

**EFFECTS OF POVERTY ON PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN'S
ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF HURUMA
ESTATE NAIROBI, KENYA**

**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF BACHELOR OF
EDUCATION IN EARLY CHILDHOOD TO THE DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATION AND TECHNOLOGY,
UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
KIKUYU LIBRARY

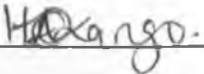
BY

OKANGO HELLEN ANYANGO

AUGUST, 2007

DECLARATION

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



Okango Hellen Anyango

This research project has been submitted for Examination with my approval as a University Supervisor.



DR. ORIGA

Lecturer department of Educational Communication and Technology,
University of Nairobi.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family members, my husband James Odongo, baby Phoebe, my mum Phoebe Okango, Carol, Rachael, Biko, Andrew and my in-laws.

AKNOWLEDGEMENT

I extend my most sincere thanks to the following people and institutions for their kind assistance and tolerance without which this study would not have been successful. My supervisor Dr. Origa for his guidance and professional advice and constructive criticism which kept me going to the end. I also want to thank the pre-school teachers and parents in Huruma Estate for providing me with the data for this study.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish effects of poverty on the academic performance of pre-school in Huruma Estate in Nairobi Province. Five research questions were formulated to guide in the study. The study employed descriptive survey research design while data was collected by use of questionnaires. Findings revealed that Parents were not able to provide their children with learning resources which affected their academic performance. It was also revealed that children who came from poor families provided children with a learning environment which is not conducive, affected their learning. The finding revealed that children were at times forced to be absent from schools to do other jobs at home such as looking after their siblings or do some jobs which affected their academic performance, it was also found out that parents economic standards were low that they were not able to support their children's' education which also affected their academic performance. It was also found that the living environment was not proper to support children's' education for example children did not have adequate space for homework. Based on the findings, it was concluded that family condition contributed by poverty affected children's academic performance. Based on the above findings it was recommended that there is need to support pre-schools by provision of the necