manual work. Perceptions towards masculinity and femininity, in that sense, play a crucial role in schooling and performance. For instance, girls perform better because they are conditioned to follow directions, sit nicely in their chairs, and listen to the teachers. Boys, on the other hand, are expected to misbehave, be subjects of constant reprimands and humiliation skip school or dropout completely, and

These perceptions are internalized to a level where boys construe masculinity to mean getting involved in deviant behavior which, ultimately, impacts negatively on schooling and performance at school level. Subjects such as home-science, languages and nursing generally socialize female learners towards professions considered feminine because they have their roots in care-giving roles (Chege & Sifuna, 2006). On the other hand, because masculinity is associated with physical and mental toughness, subjects such as mathematics, sciences and technical subjects that demand either precision or ‘application of mind’, or physical strength and power, are associated with masculinity (Chege & Sifuna, 2006; Jha & Kelleher, 2006). Teachers directly influence academic environment because they have the potential to modify student behavior (Legewie & DiPrete, 2012).

Stromquist (2007) suggests that teachers are influential role models because students spend most of their time with their instructors. Teachers may, however, socialize students along gender lines because they send multiple gendered messages through the curriculum as well as organizational decisions. Their attitudes may reflect biases toward girls or boys, fostering among the less favoured students a sense of alienation. Any form of direct or indirect gender discrimination hinders personal, academic, and professional development for the estranged group. Education, thus, plays a significant role in the construction of learners’ gender identity through transmitting society’s dominant values. Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of teachers’ expectation on boy-child educational aspirations.


There are many home constructs that may influence boy-child educational aspirations but this study looked at paternal involvement and paternal educational attainment.
2.6.1 Paternal Involvement on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations

To promote children’s success, parents make use of internal as well as external family strategies, (Russell & Elder, 1997). Internal strategies include warm, supportive relationships between parents and their children, as well as encouragement and joint activities. External strategies outside the household enhance children’s social ties with local communities. While family socioeconomic markers and stressors are believed to have a direct influence on the academic success of young people, these effects may be moderated by strategies both internal and external to the family, such as parenting and community integration.

Meehan (2001) conducted a quantitative study on students and their parents from 29 middle and junior high schools (2,620) in nine rural areas in West Virginia in 2000, a number of conclusions were drawn about families: parent/teacher meetings seem to be viewed as minimally important; nearly half of the fathers never meet with their child’s teacher. The study revealed regarding student aspirations that: (a) nearly three fourths of the students believe that further education is needed after high school to get a satisfying job and believe that they will continue their education. However, students seem to be unsure of their own aspirations, since more than two thirds do not know exactly what educational level they will achieve, and (b) they view poor grades and limited finances as the biggest obstacles to continuing their education. Overwhelmingly, students view parents as the most important source of educational information. Insight can be gained when examining the impact of the interactions between and among the student’s family, self-determination, school and community environment (Meehan, 2001).

Cowley (2003) conducted a study on academic aspirations and expectations with rural seventh grader students. There was a disconnect among what students think their parents believe about them and what students believe about themselves. The results indi-
cate that rural middle school students expect their parents to play a large role in providing crucial information about continued education. Unfortunately, the low socioeconomic families are often unable to meet these expectations. Bajema (2002) conducted a qualitative study of 17 rural high schools, (1,051 students) and identified that ninety-six percent of the students indicated that they planned to pursue some type of post-secondary education. Students perceived that the environment provided by their schools was supportive of their educational and occupational aspirations. Unfortunately, in a survey conducted by Meehan (2001), reported that rural youth believe that their parents are more supportive of them taking full-time jobs, attending vocational schools, or joining the service rather than going to college.

According to Tompkins (2003) rural America is far poorer than the country’s metropolitan areas as a whole, and nearly as poor as the inner cities. As “Save the Children” concluded in its 2002 report, America’s Forgotten Children: Child Poverty in Rural America, Tompkins (2003) reported that while tragedy of urban poverty is well known, we rarely hear about poor rural children on the news or in the myriad reports published each year concerning child poverty. Poverty, or being economically advantage, is most often defined in terms of family income. Chenoweth and Galliher (2004) report that home and classroom environments impact adolescent development through provision of opportunities for communication and decision making.

According to Chenoweth and Galliher (2004) the family environment economic status has often been identified as an influence in the decision of youth to enroll in higher education. Finances often dictate educational choices, determine the availability of certain peers, limit or permit access to health services, and host other social contexts (church, daycare, recreational activities). On a broader level family income also impacts the choice of friends, neighbors, coworkers, and availability of media, legal services, and social services. Entire cultures or subcultures are influenced by economics.
in the expectations and accepted standards of living that are made available to family members.

Crosnoe (2002) conducted research on the economic disadvantage, family dynamics and adolescent enrollment in higher education. The research results demonstrated that the linkage between early disadvantage and later educational attainment is partially explained by the attitudes and behaviors of parents. Economically disadvantaged parents are more pessimistic about the chances that their adolescents will be able to attend college in the future, and such pessimism reduces their motivation for actively managing their adolescent’s environments. Because education is a primary means to adult success, the problems that these youth have entering higher education represents a clear obstacle to social mobility. This lack of mobility constrains the life trajectories of disadvantaged youth. Past studies have approached this linkage between early disadvantage and later educational attainment in multiple ways.

According to Duncan and Brooks-Gubb (1998), a common approach is to focus on the tangible advantages that money and social status brings families: safe neighborhoods, effective schools, educational resources and better nutrition and emotional factors. Within the rural community, there are two sets of disadvantaged parents, the low incoming minimum wage working parents, and the low-income farm-working parents. The minimum wage rural economically disadvantaged parents are generally less optimistic about their adolescents’ educational chances and, in turn, engage less in the proactive parenting that promotes academic achievement. These parents perceived efficacy buffers against the more negative consequences of disadvantage that can influence their adolescents’ educational trajectories.

Parental encouragement is an internal strategy used by parents to promote ties to external events, goals and social groups, (Russell & Elder, 1997). According to Bajema,
farming parents report their adolescents as having higher levels of extracurricular participation, leadership roles, and parental attachment. The researcher also reported that rural youth from farm families had more academic success than rural youth from non-farm families because of their access to social ties and experiences from growing up in a farm family. According to Doherty, Koureski and Erickson (1998), child characteristics like gender can influence fathers’ involvement into children. This is supported by a study carried out by Power, Parker, and Wootton (1996) who found that fathers displayed differential treatment for boys than for girls. They went further to say that fathers of boys were more directive and provided more physical stimulation. Normally, fathers may perceive boys as being less fragile than girls and, therefore, more able to participate in physically active play. In their study, Gakuru, Koech, and Nduati (1995) also established that the value parents hold for their children has a gender bias. The expected contribution of female children was valued lower by parents in Machakos than those of male children. The relative costs of sending a girl to secondary school were considered greater than for sending a boy.

Haris and Morgan (1991a) conducted a study on fathers, sons and daughters. They wanted to find out the differential paternal involvement in parenting. They established that fathers were more involved with their male children than the female children. This was inconsistent with what Carter and Wojtkiewicz (2000) found when they carried out their study on parental involvement with adolescents’ education. They established that parents especially fathers were involved in the education of their daughters more than their sons. In some societies such as Ghana, female children are requested to care for the home, look after younger siblings as their parents go to the farm. Madam Agnes Agrobasah, a teacher at the Damango primary school in Ghana revealed that parents withdraw their girls from schools especially during farming season to care for the home while they go to the farm (Nyarko, 2007).
Shaver and Wall (1998) carried a study on the effects of title 1 parent’s involvement on students’ reading and Mathematics achievement. They established that there was no significant difference in parental involvement between boys and girls. Moreover, Mwoma (2009b) cited earlier, in her fifth objective of the study, wanted to find out whether there was a significant relationship between fathers’ involvement and gender of the child. A chi-square was utilized to measure this relationship. Her findings were that fathers’ involvement in their children’s education was not influenced by sex of the child. Therefore, she concluded that fathers do not value boys differently from girls. This was inconsistent with the findings of Gakuru et al., (1995) who established that the values parents hold for their children have gender bias. Mwoma (2009b) did a study on pre-school children but this study looked at primary standard six pupils who are older to see whether the fathers’ involvement is influenced by the gender of the child.

Houtenville & Conway (2008a) carried out a study where they used data from more than 10000 eighth–grade students in public and private schools, their parents, teachers and school administrators. Their objective was to find out how frequently parents discussed school activities or events. They established that parents were interested in the academic achievement of their daughters. They also noted that parents spent more time talking to their girls than the boys. According to them, girls are more communicative with their parents than the boys on academic matters. Adams and Trost (2005c) did a study on family relationship and academic achievement and they found out that the presupposition in the post-colonial Kenya has been that boys will receive more formal education than girls. They went further to state that a minority of Kenyan mothers prefers to educate their daughters so that they will not forget their families. The reason for this preference is that daughters will assist younger siblings and old parents while educated sons will become urban dwellers and forget their fami-
ily. They go further to state that the majority of parents still favour education for males.

Adams and Trost (2005c) did another study on parental involvement and children’s school academic achievement. They wanted to find out the association between children’s perception of their parents’ educational involvement, children’s personal characteristics and their social achievement. They found that the fathers used more pressure with their sons than their daughters. Moreover, when it came to encouragement and support, their findings indicated that fathers were more supportive with their daughters than their sons. Research has revealed the detrimental effects that gender bias have on the children. For instance, Wingfried and Eccles (1994a) did a study on children’s competence beliefs, achievement values and general self-esteem change across elementary and middle school and they found out that as compared to their male counterparts, female students have been identified to have lower self-concepts as regards their Maths ability. However, other studies have shown that girls do better than boys. Mare (1995a) did a study on changes in educational attainment and school enrolment and established that daughters score high grades and are more likely to enrol and graduate from college at about the same time as sons.

Koskei (2014) did a study on parental involvement in education on boys’ performance in secondary school level and found that there was no significant influence between the two variables. Research that examines the extent to which fathers are involved in their children’s education has generally shown that fathers are less involved than mothers in all types of school activities. In particular, Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997) found out that fathers with less than a high school education were much less likely to be involved in their children’s schoolwork than fathers with higher levels of education. This study was to find the relationship between paternal involvement in
children’s education and paternal level of education. Contrary, McIntosh (2008) did a study about school grade performance in 2002 of a representative sample of Canadian students aged 5 to 18 years. The researcher wanted to find out whether family background variables like parental characteristics, attributes and how they viewed the importance of education was important in the success of their children in primary and secondary school system. It was found that children from disadvantaged families were not condemned to be at the bottom of the grade distribution and those children with poorly educated fathers did better than those with fathers of average ability. This study focused on only the fathers’ involvement and not both parents were used.

Furthermore, Vellymalay (2010) carried out a study on parental involvement in children’s education. The researcher wanted to find out whether parental education level really mattered. The study investigated the relationship between parental education level and parental involvement in their children’s education among National Medium Tamil schools in Malaysia. The findings observed from the correlation analysis done revealed that the difference between parents especially fathers’ education level was not significant. The evidence from the study showed that the parents’ education level did not play an important role in influencing parental involvement among National Medium Tamil schools in Malaysia.

A study done by Muola (2010) on the effects of academic achievement motivation and home environment on academic performance among standard eight pupils indicated that, there was a significant relationship between the pupils’ score in academic achievement motivation and six of the home environmental factors. These factors included parental occupation and education, family size and learning facilities at home. The researcher looked at the home factors but did not look at a factor like the gender of the child and the fathers’ involvement in their children’s academic achievement. The researcher stated that the educated parent was likely to have a wider knowledge
of school subjects by which the child would benefit. He went further to note that this could only happen if the educated parent had the time to help the child with schoolwork.

Arasa (1995a) carried out a study on the relationship between students’ achievement motivation, and attitude towards school, parental education and involvement in their children’s schoolwork among slum children. She found that the relationship between parental level of involvement and fathers’ level of education was positive at 0.08. In this case, as fathers’ level of education increased, parental level of involvement also increased. According to Arasa, (1995a), fathers who were educated were likely to be involved in their children’s schoolwork and vice versa. Mwoma (2009b) did a study and found out that fathers’ involvement in their children’s education was determined by their education level. There was need for a research to be done on older pupils to see whether the results would be consistent. Binh (2012) found mutual affection to create a healthy community that gave no room for unacceptable behaviour to blossom. However, the good role models appear not to have influenced the boy-child’s behaviour. Muriithi (2003a) carried out a research on parental involvement in facilitating the learning process and found out that there was a significant relationship between the levels of education of parents to the level of involvement. For this reason, there is need for a research to be done focusing on one parent. Luckily, this current study will focus on fathers only. In areas such as children early reading, Gadsden and Bowman (1999) in a critical review of research on fathers’ involvement in children’s education and schooling concluded that fathers’ participation was affected by low literacy and their perceptions of the role that they thought they could play in their children’s literacy development. These two foresaid factors influence their children’s preparedness for school. They also influence the direct and subtle message that fathers send to their children about the value, achievability and power associated with literacy, schooling and knowledge. They
went further to say that fathers who have limited schooling as well as low reading and writing abilities have difficulty participating in school-related activities requiring high levels of literacy.

2.6.2 Paternal Educational Attainment on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations
According to Adewale and Ogunshola (2012) fathers’ educational background had no significant effect on students’ academic achievement. However, they found that the fathers’ education qualification had statistical significance effect on the academic performance of the students. Suleman, Aslam, Shakir, Akhtar and Hussain (2012) carried out a study and found out that fathers’ educational level affected the achievement of students at secondary school. James (2002) indicated that parental educational level exposed the clearest patterns of variation in students’ attitudes towards school and post school options.

Shapiro (2009) did a study in USA on parental education level and academic involvement among the college students. The findings revealed that there was no significant relationship between paternal education level and how involved the fathers were in students’ academic achievement. The results suggested that paternal education level was not an important factor in the academic success of college students. Koskei and Ngeno (2015) posit that educational attainment of the father has no significant relationship with the academic performance of students. The various researches show conflicting finding thus there is need for further research in Kenyan context. Research that examines the extent to which fathers are involved in their children’s education has generally shown that fathers are less involved than mothers in all school activities. In particular, Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997) found out that fathers with less than a high school education were less likely to be involved in their children’s schoolwork than fathers with higher levels of education.
Muola, (2010) reported that parental educational attainment correlated significantly with academic achievement. A study of socio-economic status of students by Esiwani (1983) pointed out that the ratio of students whose fathers were teachers took a ‘lion’ share of the university admission ‘cake’ due to motivation and encouragement from their parents. In a study conducted by Knight and Sabaot (1990) it was found that in contrast to Tanzania, in Kenya there was positive relationship between the parental educational attainment and the child's Form Four examinations performance. These findings tallied with Maundu (1986) findings that parental education had a significant influence on student’s performance in both primary and secondary examinations. In Kenya and Tanzania the children of more educated homes also have better opportunities to acquire cognitive skills and appropriate attitudes in the home (Knight and Sabaot 1990). Chepchieng, (1995) found in his study in Kabartonjo division a negative correlation between parental educational attainment and students’ academic performance of boarding secondary school. Low-SES students may not be strongly motivated to do well in school. Middle class parents who have benefited in a variety from education serve as effective and enthusiastic advocates of schooling. Because doing well in school paid off for them, they are eager to persuade their children to do well academically in order to achieve similar or greater benefits and also serve as positive role models.

The literature on achievement consistently has shown that parental education is important in predicting children’s achievement. Linver, Brooks-Gunn, & Kohen, 2002; Yeung, Linver, & Brooks-Gunn, (2002) have examined how parenting behavior, such as the structure of the home environment, influence childrens’ achievement outcomes. Smith, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanor, (1999) found association between parent’s education with childrens’ academic achievement was mediated by the home environment. They also found out that mothers’ education was important predictor of physical environment and learning experience at home. Thus, these
authors posited that education might be linked to specific achievement behavior in the home for example reading and playing.

Kao and Tienda (1995) concluded that eight grader aspirations to attend college derive primarily from parents’ education. Other researchers found substantial support for positive relationship between mothers’ and fathers’ supportive behavior, educational level, language spoken in the home and adolescent’s aspirations (Plunkett & Bamaca-Gomez, 2003). Kuo and Hauser (1995) found that at least half the variance in educational attainment was attributed to family background, including parental schooling. Educated parents also purchase books and other learning materials for their children who create school conditions to successful performance but these learning conditions are absent in the poor uneducated and rural family. Children whose parents’ educational attainment is low are unprepared for school. They often lack readiness to learn, physical strength, and mental mindset (Pellino, 2006). Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman (2006) confirmed that students have increased aspirations when their parents are more educated and have higher SES. Therefore, this study looked at boys’ educational aspirations in relation to paternal educational aspirations.

In 2005, a research was done of a family member who read to 60% of children ages 3-5 daily. It was reported that children living in families with low income were having difficulties in reading than their peers in high-come household (Pellino, 2006). Gale (2002) stated that parents who have educational training, are involved in their adolescent school programs and have high aspirations for them. In such a case, adolescents are likely to have high educational aspirations, which influence their academic performance. Socio-economic status of adolescents has an effect on college enrolment, and subsequently educational success. According to her, the higher the socio-economic status, the higher the academic performance and the better the students’ academic performance is, the more prestigious the occupation to which they
aspire. Geberselassie and Gebry (2000) carried out a research in Ethiopia and established that the enrollment of children of educated parents that were government employees was very high. It also revealed that paternal education influenced school enrollment positively and significantly for instance additional years of further schooling was seen to raise the school enrollment of boys by 2.00% whereas an additional year in fathers schooling raised the probability of enrollment of boys by 3.00% and this indirectly enhanced academic performance and hence educational aspirations.

Muola, (2010) stated that a more favorable home environment motivates a child to excel in school. It also provides the necessary learning facilities to assist the child with school work. A parent with a small family will find it easy to provide for the physical needs of the child, but will also be in a position to give him attention, encouragement, stimulation and support with his schoolwork. This could have a motivating effect on a child from the small family in comparison with a child from a large family whereby the parents are always busy trying to find ways of meeting the basic needs of the family (Muola, 2010). Chepchieng, (1995) remarked that a home with abundance of material possessions must also have a good educative environment in terms of their interests in the education. The researcher argued that parents coming from low socio-economic background homes are not keen in sending their children to schools. They do not encourage their children to learn and also do not show any interest in their learning. Sometimes they may discourage their children from going to school. Children from such home usually lose the competitive morale with their counterparts from high socio-economic background homes in academic performance.
2.7 Summary

All literature reviews support that boys’ educational aspirations depend on various social constructs. Gender roles, school, teachers and home factors have influenced the boys’ educational aspirations in various ways. Educational aspirations are influenced by multiple intrapersonal for example self-reliance, self-control, self-concept and systematic variables for example students’ socio-economic status (SES), the level of familial involvement in their children education, familial aspiration and the level of parental education (Marjoribanks, 2002).

Muola, (2010) opines that the educated parent was likely to have a wider knowledge of school subject by which a child would benefit. The researcher went further to note that this could only happen if the educated parent had the time to help the child with schoolwork. West, (2002) analyses the problem of an imbalance of male and female teachers, which potentially disadvantages boys by giving messages that ‘only women teach’ and ‘only women read’. The researcher outlined studies showing that boys value male teachers as role models to get them through the difficulties of the classroom. The reviewed studies have established a lot of gaps that boys from different categories of schools do not generally achieve the same degree of academic success and educational aspirations and these gaps need to be filled. In the present study the researcher was investigating the influence of social constructs specifically gender roles, school, teachers and home on boys’ educational aspirations in public secondary schools. The findings of the current study will therefore add to the existing knowledge about educational aspirations of boys.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter outlines the location of the study, a discussion of the research design and
research methodology (the blueprint for the entire study), location of the study, study population along with the sampling procedures and sample size; instrumentation (a description of the type of tools used along with the requisite validity and reliability considerations); data collection procedures; instruments used to collect data as well as the data analysis rationalization in view of the design of the study. Attention is also paid to ethical issues in relation to the respondents.

3.1 Location of the study

This study was undertaken in Nakuru County which is one of the Counties in the Rift Valley region in Kenya. Nakuru County whose headquarter is Nakuru town is located about 165 km to the north west of Nairobi city. It covers an area of 7496.5 square kilometers. It is geographically located between latitude $0^\circ 25.3'$ North and $0^\circ 53.2'$ North and longitude $35^\circ 24.4'$ East and $36^\circ 04'$ East. Nakuru County boarders seven counties; Kericho to the west, Baringo to the north, Kajiado to the south, Bomet and Narok to the south west, Nyandarua to the east and Laikipia to the north east. Nakuru County has nine sub-counties; Naivasha, Gilgil, Subukia, Nakuru North, Nakuru Town, Rongai, Njoro, Molo, and Kuresoi. Nakuru was chosen as the study area because of its metropolitan nature, thus a research carried out in public secondary schools in Nakuru could bring out the opinions of students from a multi-cultural background and different social economic backgrounds. These variations make Nakuru County to be more representative of Kenya.

3.2 Research Methodology

Research methodology describes the overall approach to research design as a plan of action that links methods to outcomes (Creswell, 2009). The choice and adequacy of the approach that was used in this study to understand the influence of culture, school and home on boy-child educational aspirations is rooted in the underlying assumptions or beliefs the researcher holds about the nature of the objectives of this research. Such beliefs were summarized by the researcher’s orientations related to the ontologi-
cal, epistemological and methodological nature of society. Ontology refers to assumptions held about the nature of social reality (Creswell, 2009). That is whether reality is objective and external to the individual or whether it is subjective and cognitively constructed on an individual basis. Basically, one’s view of reality and being is called ontology and the view of how one acquires knowledge is termed epistemology (Creswell, 2009). Ontology is the starting point which leads to the theoretical framework. Therefore ontology is defined here as the study of claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality. In other words, a study on ontology is a study on what we mean when we say something exists (Lindsay, 2001).

In turn it is associated with epistemological assumptions about the basis of knowledge and in what manner knowledge can be transmitted to others (Pounder, 2003). Whereas ontologists’ study the meaning when something exists, epistemologist studies the meaning when something is known. Epistemology is defined as the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology. Together, ontological and epistemological assumptions make up a paradigm (Lindsay, 2001). The term paradigm refers to an overall theoretical research framework. It is a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that orient thinking and research. The matter of knowing about the influence of gender roles, school, teachers and home on boy-child educational aspirations by stakeholders is an epistemological one. The epistemology in this study is important in synchronizing the various understanding and definition of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors. The epistemological and ontological underpinnings of the research questions posed in this study required an understanding of respondents’ knowledge about the factors influencing boy-child educational aspirations. Therefore, the methodology and design of the research were situated in the researcher’s own world view and learning experiences which resonated in a space between quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The researcher tried to fix the two introducing them separately, before illus-
trating their convergence and how they were applied (Lindsay, 2001).

The post positivist assumptions have represented the traditional form of research, and these assumptions hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research. This worldview is sometimes called the scientific method. It is also called positivist or post positivist research, empirical science, and post positivism (Creswell, 2008). Post positivists hold a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes (Philips & Burbules, 2000). Thus, the problems studied by postpositivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes. Postpositivist is also reductionistic in that the intent is to reduce the ideas into a small, discrete set of ideas to test, such as the variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions (Creswell, 2008). This was used to analyse inferential data and test hypothesis. The knowledge that develops through a postpositivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists “out there” in the world. Thus, developing numeric measures of observations and studying the behavior of individuals becomes paramount for a postpositivist. Therefore the development of data collection instruments was informed by this Postpositivist believes (Creswell, 2008).

Finally, there are laws or theories that govern the world, and these need to be tested or verified and refined so that we can understand the world. Thus, in the scientific method, the accepted approach to research by postpositivists, begins with a theory, collects data that supports or refutes the theory, makes necessary revisions before additional tests are made (Creswell, 2008). This guided the review and determination of variables used in the study. On the other hand, Social Constructivism often combined with Interpretivism is such a perspective typically seen as an approach to qualitative research. The ideas came from The Social Construction of Reality and Naturalistic Inquiry (Creswell, 2008; Schwandt, 2007). Social constructivists hold assumptions that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals
develop subjective meanings of their experiences; meanings directed towards certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Schwandt, 2007).

The goal of the research is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied. The questions become broad and general so that the participants can construct the meaning of a situation, typically forged in discussions or interactions with other persons. The more open-ended the questioning, the better, as the researcher listens carefully to what people say or do in their life settings. Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. Thus, constructivist researchers often address the processes of interaction among individuals. They also focus on the specific contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants (Creswell, 2008).

This study used pragmatism paradigm since it combines the qualitative and quantitative approaches within different phases of the research process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Pragmatist researchers focus on the 'what' and 'how' of the research problem (Creswell, 2003). Pragmatism was seen as the paradigm that provides the underlying philosophical framework for mixed-methodapproaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Since this research used quantitative and qualitative approaches, this paradigm is deemed appropriate for this study. Pragmatism was generally regarded as the philosophical partner for the mixed methods approach. It provided a set of assumptions about knowledge and enquiry that underpins the mixed methods approach and which distinguishes the approach from purely quantitative approaches that are based on a philosophy of (post) positivism and purely qualitative approaches that are based on a philosophy of interpretivism or constructivism. The researcher’s intent was to make sense of (or interpret) the meanings others have about the world. Rather than starting
with a theory (as in post positivism), inquirers generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning. This paradigm guided the researcher in administering and interpreting data related to influence of gender roles, school, teachers and home on boy-child educational aspirations.
3.3 Research Design

This study employed an *ex-post facto* research design. This design was a definite plan determined before data was actually collected. The design was useful in the study because the researcher did not have direct control of independent variables and therefore could not manipulate them (Kothari & Garg 2014). The boy-child educational aspirations was taken as the dependent variable while gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal involvement and paternal educational attainment were the independent variables. Also, Oso and Onen (2009) has confirmed that *ex post facto* causal comparative research design is suitable for extensive educational research and psychological related studies where this study falls and thus approving and necessitating the use this design as the most appropriate for this study. In addition, it is appropriate in an after the fact analysis of an outcome or the dependent variable, thus relevant in comparative studies. In order to eliminate confounding variables in the study, techniques such as matching and random selection of respondents from appropriate population was done.

3.4 Population of the Study

The population of this study was all the teachers, and students (boys) in public secondary schools in Nakuru County of Kenya. The accessible population was all the male and female teachers and Form three boys in the selected schools within the county. At the time of this research there were 9,715 Form three male students in Nakuru County. Form three boys were chosen because they had stayed for long time in the school and had selected the subjects which were to lead them to their preferred careers in line with their aspirations. There were 400 male and 450 female teachers during the study. The teachers gave their views concerning the social constructs that determined boys’ educational aspirations. The Table 3.1 shows public schools in Nakuru County.
Table 3.1: Distribution of schools in Nakuru County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-county</th>
<th>Public schools</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gilgil</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molo</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuresoi</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naivasha</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakuru Town</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakuru North</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njoro</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rongai</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subukia</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>311</strong></td>
<td><strong>460</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3.5 Sampling Procedures & Sample Size

From the accessible population of 311 public secondary schools, stratified random sampling was used to select twenty one secondary schools from the two categories of boys’ only and mixed schools. Out of twenty one schools, six were selected from single sex and fifteen mixed sex schools. Stratified sampling technique guaranteed that the study sample was representative of the population (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006).

Four hundred and twenty form three students (boys) were selected from the twenty one schools in the three sub counties. This was consistent with sampling procedures developed by Kathuri & Pals (1993) who assert that ex post facto research may require few cases hence a sample of 420 boys were considered large enough. The researcher used simple random sampling and therefore all boys in form three class in each of the sampled schools were assigned numbers, then by the use of the table of random numbers, starting at some number, the researcher pointed at any number as the starting number. This was done until the twenty boys were sampled from each school.
Out of 950 teachers a sample size of forty two teachers that is twenty one male and twenty one female teachers were selected by simple random sampling. A sample size of twenty one schools was selected out of ninety schools. The following are tables elaborating on the sampled respondents. Stratified random sampling was adopted. The technique placed the schools into two strata on the basis of the type (single sex and mixed).

Simple random sampling was adopted because it necessitated selecting of sub counties in such a way that each had an equal probability of being selected. Out of the eleven sub counties which form the Nakuru County, three sub counties were sampled. Each sub county was assigned numbers from 1 to 11, then by the use of the table of random numbers, starting at some number, the researcher closed his eyes and pointed at any number as the starting number. This was done until the three sub counties were sampled.
Table 3.2: Distribution of the schools, students and teachers in Nakuru County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School category</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mixed schools</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>94,190</td>
<td>3,408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys schools</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>298</strong></td>
<td><strong>97,390</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,688</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.3: Distribution of the schools, boys and teachers in Nakuru County

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School category</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mixed schools</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>44,790</td>
<td>3,408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys schools</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>298</strong></td>
<td><strong>47,990</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,688</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3.4: Distribution of the schools, Form 3 boys and teachers in sampled Sub-counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School category</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naivasha</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2665</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakuru</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2913</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molo</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4137</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>90</strong></td>
<td><strong>9715</strong></td>
<td><strong>950</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5: Study population and sample size of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>9715</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>10,755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3.6 Instrumentation

The researcher developed two instruments to obtain data from the respondents who were form three students (boys) and teachers from public secondary schools in Nakuru County. The development of the instruments considered the examining of the research objective, hypothesis and related literature and the critic offered by the supervisors. The three instruments included a students’ questionnaire (Appendix I) and interview schedule for male and female teachers. (Appendix II).

Most research work uses methods that provide high accuracy, generalizability, and explanatory power, with low cost, rapid speed and maximum management demands. Questionnaire is commonly used to obtain important information about a population. Each item in the questionnaire is developed to address a specific objective of the study. Questionnaire was appropriate with the large number of respondents from whom a lot of information was required and for the purpose of easy coding. The interview was used to obtain information from the male and female teachers to obtain in depth information about the social constructs on boy-child educational aspirations.
3.6.1 The Questionnaire

According to Kombo and Tromp (2013), a questionnaire is a research instrument which obtains data from a large sample. It enabled collection of information from various schools over a short period of time. According to Kothari (2008), questionnaires are usually free from the biasness as the answers are in respondents’ own words. Use of questionnaire to obtain quantitative data was found to be most appropriate tool since large amount of information would be collected from a large sample size within expected period of time and without effecting the validity and reliability of the instrument as explained by Gitau (2008). Questionnaires also facilitate easy and quick derivation of information within a short time.

The questionnaire as indicated in Appendix I was employed to collect data from 420 students and it adopted a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree to strongly disagree in response to a particular concept. The researcher structured closed ended and open ended statements to obtain important information on the influence of gender roles, home, teachers and school factors on boy-child educational aspirations. Section A of the questionnaire entails personal details of the student and Section B entails items concerning boys’ educational aspirations, gender roles, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectation, school type, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education.

3.6.2 The Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was to obtain the necessary and detailed qualitative data from the school teachers (male and female) on the social constructs as a predictor on boy-child educational aspirations. A study by Lean (2003) pointed out that qualitative data is essential in an educational and psychological research study since it supplements the quantitative data. It also emphasizes the importance of examining variables in the
natural setting in which they are found and be holistically focused in a systematic
way. Similarly, Epstein (2004) has observed that qualitative data play a key role in en-
abling the researchers to understand the perceptions of the respondents where they
gain more insight and attain highly personalized data.

Orodho (2005) postulate that many people are willing to communicate orally than in
writing and they would provide data more readily than when issued with a question-
naire. In Addition, Kumar (2006) argues that the advantage of using a structured inter-
view is to cushion the incomplete questionnaire. This ensured that answers can be re-
liably aggregated and comparisons made. Interview was conducted among the sec-
ondary school male and female teachers. These teachers were believed to have
information and details concerning performance progress of boys through progress
records and marks list which is directly related to boys’ educational aspirations. The
items in the interview schedules assisted in giving in-depth information on the re-
quired data that may not have been captured in the questionnaire. This method was
advantageous in the sense that it provided detail and elicited qualitative data concern-
ing the influence of sociocultural factors on boy-child educational aspirations
(Appendix II).

3.7. Pilot study

Piloting is an important exercise in a research study because it helps to identify ambi-
guities of the items and vague questions for a revision and improvement of the items.
Before the instruments were used for collecting data for the study, a pilot study was
carried out in two schools (a single sex and a co-educational school) in Nakuru
County of Kenya. The two schools were chosen to represent the two categories of
schools. These schools had similar characteristics to the sampled schools in the main
study. Forty boys and four teachers participated in the pilot study. Through the pilot
study, it was possible to determine whether the questionnaire and interview schedule
elicited the data required for the study. The results of the pilot study were useful in clarifying items in the questionnaire and interview schedule. Consequently, some items in the research instruments were dropped and necessary adjustments were made.

3.7.1 Reliability of the instrument

This refers to the measure of the degree to which research instrument (Appendix I) yields consistent results if administered under the same condition (Gravette & Forzano, 2006). The internal consistency of the instruments was determined through the use of cronbach’s coefficient Alpha technique. This method is appropriate due to the fact that it requires only one administration of the test (Oso & Onen, 2009). The cronbach’s coefficient formula is appropriate in assessing the reliability for both multiple choice and essay items. A reliability coefficient of 0.867 and 0.923 was obtained from questionnaire and interview schedule respectively and this was considered reliable. The questionnaire were deemed reliable after several typographical errors and omissions detected and these were corrected in the instrument confirming that it was sufficient to be used in the main study.

3.7.2 Validity of the instrument

This refers to the degree to which the empirical measures or several measures of the concept, accurately measure the concept (Orodho, 2005). The researcher developed the research instruments based on examining the research objectives, hypotheses and the related literature. The quality of the instruments was sought by having the researcher’s supervisors from the Department of Educational Psychology, Moi University review the items. There are three types of validity; construct validity, criterion-related validity and content validity. To measure construct validity, the researcher used knowledge of the construct, and compared scores with other aspects of the construct. For criterion-related validity, the researcher consulted with the supervisors and assessed how well measures related to some external criterion. The
content validity of the instrument was determined by the expert judgment where the researcher discussed the research instrument together with the supervisors as well as colleagues (Mutai, 2000). The guidance given was used to improve the validity of the instrument after making the necessary changes. The content validation was found appropriate in determining the extent to which the set of items provided relevant and representative sample of the domain tasks under consideration. To validate the research instruments, the researcher developed the items by critically examining the objectives of the study and the literature review. The validity also was verified through a pilot study. Piloting was done to establish the clarity of meaning and comprehensibility of each item in the research instruments. Face validity was determined through the responses and opinions obtained from the students (boys), and teachers who participated in the pilot study.
3.8 Data Collection Procedures

After the research proposal was approved by School of Education, Moi University the researcher requested for introductory letter from the office of post graduate (Appendix III). This letter was to assist in acquiring a research permit from the National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) (Appendix VII) which is the government's body mandated to authenticate, authorize, and regulate the research work in the country. After the permission was granted by the NACOSTI, the researcher sought the authority to conduct the research from both County Commissioner Nakuru (Appendix V) and County Director of Education Nakuru (Appendix VI). Thereafter, the researcher visited the selected schools and made the arrangements with individual school principals on the appropriate date and time for data collection. The objectives of the study were explained to the respondents who then voluntarily consented to participate in the study.

3.9 Administration of the Research Instrument

The research assistant was trained in administering of the instrument and prior to that they participated in piloting and correcting of the instrument before the final use. Before the questionnaire was administered to students in each school, either the school head or the deputy head introduce the researcher and the research assistant to the respondents in their respective classrooms. The researcher and research assistant ensured sampled respondents were the ones providing responses in the questionnaire. The research assistant administered the questionnaire to the students while the researcher carried out interviews with the teachers. To ensure a high return rate the research assistant immediately collected the questionnaire.

3.10 Scoring of the Instruments

The items in the questionnaire (Appendix I) were concerned with the opinions of the respondents. To obtain the true measure of gender roles, home, teachers and school
and boys, educational aspirations the data generated were used in the analyses. The instrument (questionnaire) had both closed and open-ended items. For the close-ended items frequency and percentages were generated. This made the use of statistical techniques such as linear regression and Pearson correlation coefficient, Anova, and t-test appropriate to analyze data and test the hypotheses. For open-ended items with more than one response per respondent, each response was treated independently and frequencies counted.

In the study, the gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations, paternal involvement in education and paternal educational attainment constituted the measures of the social constructs herein gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender teachers’ expectations, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education. The boys’ educational aspiration was measured using seven items in number one (Appendix 1). For the seven items, the minimum score was 7 and the maximum score was 35. This was grouped into three categories: Low aspirations (15 and below), Ambivalent (16-22) and High aspirations (23-35). The gender roles were measured using six items in items number two (Appendix 1). For the six items, minimum score was 6 and the maximum score was 30. This was grouped into three categories: Low (15 and below), Ambivalent (16-20) and High (21-30). Teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations and school type had four items each thus the minimum score was 4 and the maximum score was 20. This was grouped into three categories: Low (10 and below), Ambivalent (11-14) and High (15-20).

The paternal education attainment was measured using items in number six. This was grouped into three categories: High, medium, and low. High educational attainment included formal education, training after secondary education to the university level. Medium included formal education in primary up to the secondary level. Low included no schooling. Paternal involvement in education was determined using item
number seven, in the questionnaire and it had four items where each item had a minimum score of 4 and a maximum score of 8. It was grouped into three categories: Low (5.3 and below), Ambivalent (5.4 - 6.7) and High (6.8 - 8.0). The teachers’ interview had fifteen items (Appendix II). The minimum score was 15 and maximum score was 30. It was also grouped into three categories: Low rating (20 and below), Ambivalent (21-25) and High (26-30). The instruments were scored in a positive direction so that the higher the score the more positive and hence agrees. The KMO should be greater than 0.50 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity be significant. All items loading below 0.50 were deleted and those with more than 0.50 loading factor chosen.

3.11 Data Analysis Methods

Analyzing of data entailed examining what had been collected in the field and making deductions and inferences (Kombo & Tromp 2013). Data capturing was done using excel software and the analysis of coded data was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. According to Langridge (2004), SPSS is an extremely powerful piece of statistics in educational research and specifically in psychology and it is also the most comprehensive data analysis tool. The research yielded both qualitative and quantitative data. The collected data by means of questionnaire were analyzed according to the objectives and hypotheses of the study. According to Brigman, and Campbell (2003), quantitative data analysis is usually based on numerical measurements of specific aspects of a phenomenon under study. In this study, the numbers and statistical methods were applied for quantitative data analysis. Quantitative data were generated using questionnaire items.

Qualitative data analysis takes in-depth approach to the phenomenon under study in order to understand it more thoroughly and establish patterns and trends from the information acquired (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Additionally, qualitative data
analysis considers the designs and procedures meant to gain a real, rich and deep data that produces more comprehensive information of the entire purpose of the study. In this study, qualitative data analysis involved defining the information gathered by organizing the data and creating categories and themes pertinent to the study. Qualitative data were generated using interview schedules items. The study used excerpts to give representative information required where the researcher evaluated the meaning and usefulness of the information given by the respondents. The views of students on boy-child educational aspirations were organized, coded and analyzed.

Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) and inferential statistics (Anova, t-test, linear regression and Pearson correlation coefficient) were used to analyze the data and test all hypotheses at the significant level of 0.05. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and t-test were used because the study variables required comparison. Pearson coefficient of correlation (or simple correlation) was used to measure the degree of relationship between the variables. The findings were presented in form of tables for easier interpretation. Coefficient of correlation was also used because it assumes a linear relationship between variables; that two variables are casually related, one being dependent and the other independent.
Table 3.6: Summary of the hypotheses and methods of data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Data analysis methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender roles have no significant influence on boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Pearson correlation, linear regression, ANOVA, t-test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type has no significant influence on boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Pearson correlation, linear regression, ANOVA, t-test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no statistically significant relationship between teachers’ gender and boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Pearson correlation, linear regression, ANOVA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no significant relationship between teachers’ expectation and boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Pearson correlation, linear regression, ANOVA, t-test.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no significant relationship between paternal educational attainment and boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Descriptive, ANOVA.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no significant relationship between paternal involvement and boy-child educational aspirations.</td>
<td>Pearson correlation, linear regression, ANOVA, t-test.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Researcher, (2018)
3.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were considered while carrying out the study. The researcher took the necessary steps to ensure that respondents were given requisite information. Before getting the information from respondents, briefing was done where the researcher and the research assistant introduced themselves. The researcher communicated to the respondents the aims and objectives of the research and how the finding of the study would be disseminated.

The researcher also displayed respect for intellectual property which is also outlined in Kenya’s constitution that ‘the state shall support, promote and protect the intellectual property of the people of Kenya (ROK, 2011). National and international laws, institutional policies and copyright Acts were obeyed and relevant sources were acknowledged while preparing this thesis. Students of secondary schools were some of the respondents, and were considered minors. In respect to United Nations Conventions on the rights of the children who are capable of forming their own views should be granted the rights to express their views and should therefore be facilitated to give fully informed consent’ (UN, 1989).

Confidentiality and anonymity of research participants was upheld. They were assured that information they would give was only meant for the study and their consent was sought. They therefore, were allowed to make a decision on whether to participate in the study or not. The respondents were also given adequate time to respond to questions asked without coercion.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview
This chapter presents the findings of the study on various social constructs as a predictor of boy-child educational aspirations of public secondary schools in Nakuru County, Kenya. The data analyzed, presented and interpreted was based on the responses of students (boys) to the items in the questionnaire and teachers responses to items in the interview. The results are presented in tables with respect to the following objectives of the study: to investigate the influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations; determine the influence of school factors on boy-child educational aspirations; find out if teachers’ factors has an influence on boy-child educational aspirations and establish whether home factors has an influence on boy-child educational aspirations.

4.1 Demographic Descriptions
In this study both boys and teachers were the main respondents. Total sample used was 462, where 420 were boys and 42 were teachers as shown in the figure 4.1. In reference to Appendix I of Section A of the research instruments, the demographic features addressed were; boys and teachers.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate
A total of 420 questionnaires were administered to the students and only 368 were returned. The return rate for students (boys) questionnaire was 87.62% which was considered high and adequate for the study. All the 42 teachers (21 males and 21 females) selected were interviewed thus the return rate was 100%. This could have happened due to the fact that the researcher was conducting interviews and the sample also was relatively small. The total number of respondents in terms of return rate was
4.3 Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The respondents were required to rate the extent they agree or disagree with statements relating to the dependent variable of the study using a five point likert scale. This was achieved using descriptive statistics and factor analysis. From the study each statement explaining the boy’s educational aspirations was computed from the five point likert scale using frequencies and percentages as summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Boys’ Educational Aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would like to do well in school</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
University degree improves chances of getting a job  

Results may not be good enough for me to join the university  

Would like to join university in the future  

Pursue the highest level of education possible  

Father's expectation is to join university immediately  

My friends plan to join university  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>0%</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>276</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>265</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>281</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>234</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>182</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to table 4.1 majority of the students 257 (69.9%) strongly agreed that they would like to do well in school, with 10.6% agreed, while 16.8% were undecided and 2.7% strongly disagreed. This indicated that most of the students 80.5% agreed that they would like to do well in school. Most of the students 276 (75%) strongly agreed that university degree will improve their chances of getting a job, with 14.7% agreed, while 4.9% were undecided and 4.6% strongly disagreed. This shows that majority of students 89.7% agreed that university degree will improved their chances of getting a job.

Majority of the students 265 (72%) strongly agreed that they would like to join university in the future, with 18.8% agreed, while 3.5% were undecided and 5.2% strongly disagreed. This indicated that most of the students 90.8% agreed that they would like to join university in the future. Majority of the students 281 (76.4%) strongly agreed that they would like to pursue the highest level of education possible, with 13.6% agreed, while 6% were undecided and 4% disagreed.
This indicated that most of the students 90% agreed that they would like to pursue the highest level of education possible. Majority of the students 234 (63.3%) strongly agreed that their father's expectation was to join university immediately, with 20.1% agreed, while 9% were undecided and 7.3% disagreed. This indicated that most of the students 83.4% agreed that their father's expectation was to join university immediately. At least 182 (49.5%) of the students strongly agreed that their friends plan to join university, with 23.6% agreed, while 10.1% were undecided and 16.9% strongly disagreed. This implies that majority of students 73.1% agreed that their friends plan to join University.

Majority of the students 216 (58.7%) strongly disagreed that results may not be good enough for them to join the university, with 15.8% disagreed, while 9.2% were undecided, 9.2% strongly agreed and 7.1% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 74.5% disagreed that their results may not be good enough for them to join the university. From the study, all the statement used to explain the boy’s educational aspiration was rated positively by the students except on one item “Results may not be good enough for me to join the university” which was rated negatively.

4.3.1 Factor Analysis of Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The table 4.2 shows the summaries of factor analysis on boys’ educational aspirations.

Table 4.2: Factor Analysis of Boys’ Educational Aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated Component Matrix</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would like to do well in school</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree improves chances of getting a job</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results may not be good enough for me to join the university</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would like to join university in the future</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pursue the highest level of education possible</td>
<td>.847</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father's expectation is to join university immediately</td>
<td>.646</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Factor analysis was employed to help in identifying the number of statements that measured each construct as perceived by the respondents. Out of the seven statements in table 4.2 above six of them were in Factor loading 1. Only one statement which stated that, “the results may not be good enough for me to join the university” was in Factor loading 2. This meant that all the seven statements used in the explaining boys’ educational aspirations were retained and computed to form aspiration variable.

Before performing the analysis, the suitability of the data was assessed through two tests; Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity. The validity of the instrument was measured through Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity (Muhammad, 2009) and the KMO as recommended by Chakraborty (2010), Nuradli, Hanifah, Shahida & Hairunnizam, (2008) and Dahal (2004). The KMO should be greater than 0.50 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity be significant. Based on the previous works of (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006) all items loading below 0.50 were deleted and those with more than 0.50 loading factor chosen (Daud, 2004). The principle component analysis and Varimax rotation were performed in all the items that had factor loadings lower than 0.50 were eliminated as postulated by Hair et al., (2006). Only statements with a loading value of above 0.5 were considered. The factor analysis results of boys’ educational aspirations, indicated that the KMO was 0.816 and the Bartlett’s Test of sphericity was significant.

**Source:** Researcher (2018).
(p<.05). The Varimax rotation and the principle component resulted in two factor loading that explained 55.78 % of variance with Eigen values larger than 1.

From the interview, teachers reported various factors that they thought may have influenced the deterioration of educational aspirations of boys;

“The boy-child educational aspiration was deteriorating yet they are (boys) capable of attaining the best in education if only they have a positive attitude towards it. As teachers we believed that educational aspirations was deteriorating due to: Excessive concern for girl child, due to lack of enough male teachers, lack of motivation, drugs abuse, informal business of boda boda, peer influence, lack of school fees, economic status of the family and death of the parents, high drop out among the boys. We also believe through statistics that girls are outshining boys in academic performance in Nakuru County. This is because girls have more time and are given first priority in most families than boys. Also girls have been empowered through many girls support programmes.” (Teachers in Nakuru County, 2018)
The views of one teacher concerning the neglecting the boy-child was exemplified in following excerpts.

“The boy-child has being neglected in so many areas and the girl-child promoted by many stakeholders and activists. The government has established many girls secondary schools in this area and many mixed schools have been converted to girls’ schools. In this sub-county (Molo) imagine there is only one boy school and girls’ schools are all over. So bwana, I think boys are not doing very well because they feel they are abandoned” (A male teacher from Molo, 2018).

4.4 Influence of Gender Roles on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations

The first objective of the study was to investigate the influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations. This was established using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics involved the use of frequencies and percentages. After performing the factor analysis of each item, the statements were computed to create scores and subjected to inferential analysis. The inferential statistics involved the use of Pearson correlation coefficient, linear regression, t-test and Anova. The respondents were required to rate the statements relating to the gender roles of boy-child using a five point likert scale. Computation was done on each statement on gender roles using frequencies and percentages as shown in Table 4.3.
Table 4.3 Gender roles items on boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look after the cattle at home</td>
<td>21 5.7</td>
<td>21 5.7</td>
<td>70 19.0</td>
<td>73 19.8</td>
<td>183 49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay at home to do casual work to sustain the family</td>
<td>17 4.6</td>
<td>16 4.3</td>
<td>18 4.9</td>
<td>86 23.4</td>
<td>231 62.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer doing boda-boda business</td>
<td>16 4.3</td>
<td>11 3.0</td>
<td>22 6.0</td>
<td>80 21.7</td>
<td>239 64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer sand harvesting or quarry than going to school</td>
<td>9 2.4</td>
<td>8 2.2</td>
<td>17 4.6</td>
<td>71 19.3</td>
<td>263 71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer working at sisal plantations than going to school</td>
<td>8 2.2</td>
<td>9 2.4</td>
<td>23 6.3</td>
<td>66 17.9</td>
<td>262 71.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer marriage than proceeding with higher education</td>
<td>22 6.0</td>
<td>9 2.4</td>
<td>24 6.5</td>
<td>62 16.8</td>
<td>251 68.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Researcher (2018).

The aggregate gender roles influence on boys’ educational aspirations was 26.0 and this was high. In the table majority of the students 183 (49.7%) strongly disagreed that they looked after the cattle at home, with 19.8% disagreed, while 19% were undecided and 5.7% strongly agreed and the same 5.7% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 69.5% were allowed to attend school rather than look after the cattle at home. Most of the students 231 (62.8%) strongly disagreed that they stayed at home to do casual work to sustain their family, with 23.4% disagreed, while 4.9% were undecided, 4.3% strongly agreed and 4.6% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 86.2% attended school rather than stays at home and do casual work to sustain their families.
Majority of the students 239 (64.9%) strongly disagreed that they preferred doing boda-boda business than going to school, with 21.7% disagreed, while 6% were undecided and 4.3% strongly agreed as well 3% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 86.6% preferred going to school than doing boda-boda business. Majority of the students 263 (71.5%) strongly disagreed that they prefer sand harvesting or quarry than going to school, with 19.3% disagreed, while 4.6% were undecided and 2.4% strongly agreed as well as 2.2 agreed. This indicated that most of the students 90.8% prefer going to school rather than sand harvesting or quarry.

Most of the students 262 (71.2%) strongly disagreed that they prefer working at sisal plantations than going to school, with 17.9% disagreed, while 6.3% were undecided, 2.2% strongly agreed and 2.4% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 89.1% prefer going to school than working in sisal plantations. Majority of the students 251 (68.2%) strongly disagreed that they prefer marriage than proceeding with higher education, with 16.8% disagreed, while 6.5% were undecided and 26% strongly agreed as well 2.4% agreed. This indicated that most of the students 85% preferred proceeding with higher education than marriage.

4.4.1 Factor analysis on Gender Roles of Boy-Child

Factor analysis was employed to help in identifying the statements that actually measured gender roles of boy-child construct as perceived by the respondents. The six statements were validated through factor analysis as summarized in table 4.4.
Table 4.4: Factor analysis on gender roles of boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated Component Matrixa</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look after the cattle at home</td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay at home to do casual work to sustain the family</td>
<td>.773</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer doing boda- boda business</td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer sand harvesting or quarry than going to school</td>
<td>.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer working at sisal plantations than going to school</td>
<td>.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer marriage than proceeding with higher education</td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO= .878; Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity =.000
Eigen value=1.00
Percentage of variance Explained=65.91

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 Components extracted.


The factor analysis results of gender roles indicated that the KMO was 0.878 and the Bartlett’s Test of sphericity was significant (p<.05). The principle component analysis resulted in one factor loading on gender roles. The variance explained 65.91% with Eigen value larger than 1. This meant that all the 5 statements used to explain gender roles were retained, computed and renamed gender roles variable for further inferential analysis. This gave the opportunity to proceed with the inferential analysis using Pearson product moment and linear regression.

4.4.2 Pearson correlation on gender roles and boy-child educational aspirations

Pearson moment correlation was used to describe the linear relationship between two variables, depending on the level of measurement. The relationship between independent variables (Gender roles) and dependent variable (boy-child educational aspirations) was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Pearson correlations on gender roles and boys’ educational aspirations
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>.114*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender roles</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.114*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.028</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=368


There was an influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations \([r = .114, n=368, p<.05]\). Pearson correlation indicated that there was an influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations. This implies that the gender roles assigned to boys at home affected their education aspirations hence null hypothesis was rejected.

### 4.4.3 Linear regression on gender roles and boy-child educational aspirations

A linear regression model was used to explore the relationship between dependent variable and independent variable as predictor. The prediction was carried out based on the effect of the gender roles of boys as shown in the Table 4.6.
Table 4.6: Model summary gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>R Square Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F df1 df2 Sig. F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.50953</td>
<td></td>
<td>.013 4.859 1 366 .028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender roles
b. Dependent Variable: Aspiration


The $R^2$ represented the measure of variability in educational aspirations among boys in secondary schools in Nakuru County that are accounted for by the predictor. From the model, ($R^2 = .013$) it indicates that the predictor account for 1.3% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The predictors used in the model captured the variation in boy-child educational aspirations among public secondary schools in Nakuru County. Thus the gender roles of boys predict 1.3% of their education aspiration. This indicates that gender roles variable in this study contributed a small proportion of boy’s education aspiration.

4.4.4 Analysis of variance of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.7. The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations. The $F$-ratio was 4.86 and significant ($P<.05$) and thus the model was significant leading to rejection of the null hypotheses that gender roles have no significant influence on boy-child educational aspirations.

Table 4.7: Analysis of variance of gender roles on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

|
The β coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test the hypothesis under study. The t-test was used as a measure to identify whether the predictors were making a significant contribution to the model. Table 4.8 shows the estimates of β-value and gives contribution of the predictor to the model. The β-value for gender roles had negative coefficient, depicting negative relationship with boy-child educational aspirations.

4.4.5 Coefficients of gender roles boy-child educational aspirations

Table 4.8: Coefficients of gender roles boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Zero-order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1  (Constant)</td>
<td>3.835</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>68.587</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender roles</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>-.114</td>
<td>-2.204</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The coefficients results showed that the predicted parameter in relation to the independent factor was significant; $\beta_1 = -0.066 \ (P< 0.05)$. This indicates that for each unit increase in the gender roles, there is 0.066 units decrease in boy-child educational aspirations. Furthermore, the influence of gender roles was stated by the
t-test value = -2.204 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less 2 times that of the error associated with it.

These results were complemented by data from interview schedule where most of the teachers agreed that the gender roles influence boys’ educational aspirations. This is what one teacher had to say:

“The roles given to boys at home can in one way or the other affects their performance in school and even their future education. Boys are tempted to do casual jobs to get some few coins at home instead of going to school. This may affect their educational aspirations.” (One male teacher, 2018)

Therefore from the finding, the null hypothesis ($H_0$) stating that gender roles have no significant influence on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected concluding that gender roles has an impact on boy-child educational aspirations

4.5 The Influence of School Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The second objective of the study was to investigate the influence of school constructs on boy-child educational aspirations. This was established using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics involved the use of frequencies and percentages. The inferential statistics involved the use of t-test, Pearson correlation coefficient and linear regression.

4.5.1 School Type

The respondents were required to identify the type of school they studied and the findings are shown in Figure 4.2.
4.5.2 School Type on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

Majority of the students 236 (64.1%) were from mixed school and 132 (35.9%) from single sex schools. This indicated that most of the students were drawn from mixed schools. The respondents were required to rate the extent they agree or disagree with statements relating to the school type using a five point likert scale. From each statement explaining the school type was computed using frequencies and percentages as shown in Table 4.9.
Table 4.9 School type on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School learning environment</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not conducive for studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discouraged when girls</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outshine boys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys don’t like studying in</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class with girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys excel in single sex</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>73.64</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From the table most of the students 190 (51.6%) strongly agree that the school learning environment was not conducive for studies, with 14.1% agreed, while 23.1% were undecided, 7.6% strongly disagreed and 3.5% disagreed. This indicated that most of the students 65.7% had school learning environment not conducive for studies. Most of the students 194 (52.7%) strongly agree that boys don’t like studying in class with girls, with 18.2% agreed, while 12.8% were undecided and 9.8% strongly disagree as well 6.5% disagree. The results from the table indicated that most of the boys 70.9% don’t like studying in class together with girls.

At least 161 (43.75%) of students strongly agree that they were discouraged when girls outshine boys, with 19.29% agree, while 12% were undecided and 11.96% strongly disagreed as well as 13.9% disagreed. This indicated that 63.04% of students were discouraged when girls outshine boys. Also 271 (73.64%) strongly agree that boys excel in single sex school, with 14.1% agree, while 2.6% were undecided, 3.9%
strongly agreed and 5.76% agreed. This indicated that 87.74% of students perceive boy’s excellence depend on sex of students in the school.

**4.5.3 School Type Difference in Boys’ Educational Aspirations**

An Independent Samples t-test was used so as to randomly assign to one of the two groups. The t-test was calculated to determine if there was any difference between the two groups and whether it was statistically significant. To determine school type variation in the boy’s educational aspirations independent samples t-test was used as summarized in the Table 4.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>3.6023</td>
<td>.57559</td>
<td>3.535</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.7961</td>
<td>.45989</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Researcher (2018).*

This showed that there was school type variation in the number of single sex and mixed schools. Despite the fact that the number of mixed schools involved in the study was high (n=236) compared to single sex school (n=132) the mean for boy’s educational aspirations was higher in single sex schools. The mean performance of single sex (3.80) was higher than that of mixed sex (3.60). An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the school type variation in the boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school. This means that the significance in the school type variation with respect to boy-child educational aspirations was different.

From these results there is a statistically significant difference between school type and the boy-child educational aspirations. The boy-child educational aspirations
(p=0.000) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean of single and mixed schools. Since, the mean for the single sex was greater than that of mixed sex it showed that boys' educational aspirations in single sex schools was higher than educational aspirations boys in mixed schools hence there is need to consider converting mixed schools into single sex schools to enhance boy-child educational aspirations.

4.5.4 Pearson Correlations on School Type and Boys' Educational Aspirations

Pearson moment correlation was used to describe the linear relationship between school type and boy-child educational aspirations as shown in Table 4.11

Table 4.11: Pearson correlations of school type on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>School Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.182**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Type</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>-.182**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
N=368


The table shows there was a significant influence of perceived school type on boy-child educational aspirations [r= -.182, n=368, p<.05]. This indicated that school type influenced the boys’ educational aspirations among public secondary school in Nakuru County. The type of school is important in achievement of boy’s educational aspiration.
4.5.5 Linear Regression of School Type on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations

A linear regression model was used to explore the relationship between boy-child educational aspirations and school type or predictor. It was used to predict boy-child educational aspirations in the study based on the effect of school type studies as shown in Table 4.12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.182a</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.50436</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), School Type
b. Dependent Variable: Aspiration


The R² represented the measure of variability in educational aspirations that is accounted for by the school type. From the model, (R² = .033) indicating that the predictor account for 3.3% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The predictors used in the model captured the variation in boy-child educational aspirations among selected secondary schools in Nakuru County.

4.5.6 Analysis of Variance of School Type on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>3.180</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.180</td>
<td>12.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>93.103</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>.254</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>96.282</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration
b. Predictors: (Constant), School Type


The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations. The F-ratio was 12.50 and significant (P<.05) and thus the model was significant in predicting the outcome.

4.5.7 Coefficients of School Type on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The $\beta$ coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test the hypothesis under study. Table 4.14 shows the estimates of $\beta$-value and gives contribution of the predictor to the model.
The β-value for school type had negative coefficient, depicting negative relationship with boy-child educational aspirations. The coefficients results showed that the predicted parameter in relation to the independent factor was significant at $\beta_3 = -0.194$ ($P<0.05$). This indicates that for each unit change in the school type, there was 0.194 decreases in boy-child educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County. Furthermore, the influence of school type was stated by the t-test value = -3.54 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less 3.5 times that of the error associated with it. Therefore from the finding, the null hypothesis ($H_02$) stating that school type has no significant influence on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

It is clear that 76% of the boys did not consider their teachers as a source of motivation and encouragement in educational aspirations which raises a new question regarding the source of inspiration for the majority of boys in their schooling. This notwithstanding however, the school atmosphere emerged as more accommodating for the girls’ preparation for future life in mixed schools compared with many of the boys, who looked to the space outside school as offering more competing opportunities for their quest of becoming successful in life. According to interviews
conducted by the researcher teachers confessed that they had indeed neglected boy-child in the quest to demonstrate their efforts in enhancing girls’ education. In one school in Naivasha, a female teacher confessed the negligence of the boys saying:

“As teachers we forget to talk about the boy-child but there are problems that are encountered by the boys. We think so much about the girl-child without considering boys, and all are our children in schools. As teachers I believe that we contribute so much to the challenges faced by boys in school”. (A Female teacher Naivasha, 2018).

4.6 Influence of Teachers’ Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The third objective of the study was to establish the influence of teacher’s constructs on boy-child educational aspirations. This was established using both descriptive (frequencies and percentages) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation coefficient and linear regression). The students were required to rate the extent they agree or disagree with statements relating to the teachers’ gender using a five point likert scale.

4.6.1 Teachers’ Gender Influence on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

From each statement explaining the teachers’ gender was computed and summarized as shown in Table 4.15.
Table 4.15 Teachers’ gender influence on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are few male teachers in School</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Teachers are role models</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy being taught by male teachers</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivated by male teachers</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Teachers’ gender influence on boys’ educational aspirations index was 12.5 which was ambivalent. At least 92 (25%) of students strongly disagreed that there are few male teachers in school, with 21.5% disagreed, while 28.3% were undecided, 12% strongly agreed and 13.3% agreed. This showed that 46.5% of the students perceived that male teachers were not few in their school. Also 93 (25.3%) of students perceived that male teachers were role models, 21.2% agreed, while 12.2% were undecided, 20.7% strongly disagreed as well as disagreed. This indicated that 46.5% of students enjoy being taught by male teachers.

Also 76 (20.7%) of students strongly agreed that they enjoy being taught by male teachers, with 80 (21.7%) agreed, while 16.8% were undecided, 26.7% strongly disagreed and 14.7% disagreed. This indicated that 42.4% of students enjoy being taught by male teachers. At least 121 (32.9%) of students strongly agreed that they are motivated by male teachers, with 90 (24.5%) agreed, while 11.7% were undecided, 19.8%
strongly disagreed and 11.1% agreed. This indicated that 57.4% of students were motivated by male teachers. The teacher’s gender influence on education aspiration index was 12.5 which was ambivalent.

4.6.2 Correlation of Teachers’ Gender on Boys Educational Aspirations

Pearson moment correlation was used to describe the linear relationship between teacher’s gender and boy-child educational aspirations as shown in Table 4.16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Teachers gender</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.544**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

b. Listwise N=368


There was a positive influence of teacher’s gender on boy-child educational aspirations \[r = .544, n=368, p<.05\]. This indicated that teacher’s gender positively influenced the boy-child educational aspirations. This may be attributed to the influence of teacher’s gender on attitude and motivation of students with respect to their aspirations.

4.6.3 Linear Regression on Teachers’ Gender and Boys’ Educational Aspirations

A linear regression model was used to explore the relationship between teacher’s gender and boy-child educational aspirations. The prediction was carried out based on the effect of teacher’s gender as shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Model summary on teachers’ gender on boys’ educational aspirations
The $R^2$ represented the measure of variability in educational aspirations among public secondary schools in Nakuru County that is accounted for by the predictor. From the model, ($R^2 = .296$) indicating that the predictor account for 29.6% variation in boy-child educational aspirations predictors used in the model captured the variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The teachers’ gender contributes 29.6% of boy-child educational aspirations through their motivation and positive attitude.

**4.6.4 Analysis of variance on teachers’ gender on boys’ educational aspirations**

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.18.
Table 4.18: Analysis of variance on teachers’ gender on boys’ educational aspiration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>28.485</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28.485</td>
<td>153.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>67.797</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96.282</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration
b. Predictors: (Constant), Teachers’ gender


The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations. The F-ratio was 153.77 and significant (P<.05) and thus the model was significant leading to rejection of the null hypotheses, that there is no relationship between teachers’ gender and boy-child educational aspirations.

4.6.5 Coefficients of teachers’ gender on boys’ educational aspirations

The β coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test each of the hypotheses under study. The t-test was used to identify whether the predictors were making a significant contribution to the model. Table 4.19 shows the estimates of β-value and gives contribution of the predictor to the model.
Table 4.19: Coefficients of teachers’ gender on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Zero- order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (constant)</td>
<td>2.423</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td></td>
<td>22.55</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers gender</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.544</td>
<td>12.40</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration


The β-value for teacher’s gender had positive coefficient, depicting positive relationship with boy-child educational aspirations. The coefficients results showed that the predicted parameter in relation to the independent factor was significant; β = 0.354 (P < 0.05). This indicates that for each unit change in the teacher’s gender, there is 0.354 units increase in boy-child educational aspirations. Furthermore, the influence of perceived teachers’ gender was stated by the t-test value = 12.40 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less 12.4 times that of the error associated with it. Therefore the null hypothesis (H₀₃) that there is no significant relationship between teachers’ gender and boy-child educational aspirations was rejected. From the interview schedule most of the teachers agreed that the gender of a teacher affects boys’ educational aspirations. This is what one teacher had to say:

“Boys tend to be closer to male teachers and due to lack of male teachers they lack motivation. There are many female teachers in this area and I think most boys think that teaching and learning is a female thing. You see some boys are very shy to get advice from female teachers because the lack of someone to share their feelings with especially issues that they cannot share with female teachers”. (One male teacher from Naivasha, 2018).
Another teacher had this to say:

“The perception of boys regarding the gender of the teacher affecting their educational aspirations is critical. For instance, I have talked to many boys and approximately 70% of them said that female teachers are encouraging girls in class, compared with 30% of them who said that male teachers encouraged boys in class in mixed school.” (A female teacher from Nakuru Sub-County, 2018).

4.6.6 Teachers’ expectations on boys’ educational aspirations

This was established using both descriptive (frequencies and percentage) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation coefficient and linear regression). The students were required to rate the extent they agree or disagree with statements relating to the teacher expectation using a five point likert scale. From each statement explaining the teacher expectation was computed and summarized in Table 4.20.
### Table 4.20 Teachers’ Expectations items on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers treat girls differently than boys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq / %</td>
<td>57 / 15.5</td>
<td>31 / 8.4</td>
<td>92 / 25.0</td>
<td>53 / 14.4</td>
<td>135 / 36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers rate boy's social behaviour lower than girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq / %</td>
<td>59 / 16.0</td>
<td>29 / 7.9</td>
<td>80 / 21.7</td>
<td>67 / 18.2</td>
<td>133 / 36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers most often motivate girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq / %</td>
<td>66 / 17.9</td>
<td>32 / 8.7</td>
<td>67 / 18.2</td>
<td>62 / 16.8</td>
<td>141 / 38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers motivate boys to pursue higher education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq / %</td>
<td>219 / 59.5</td>
<td>72 / 19.6</td>
<td>33 / 9.0</td>
<td>9 / 2.4</td>
<td>35 / 9.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Researcher (2018).

The aggregate teachers’ expectation index on boys’ educational aspirations was 11.7 which was ambivalent. Most of the students 219 (59.5%) of students strongly agreed that teachers motivate boys to pursue higher education, with 72(19.6%) agreed, while 9% were undecided, 9.5% strongly disagreed and 2.4% agreed. This indicated that 79.1% of students perceive teachers motivate boys to pursue higher education. At least 135 (36.7) of students strongly disagreed that teachers treat girls differently than boys, with 14.4% disagreed, while 25% were undecided, 15.5% strongly agreed and 8.4% agreed. This showed that 51.1% of the students perceived that teachers do not treat girls differently than boys. Also 133 (36.1%) of students strongly disagree that teachers rate boy's social behaviour lower than girls, 18.2% disagreed, while 21.7% were undecided, 16% strongly agreed and 7.9% agreed. This indicated that 54.3% of students perceive teachers do not rate boy's social behaviour lower than girls.
Finally, 141 (38.3%) of students strongly disagree that teachers most often motivate girls, 16.8% disagreed, while 18.2% were undecided, 17.9% strongly agreed and 8.7% agreed. This indicated that 55.1% of students pointed out that most teachers often do not motivate girls. Most of the students also said teachers do motivate boys to pursue higher education. Students pointed out that teachers do treat girls differently than boys, rate boy’s social behaviour lower than girls and do not motivate girls most often. The aggregate teachers’ expectation index on boys’ aspiration was 11.7 which was ambivalent.

4.6.7 Correlation of teachers’ expectations on boy-child educational aspirations

Pearson moment correlation was used to describe the linear relationship between teacher’s expectations and boy-child educational aspirations as shown in Table 4.21.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Expectation</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.514*</td>
<td>Expectation</td>
<td>.514*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=368


There was a positive influence of teacher’s expectations on boy-child educational aspirations [r=.514, n=368, p<.05]. This indicated that teacher’s expectations positively influence the boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. This may be attributed to the target set by the school to enhance education aspirations.
4.6.8 Linear regression of teachers’ expectations on boys’ educational aspirations

A linear regression model was used to explore the relationship between teacher’s expectations and boy-child educational aspirations. The prediction was carried out based on the effect of teacher’s expectations as shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Model Summary of teachers’ expectations on educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R Square Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>df1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.514&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.264</td>
<td>.262</td>
<td>.43994</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Predictors: (Constant), Expectation


The $R^2$ represented the variability in educational aspirations that is accounted for by the teacher’s expectations. From the model, ($R^2 = .264$) indicating that the predictor account for 26.4% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The predictors used in the model captured the variation in boy-child educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County. This indicates teachers’ expectations contribute 26.4% of the boy’s educational aspirations.

4.6.9 Analysis of variance of teachers expectations on boys’ educational aspirations

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.23. The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations.
Table 4.23: Analysis of variance of teachers’ expectations on educational aspiration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>25.445</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.445</td>
<td>131.46</td>
<td>.000b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>70.837</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>.194</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96.282</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration  
b. Predictors: (Constant), Expectation


The F- ratio was 131.46 and significant (P<.05) and thus the model was significant leading to rejection of the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between teachers’ expectation and boy-child educational aspirations.

4.6.10 Coefficients of teachers’ expectations on boys’ educational aspirations

The β coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test each of the hypotheses under study. Table 4.24 shows the estimates of β-value and gives contribution of the teacher’s expectations to the model.
Table 4.24: Coefficients of teachers’ expectation on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Zero-order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>2.349</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectation</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration


The β-value for teacher’s expectations had positive coefficient, indicating positive relationship with boy-child educational aspirations. The coefficients results showed that the independent factor was significant; \( \beta = 0.370 \) (\( P < 0.05 \)). This indicates that for each unit increase in the teacher’s expectations, there is 0.370 unit rise in boy-child educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County. Furthermore, the influence of teacher’s expectations was stated by the t-test value = 11.466 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less 11.4 times that of the error associated with it. Therefore the null hypothesis (\( H_04 \)) which stated that there is no significant relationship between teachers’ expectation and boy-child educational aspirations was rejected. The results were complemented by data from the interview where one teacher commented concerning other activities that boys do perform instead of schooling:

“There is this boda-boda thing (commuter motorbike services) issue whereby it is a mode of transport nowadays and sometimes you may find the students (boys) being trained on how to ride the motorbikes and by no time they are drivers and ready to engage in sqote (this is whereby the owner of the motorbike allows you to ride then you will get a percentage of the amount you receive). Boys become absent in school to engage in that business which is affecting the boys. There is also sand harvesting in this town where boys engage in it because there is high demand for sand and people
come from very far looking for the sand for construction” (A male teacher from Nakuru, 2018).

Teachers also acknowledge the fact that they normally rate boys very low in terms of social behavior as one of the female teachers noted by saying;

“Teachers perceive boys differently as in they can misbehave easily than girls. I think girls are given more attention because they are less likely to misbehave and they are disciplined compare to boys. Generally girls are manageable than boys. We are really having a problem with boys (A female teacher from Nakuru, 2018).

From the interview, therefore, there is need to pay close attention to the boy-child and actually manage the teachers’ expectations.

4.7 Influence of Home Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the influence of home factors on boy-child educational aspirations. This was actually established using both descriptive (frequencies and percentage) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistics. The students were required to identify the education level of their fathers as summarized in Figure 4.3.

![Figure 4.3 Paternal Education Attainment on boys’ educational aspirations](image)

**KEY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Father's Education Level</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Researcher (2018).

At least 76 (20.7%) of the students identify their fathers to have a university degree, with 17.7% had diploma as well as secondary and 14.9% had primary education. This indicated that most of the fathers had above secondary education level.
4.7.1 Descriptive statistics of paternal education on boys’ educational aspirations

From the findings the difference existing between paternal educational attainment and boy-child educational aspirations was established using descriptive analysis as summarized in Table 4.25. There was difference among the parents without education and those who had attained degree qualification. This is an indication that there was no significant difference between boy-child educational aspirations with respect to paternal educational attainment.

Table 4.25 Descriptive statistics of paternal educational attainment on boy-child educational aspirations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.6691</td>
<td>.45915</td>
<td>.11136</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>4.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.6591</td>
<td>.56440</td>
<td>.07610</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.7077</td>
<td>.48828</td>
<td>.06056</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.8635</td>
<td>.34213</td>
<td>.04244</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>3.7599</td>
<td>.47905</td>
<td>.05495</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>4.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3.6653</td>
<td>.61604</td>
<td>.06494</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>368</td>
<td>3.7266</td>
<td>.51220</td>
<td>.02670</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Analysis of variance was used to describe the influence of paternal education and boy-child educational aspirations. There was an influence of paternal education on boy-child educational aspirations \[F = 15.2 \ p > .05\], as shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Analysis of variance of paternal educational on boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.970</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>15.12</td>
<td>.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>94.312</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>96.282</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicated that parental educational attainment has an influence on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. Therefore the null hypothesis \((\text{Ho}_5)\) that paternal educational does not affect boy-child educational aspirations was rejected. From the interview teachers agreed that paternal level of education boosts boy’s educational aspirations. The fathers act as role model to their sons. It helps them build self-confidence and most boys aspires to reach where their fathers reached or above. The boy’s morale will emanate from their fathers and strive to achieve whatever their fathers have achieved.

4.7.2 Paternal Involvement on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

This was established using both descriptive (frequencies and percentage) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation coefficient and linear regression). The students were required to identify their agreement with statements relating to the paternal involvement as summarized in Figure 4.5.

![Figure 4.5: Paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations](image)

The aggregate index of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations was 6.8 which was high. On the paternal involvement, most of the students 90.8% agreed that father's advice them on education and 9.2% did not. On Father's assistance in doing homework 159 (43.2%) agreed and 209 (56.8%) disagreed. While on father's concern on school progress most of the students 317 (86.1%) agreed with 13.9% disagreed. On father’s motivation majority of students (88.9%) agreed and 11.1% disagree. This means that fathers were fully involved with the boys’ education by offering pieces of advice, homework assistance inter alia.

4.7.3 Correlations of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations.
Pearson moment correlation was used to describe the linear relationship between paternal involvement and boy-child educational aspirations as shown in Table 4.27
Table 4.27 Correlations of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Social</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aspiration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.521**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.521**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
N=368


There was a positive influence of paternal involvement on boy-child educational aspirations \([r=.521, n=368, p<.05]\). This indicated that paternal involvement positively influenced the boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County.

4.7.4 Linear regression of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations

A linear regression model was used to explore the relationship between paternal involvement and boy-child educational aspirations. The prediction was carried out based on the influence of paternal involvement as shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Model summary of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>Sig. F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>df1</td>
<td>df2</td>
<td>Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.521*</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>.4379</td>
<td>.271</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant),


The \(R^2\) represented the variability in educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County that is accounted for by the paternal involvement. From the model, \((R^2 = .271)\) indicating that the predictor account for 27.1% variation in boy-child edu-
cational aspirations. The predictor used in the model captured the variation in boy-child educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County. The paternal involvement in education contributed 27.1% of the boys’ educational aspirations.

4.7.5 Analysis of variance of paternal involvement on boy-child educational aspirations

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Analysis of variance of paternal involvement on educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>26.087</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26.087</td>
<td>136.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>70.195</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>96.282</td>
<td>367</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration</sup>  
<sup>b. Predictors: (Constant), Social</sup>


The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations. The F- ratio was 136.02 and significant (P<.05) and thus the model was significant leading to rejection of the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between paternal involvement in education and boys’ educational aspirations.

4.7.6 Coefficients of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations

The $\beta$ coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test each of the hypotheses under study. Table 4.30 shows the estimates of $\beta$-value and gives contribution of the paternal involvement to the model.
Table 4.30: Coefficients of paternal involvement on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Zero-order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (constant)</td>
<td>2.380</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>20.218</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>.525</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.521</td>
<td>11.663</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a. Dependent Variable: Aspiration**

**Source:** Researcher (2018).

The β-value for paternal involvement had positive coefficient, indicating positive relationship with boy-child educational aspirations. The coefficients results showed that the independent factor was significant; \( \beta_6 = 0.525 \) (\( P < 0.05 \)). This indicates that for each unit increase in the paternal involvement, there is 0.525 unit rise in boy-child educational aspirations among secondary schools in Nakuru County. Furthermore, the influence of paternal involvement was stated by the t-test value = 11.66 which implies that the standard error associated with the parameter is less 11.66 times that of the error associated with it. Therefore the null hypothesis \( (H_06) \) which stated that there is no significant relationship between paternal involvement and boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.
4.7.7 Multiple regression on constructs influencing boy-child educational aspirations

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence gender, school, teachers and home factors on boy-child educational aspirations in public secondary schools. A multiple regression model was used to explore the relationship between one continuous dependent variable and the predictors. The prediction was carried out basing on the influence of the independent variables (gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectation, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement) on the boy-child educational aspirations as shown in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31 Model summary of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors influencing on boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
<th>R Square Change</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig. F Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.807a</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>.30561</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>95.840</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectation, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement


The R² represents the measure of variability in boy-child educational aspirations that the predictors are accounted for. From the model, (R² = .651) showed that the predictors account for 65.1% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The F-ratio was 95.84 and significant (P<.05).

4.7.8 Analysis of variance of gender roles, school, teachers and home constructs on boys’ educational aspirations

The analysis of variance was used to test whether the model could significantly fit in predicting the outcome than using the mean as shown in Table 4.32.
Table 4.32 Analysis of variance of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors on boys’ educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>62.659</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.951</td>
<td>95.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>33.623</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>96.282</strong></td>
<td><strong>367</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Aspirations
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectation, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement.


The regression model significantly improved the ability to predict the boy-child educational aspirations. The F- ratio was 95.84 and significant (P<.05).

4.7.9 Coefficients of boy-child educational aspirations

The $\beta$ coefficients for independent variable was generated from the model and subjected to a t-test, in order to test each of the hypotheses under study table 4.33. The $\beta$-value for gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectation, paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education had positive coefficient, indicating positive relationship, with boy-child educational aspirations.
Table 4.33: Coefficients of boy-child educational aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1.059</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.651</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender roles</td>
<td>-.112</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>-.193</td>
<td>-5.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paternal invol</td>
<td>.367</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.364</td>
<td>9.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paternal education</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>3.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher gender</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.352</td>
<td>9.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher expectation</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.272</td>
<td>7.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>School type</td>
<td>-.150</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>-.141</td>
<td>-4.256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. **Dependent Variable: Aspiration**

**Source:** Researcher (2018).

The coefficients results showed that all the predicted parameters in relation to the independent factor was significant, which implies that we reject the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant influence of gender roles, school, teachers and home factors on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools. This indicates that for each unit increase in the boy-child educational aspirations there is an increase of (.229) teachers’ gender, (.196) teachers’ expectation, (.070) paternal education and (.367) paternal involvement. However a unit increase in boy-child educational aspirations was caused by the decline in (.112) gender roles and (.150) school type.

The boys were asked an open ended question about cultural factors that affect their educational aspirations and they identified the following;

“**Circumcision as rite of passage, boy-girl relationships, drug abuse, early marriages, gender roles, religion, peer pressure and school drop outs**”. (Boys from sample schools, 2018)
From the interview schedule for teacher an open ended item about cultural factors that affect their educational aspirations was asked and they identified the following;

“Circumcision and initiation as rite of passage, early marriage and traditional dance”. (Teachers from sample schools, 2018)

From the questionnaire on the open ended item on home factors that affect their (boys) educational aspirations the boys identified the following;

“Looking after the cattle, bad company, lack of parents support and parental care, child labour, working long hours in the farm, riding bodaboda, addiction gambling and entertainment and family disputes”. (Boys from sample schools, 2018)

From the interview schedule an open ended item on home factors that affect boys’ educational aspirations they identify the following;

“Taking care of other children, parental level of education, parents affected/infected by HIV/AIDS, internal conflicts, lack of role models and lack of parental guidance, looking after the cows, lack of capital to facilitate their studies, and home chores” (Teachers from sample schools, 2018)

The school factors identified by the boys that affect their educational aspirations included;

“Lack of school fees, sneaking out of school, heavy punishment, boy-girl relationships, strikes, less pocket money and being taught by female teachers. Also there is discouragement from teachers as compared to girls, neglected by teachers, being isolated, favourism of girls by male teachers, abusive words by female teachers, female teachers’ dressing badly, being given small amount of food and discrimination of students from poor backgrounds”. (Boys from sample schools, 2018)

From the interviews schedule an open ended question on school factors that affect boys’ educational aspirations they identify the following;

“The gender of the teacher, education performance level, being outshined by girls, corporal punishment, girls given lighter punishment and peer pressure” (Teachers from sample schools, 2018).
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview
The main purpose was to determine the gender roles, school, teachers and home factors to the boys’ educational aspirations. The research objectives of this study were: to investigate the influence of gender roles, school factors, teachers’ factors, and home factors on boys’ educational aspirations. In this Chapter, the key findings of the study are discussed based on the objectives and conclusions drawn. Policy-based recommendations arising from the findings are also given and finally areas of further research identified.

5.1 Boys’ Educational Aspirations
From the study, the boy’s educational aspiration was rated positively by the students. Most of the students agreed that they would like to do well in school as a university degree will improve their chances of getting a job in future. Their father’s expectation was that of joining universities. The results therefore, confirm the finding of Singh, 2011; Inoue, 1999; Mendez & Crawford, 2002; Wilson & Wilson, 1992; Cahalan, Ingels, Burns, Planty, Daniel, & Owings 2006; Okagaki & Frensch 1998; Qian & Sampson Lee 1999; Teachman & Paasch 1998; Trusty 1998; Pascarella & Terenzini 2005; Perna 2003; Marjoribanks 2003; and Kao & Tienda 1995. They all agree in their separate studies that boys do have higher educational aspirations. The results confirm the finding of Singh, 2011; Inoue, 1999; Mendez & Crawford, 2002; Wilson & Wilson, 1992) who posit in their research that boys do have higher educational aspirations.

Cahalan, Ingels, Burns, Planty, Daniel, & Owings (2006) also did a longitudinal between 1980 and 2002 and found out that an increase of 38% in aspirations led to four out of five students reporting a desire to attain at least a Bachelor’s degree. The results also supported the findings of Okagaki & Frensch 1998; Qian & Sampson Lee 1999; Teachman & Paasch 1998; and Trusty (1998) who in their separate studies found that
students’ educational aspirations are the educational aspirations students’ parents have for them. Pascarella and Terenzini 2005; Perna 2003; Marjoribanks 2003; Kao & Tienda 1995 also found in their various studies that students with high educational aspirations are more likely to do well in school, attain higher education degrees, and reap the economic rewards of higher education degrees in the labor market than students with low educational aspirations.

5.2 The Influence of Gender Roles on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations

The first objective of the study was to investigate the influence of gender roles on boy-child educational aspirations. There was a negative influence of gender roles \((r= -.114)\) on boy-child educational aspirations. This indicated that gender roles negatively influenced the boy-child educational aspirations. A linear regression model, \((R^2 = .013)\) indicating that the gender roles predictor account for 1.3% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The \(\beta\)-value for gender roles had negative coefficient, depicting negative relationship with boy-child educational aspirations. \(\beta_1 = -0.066 (P< 0.05)\). Therefore gender roles have an influence to educational aspirations among the boys. Therefore, the null hypothesis \((H_01)\) that there is no significant influence of gender roles and boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

From social learning perspective there is a significant cultural component to the formation of educational aspirations of the boys. Educational aspiration is not the result of how people live or survive in the world; they are the result of how people feel they are treated by the dominant society. Also from the same theory children acquire behaviour by observing and imitating the people around them. These are people at both the family and society levels. Thus, families and the larger society provide sources for role models to children.
Basing on social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) that guided this study, the people that the boy-child interacted with in his community contributed to his educational aspirations.

The findings implies the need to encourage fathers and teachers to model appropriate behaviours to children so as to create a healthy social environment that will produce well-adjusted children. A healthy social environment provides a child with opportunities to learn the values, norms, social behavioural patterns and social skills needed to integrate in and become a functioning member of his particular society (Binh, 2012). Findings also show that the boys’ environment was not entirely unhealthy for adjusted behaviour. More than half of the boys had friendly fathers and also received help from them when they needed it. Binh (2012) found mutual affection to create a healthy community that gave no room for unacceptable behaviour to blossom. However, the good role models appear not to have influenced the boy-child’s behaviour. As noted by Binh (2001) if the socialization process of a child is incomplete or negatively focused, it can produce an adolescent with a poor self-image who is alienated from conventional social institutions and who feels little attachment to a law-abiding lifestyle. This may therefore explain why the boy-child did not learn from good role models in his community.

The findings of these variables supported what Lutta, (2015), Dunne, (2005) Challenger, (2004) and Jobo, (2001) in their various studies found a correlation between gender roles and boys educational aspirations. These results confirms Challenger, (2004) finding that there is a correlation between the traditional gender roles of boys as cattle herders and increased drop-out and low enrolment rates in the transition from primary to secondary school thus affecting boys’ educational aspirations. It also support the findings of Jobo, (2001) who found out that male
child labour is very common in Lesotho, with young boys in the rural areas being denied their right to education by being hired out as herdboys from a very young age. This indicated that gender roles influenced the boy-child educational aspirations.

The findings agree with Lutta, (2015), who pointed out negative cultural aspects and domestic instability are the main challenges facing education. In Africa boys are not academically achieving as well as girls, the alignment of gender and economic roles emerges more clearly as a determinant of boys’ dropping out of school and underachieving. This concurs with Dunne, (2005) that the lower performance of boys compare to girls within peri-urban and rural schools, attributed to the need for those boys to access employment opportunities at an earlier age. This shows that gender roles significantly influence boys’ educational aspirations of secondary schools.

5.3 The Influence of School Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The second objective of the study was to investigate the influence of school factors on boy-child educational aspirations. Most of the students were drawn from mixed schools. The boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school showed that there was school type variation in the number of single and mixed. The mean performance of single sex (3.80) was higher than that of that of mixed sex (3.60). The single sex school scores vary from that of mixed sex scores. This means that the variability in the school type variation with respect to boy-child educational aspirations was significantly different.

There is a statistically significant influence of school type on the boy-child educational aspirations. The boy-child educational aspirations (p=0.000) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean of single and mixed boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools. There was a negative influ-
ence of school type \(r= -0.182\) on boy-child educational aspirations. This indicated that school type negatively influenced the boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. From the model, \((R^2 = 0.033)\) indicating that the predictor account for 3.3% variation in boy-child educational. The \(\beta_3 = -0.194\) (\(P< 0.05\)) which implies that the null hypothesis \((H_0)\) that there is no significant influence of school type on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

According to sociological theory it stresses aspirations as a cognitive state that motivates or drives young people to strive for academic success and it recognizes the quality of school as important transmitting factor. On the other hand, there exist differences in accessibility to education. The most obvious is between towns and rural areas. The choice of the school may influence the process of educational aspirations of the boy. The findings supported the findings of Cairns, (1990), Lee & Marks, (1990), Trice, Naudu, Lowe & Jaffee, (1996) that adolescent achievement is higher in single sex schools and students were more likely to undertake postgraduate programmes at the University level.

The results supported the findings of Cairns, (1990), Lee & Marks, (1990), Trice, Naudu, Lowe & Jaffee, (1996). McGough, 1991; Reisman, 1991; Hawley, 1993; Watts, (1994). Davis 2002; Aitken, (1999). They all in their various studies found a correlation between school type and educational aspirations. The results supported the findings of McGough, 1991; Reisman, 1991; Hawley, 1993; Watts, (1994). They all in their various large scale studies of secondary schools in Ireland, Australia and the United States found adolescent achievement to be higher in single sex schools. The results also concurs with Davis 2002; Aitken, (1999) who posits that boys achieved better results in single-sex schools and even boys in single-sex schools outperformed both boys and girls in co-educational schools. They also claim that single-
sex school allows the freedom of multiple masculinities and can help boys to embrace the diversity of male roles. This shows that school type significantly influence boys’ educational aspirations of secondary schools in Nakuru County.

5.4 The Influence of Teachers’ Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The third objective of the study was to establish the influence of teachers’ factors on boy-child educational aspirations. From the study most of the students indicated that male teachers were few in their schools. Most students strongly agree that male teachers were not good role models and were not motivated by male teachers. There was a positive influence of teacher’s gender \( r = .544 \) on boy-child educational aspirations. From the model, \( R^2 = .296 \) indicating that the predictor account for 29.6% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The \( \beta \)-value for teacher’s gender \( \beta_4 = 0.354 \) \( (P < 0.05) \). This implies that the null hypothesis \( (H_03) \) that there is no significant influence of teacher’s gender on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

Role modelling appropriate behaviour is an important aspect in helping children to develop desirable outcome. This is because as summarized in social learning theory by Bandura (1977), behaviour is learned through watching and imitating other people. Unfortunately, this study found that some male teachers did not act as role models to the boys in school. From a social learning theory perspective, a boy-child from such a school is likely to adopt the behaviours observed from their male teachers. According to McLeod 2011, children pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode the behaviour they have observed regardless of whether it is appropriate or inappropriate. Neuert (2007) and Mbevi (2010) found male role models to have more influence on a boy-child’s character. This may be suggesting that the boy-child educational aspiration has been imitated from the males he interacted with particularly. It is therefore important for male teachers in
the school to understand the role they play in determining the educational aspirations of boys.

The results supported the findings of Goolamally & Ahmad, (2010) Hunte (2002), Dee 2005; Dee 2006; Undarya & Enkhjargal, (2011). They all in their various research found a correlation between teachers’ gender and boys’ educational aspirations. The findings confirm the results of Goolamally & Ahmad, (2010) who stated that teachers in the Asia-Pacific region are women and were perceived as a factor contributing to boys’ underachievement and hence low educational aspirations. Hunte (2002), did a research and found out that boys will seek out negative role models to fill the gaps at home or school, and that the resultant anti schooling attitudes will leave an emotional deficit that inhibits their progress.

The findings supported Dee 2005; Dee 2006; Undarya & Enkhjargal, (2011) who argued that students were more engaged, behaved more appropriately, and performed at a higher level when taught by one who shared their gender. According to the researchers the teacher’s gender shapes communications and acts as a gender-specific role model, regardless of what he or she says or does. They concluded that the performance of the child depended on the gender of the teacher. This shows that teachers’ gender significantly influence boys’ educational aspirations of secondary schools in Nakuru County.

Most of the students strongly agree that teachers treat girls differently than boys. Teachers also rate boy's social behaviour lower than that of girls. There was a positive influence of teacher’s expectations (r= .514) on boy-child educational aspirations. Teacher’s expectations positively influenced the boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. The $R^2 = .264$ indicating that the predictor account for 26.4% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The $\beta$-
value for teacher’s expectations was $\beta_5 = 0.370$ indicating positive relationship. The null hypothesis ($H_{o4}$) that there is no significant influence of teacher’s expectations on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

In Banduras’ theory teachers can act as role model to the boys. Teachers are a source of authority to children and are likely to follow their guidance. However, teachers just like the fathers would need to have moral authority over the children for their guidance to have the expected impact. As the custodians of moral values in any society, institutions have a role to play in teaching and guiding children. These institutions therefore need to be encouraged to put in place social structures where children can receive guidance on regular basis. These results supported the findings of Davis (2002), Martino & Berrill (2003), Stromquist (2007) and Legewie & DiPrete (2012). They all in their various studies found teachers’ expectations to have a correlation on boys’ educational aspirations. These findings supported the Davis (2002) works that boys are treated differently than girls as early as pre-school, and that throughout primary to secondary school they receive lower ratings by teachers for social behavior and educational aspirations.

The findings also concurred with Martino and Berrill (2003) who posits that male teachers in particular sometimes reinforce gender stereotypical behaviors in boys rather than challenging them. The findings agreed with Stromquist (2007), Legewie & DiPrete (2012) that teachers are influential role models because students spend most of their time with them. Teachers may, however, socialize students along gender lines because they send multiple gendered messages through the curriculum as well as organizational decisions. They argued that teachers directly influence academic environment because they have the potential to modify student behavior and produce stronger academic outcomes and high educational aspirations.
5.5 The Influence of Home Constructs on Boys’ Educational Aspirations

The fourth research objective was about home constructs on boys’ educational aspirations. As noted earlier, paternal educational attainment constituted one of the home factors which were investigated in the study. The main reason for this study was to determine whether relationship existed in boys’ educational aspirations in secondary school from different categories of paternal education attainment. Most of the fathers had education above secondary level. Analysis of variance showed that there was a significant influence of paternal education on boy-child educational aspirations \( [F=15.2 \ p>.05] \). This indicated that parental education has an influence on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. Therefore the null hypothesis \( (H_0) \) which stated that paternal educational attainment has no significant relationship on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected. In his famous Bobo doll experiment, Bandura (1977) demonstrated that children learn and imitate behaviours they have observed in other people. Naturally, adults are models from whom children learn from them. Hence, the behaviour that a boy exhibits is a reflection of the adults that he relates with. Role modelling of the appropriate behaviour by adults is therefore very key in helping children acquire pro-social behaviour. Thus, there is need to sensitize fathers on their important role in influencing the boy-child’s educational aspirations in addition to empowering them with appropriate skills and knowledge.

This results also supported Nord, Brimhall, and West (1997), Muola (2010) who in their research found that fathers with less than a high school education were much less likely to be involved in their children’s schoolwork than fathers with higher levels of education. They also argues that the educated father was likely to have a wider knowledge of school subjects by which the child would benefit. This could only happen if the educated parent had the time to help the child with schoolwork.
Also Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman (2006) confirmed that students have increased aspirations when their parents are more educated and have higher SES. This findings also supported Chenoweth and Galliher (2004), Patterson (2007), who posits that students with structural advantages and family economic status has often been identified to influence the decision of youth to enroll in higher education. This supported Ali and McWhirter (2006) that educational aspirations are positively associated with socioeconomic status (SES) and boys have increased aspirations when their parents are more educated. The paternal involvement was another home factor which was investigated in the study. The fathers did advice the boys on education matters and assist in doing homework. They were also concerned on school progress and motivation. There was a positive influence of paternal involvement \((r = .521)\) on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary school in Nakuru County. From the model, \((R^2 = .271)\) indicating that paternal involvement account for 27.1% variation in boy-child educational aspirations. The coefficients results showed that \(\beta_6 = 0.525\) (\(P < 0.05\)). The null hypothesis \((H_0:6)\) that there is no significant influence of paternal involvement on boy-child educational aspirations was rejected.

According to social learning theory, modeling is an important aspect in learning a behavior. Provision of guidance/counseling and modeling to the boys by their fathers is paramount. Guidance empowers an individual with skills to cope with life’s challenges. Children, for instance, would be helped to build their self-esteem which in turn would empower them to aspire in their educational endeavors. Children require constant guidance to ground them to the expected behavioural standards.

Today, there are different mediums through which children learn from. Therefore, fathers need to be sensitized on how to monitor and guide their children appropriately. They also need to be empowered in their important role in influencing the behavioural outcome of their children. They are, for instance, expected to provide a nurturing environment for their children so that they can be well adjusted. The findings
supported Binh (2012) who found out that parents who create a nurturing environment (responding to a child’s need for love, warmth and security) encourage their children to want to imitate their behaviour and thus behave in an altruistic way so that there is identification with them. The results also supported the findings of Ali & McWhirter (2006) Nord, Brimhall, & West (1997), Muola (2010), Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman (2006), Chenoweth & Galliher (2004) and Patterson (2007). They all in their various studies found a correlation between paternal involvement and boys’ educational aspirations.

5.6 CONCLUSION
Based on the discussion of the findings the following conclusions were made: It was revealed that gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender, teachers’ expectations and paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education significantly influence boys’ educational aspirations in secondary schools. In view of the finding of this study, the following conclusions have been drawn. The gender roles had an influence on boys’ educational aspirations which means that as the roles increases the educational aspirations decreases. The effect of school type on boys’ educational aspirations in secondary schools established in this study should inspire the stakeholders in government and all education policymakers to formulate strategies that may improve their aspirations.

The teachers’ gender and teachers’ expectations significantly influence boys’ educational aspirations in secondary schools. Teachers also rated boys very low in terms of social behavior and this may have an influence on boys’ educational aspirations. Teachers also treated boys differently from the girls and this may have affected the boys. The paternal educational attainment and paternal involvement in education significantly influenced boys’ educational aspirations. The boys’ educational aspiration was influenced by gender roles, school type, teachers’ gender,
teachers’ expectations, paternal involvement in education and paternal education attainment. Therefore, these variables are the predictors of boys’ educational aspirations. A home with fewer roles and school atmosphere where teachers are role models is likely to enhance the boys’ motivation to achieve academic success which in turn will contribute to their educational aspirations.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS
The literature review indicated clearly that the relationship between cultural, school and home and educational aspirations is stronger in both developed and developing countries. From the findings and conclusions the following recommendations are made:

1. Many parents may not be aware of the influence of gender roles on educational aspirations of their boys. It is recommended that teachers, educationists, and government policymakers should try to create awareness in parents on the cultural issues like gender roles that may affect educational aspirations of their boys.

2. Government of Kenya should consider converting progressively all the mixed schools in the country into single-sex schools this may enhance educational aspirations of the boys as it was evident in the study that educational aspirations among boys in mixed schools was considerably low compared to their counterparts in single-sex schools.

3. The researcher recommends that teachers especially males should be encouraged to act as role models to the boys and should treat all students in school equally irrespective of their gender. Teachers should also motivate and rate students equally without bias in term of social behavior.

4. It is necessary for teachers and school administrators to be empowered with the relevant knowledge and skills that would enhance their capacities to respond to
the gender issues in their schools. Such capacities would ensure good relationship between teachers and students at various levels. It is therefore important that issues of gender should be made compulsory in teacher training institutions.

5. Fathers also need to be informed that they can contribute to the education of their boys through provision of constant advice on education, encouragement, modelling and concern on school progress by checking school report forms and active assistance and motivation among other strategies. Fathers need to know their role in the education of their boys so that they do not put the blame entirely on other people when their boys do not excel well in school. However, precaution should be taken when it comes to involvement since unreasonably high demand and too much pressure made by some fathers on their boys’ choices of careers may destabilize them and thus may affect their educational aspirations. The researcher recommends that boys should have a bigger say in choosing their careers without much pressure from their fathers.
5.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There are important issues that this study was unable to address due to its scope. From the research findings and conclusions drawn, there are certain variables that the researcher felt needed some further investigations. In view of this, it is suggested that the following be considered for further research.

1. There is need for a similar designed study covering a larger area (Region) in Kenya to check whether or not the findings documented in this study can hold for a larger area in Kenyan secondary schools.

2. Further research can be undertaken to investigate the social constructs as a predictor of girls’ educational aspirations in Kenyan primary schools in a different County.

3. Research needs to be undertaken on the influence of parental educational aspirations on students’ educational aspirations in Kenyan primary schools.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I:

STUDENTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

MATTERS TO NOTE
Please read the instructions of each item carefully before giving the responses. The researcher would like to assure you that the information given will be strictly confidential and used only for research purposes.

SECTION A: PERSONAL DETAILS
In this section you are requested to provide personal information. Please respond to the items in this section by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate bracket or by filling in the spaces provided.
1. Your gender male ( ) Female ( )
2. School ..................................................

SECTION B: SOCIAL CONSTRUCTS ITEMS
Respond to items in this section by ticking in the appropriate bracket according to how you feel the statement applies to you.
   a) Strongly Agree (SA) - if you feel the statement strongly applies to you
   b) Agree (A) - if it does apply to you.
   c) Undecided (U) - if you are not sure if it applies to you or not.
   d) Disagree (D) - if it doesn’t apply to you
   e) Strongly disagree (SD) - if it doesn’t apply to you at all.

1. Boys’ Educational Aspirations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I really want to do well at school</td>
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<tr>
<td>A university degree would improve my chances of getting a job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I don’t think my results will be good enough to get me into any university courses that interest me</td>
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<tr>
<td>I’m definitely planning to enroll in a university course in future.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I will pursue higher education to the highest level possible</td>
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<tr>
<td>My father expects me to go to the university immediately I finish school</td>
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<tr>
<td>My friends do plan to join the university</td>
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2. Gender roles

<p>| | | | | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes stay at home to look after the cattle which is affecting my studies</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometime stay at home to go for kibarua to feed our family and look for school fees</td>
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<tr>
<td>I normally prefer to ride motorcycle (bodaboda) and get immediate money than to go school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I normally prefer going for sand harvesting or quarry than go to school</td>
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<tr>
<td>I normally look for casual job in sisal plantation than go to school</td>
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<tr>
<td>I better get married than continue with higher education</td>
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3. Teachers’ Gender

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are few male teachers in our school</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>D</td>
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<tr>
<td>My male teachers are my role models in school</td>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy being taught by my male teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am motivated by male teacher to aim higher in my studies</td>
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4. Teachers’ Expectations

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers treat girls differently compared to boys</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers rate boys low in social behavior compared to girls</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers do motivate girls most of the time in our class</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers motivates us to pursue higher education</td>
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</table>

5. School Type

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My school is not conducive for my studies hence may not make it to the university</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am discouraged when a girl outshines me in class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I don’t like studying in class with girls</td>
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<tr>
<td>If I was in a single-sex school I could excel in my studies and join the university</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
6. **Paternal educational attainment**
   i) What is your father’s highest completed level of education?
      a) No formal education _____________
      b) Primary _____________
      c) Secondary _____________
      d) Training College _____________
      e) University _____________
      f) I don’t know _____________

7. **Paternal involvement in education**
   i) a. Does your father give you advice about education?
         i) Yes _____________
         ii) No _____________
         Briefly explain__________________________________________________
   b. Does your father assist/help you in doing your homework?
      i) Yes _____________
      ii) No _____________
      Briefly explain__________________________________________________
   c. Does your father discuss your school progress with you?
      i) Yes _____________
      ii) No _____________
      Briefly explain__________________________________________________
   d. Does your father motivate you to try harder when you make a poor grade?
      i) Yes _____________
      ii) No _____________
      Briefly explain_______________________________________________

8. Name gender roles which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
   ………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………

9. Name home factors which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
   ………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………

10. Name school factors which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX II:
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

1. Do you think boy-child educational aspirations is deteriorating
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

2. Do you think girls are outshining boys in academic performance
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

3. Do you think lack of male teachers is affecting boys educational aspirations
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

4. Do you think the gender of teacher is affecting boys educational aspirations
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

5. Do you think boys are getting married early instead of pursuing education
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

6. Do you think boys are engaging in casual jobs (vibaruas) instead of coming to school
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

7. Male teachers are many in our school?
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________

8. Female teachers are many in our school?
   i) Yes ______________
   ii) No ______________
      Briefly explain_____________________________________
9. Who do you rate very low in terms social behavior
   i) Boys _____________
   ii) Girls _____________
   Briefly explain______________________________________

10. Boys get discourage when girls outshined them
    i) Yes _____________
    ii) No _____________
    Briefly explain______________________________________

11. Do you think paternal involvement in boys education is important to boys
    i) Yes _____________
    ii) No _____________
    Briefly explain______________________________________

12. Do you think paternal level of education boost boys education
    i) Yes _____________
    ii) No _____________
    Briefly explain______________________________________

13. Do you think co-educational schools boost boys education
    i) Yes _____________
    ii) No _____________
    Briefly explain______________________________________

14. Do you think single sex schools will boost boy-child education
    i) Yes _____________
    ii) No _____________
    Briefly explain______________________________________

15. Name gender roles which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
    ..............................................................................................................................
    ..............................................................................................................................

16. Name home factors which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
    ..............................................................................................................................
    ..............................................................................................................................

17. Name school factors which may affect boy-child educational aspirations
    ..............................................................................................................................
    ..............................................................................................................................
APPENDIX III:

MOI UNIVERSITY LETTER TO NACOSTI

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: 14th October, 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 KOSKEI KIPKOECH
    BENJAMIN – (EDU/D.PHIL.PGP/1002/14)

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

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

“Cultural, School and Home Influence on Boy-Child Educational Aspirations in secondary Schools in Nakuru County, Kenya.”

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

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

PROF. J. N. KINDIKI
DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
APPENDIX IV:
LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION FROM NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471, 2241340, 310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-310245, 318249
Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

Ref. No. NACOSTI/P/15/76834/8531

Date: 10th December, 2015

Benjamin Kipkoech Koskei
Moi University
P.O. Box 3900-30100
ELDORER.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Cultural, school and home influences on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools in Nakuru County, Kenya,” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Nakuru County for a period ending 10th December, 2016.

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

The County Director of Education
Nakuru County.
THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND
CO-ORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Telegrams: "DISTRICTER", Nakuru
Telephone: Nakuru 051-2212515
When replying please quote

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
NAKURU COUNTY
P.O. BOX 81
NAKURU

Ref. No.CC.SR.EDU 12/1/2 VOL.1/240

8th January, 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION – BENJAMIN KIPKOECH KOSKEI

The above named is a student at Moi University, he has been given permission to carry out research on “Cultural, school and home influences on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools in Nakuru County,” for the period ending 10th December, 2016.

Kindly give him the all necessary assistance to facilitate the success of his research.

C.W. NJOROGE
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
NAKURU COUNTY
APPENDIX VI:
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AUTHORIZATION LETTER

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
State Department of Education

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION – Bejamin Kipkoch Koskei

Reference is made to letter NACOSTI/P/15/76834/8531 dated 10th December, 2015.

Authority is hereby given to the above named to carry out research on “Cultural, school and home influences on boy-child educational aspirations in secondary schools in Nakuru County, Kenya” for a period ending 10th December, 2016.

Kindly accord him the necessary assistance.

MAURICE SAKA
For: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
NAKURU COUNTY.

C.C

MOI UNIVERSITY
ELDORET
APPENDIX VII:
RESEARCH PERMIT FROM NACOSTI

APPENDIX VIII:
A MAP OF NAKURU COUNTY
APPENDIX 1X:
A MAP OF KENYA

The arrows points to Nakuru County where research was conducted.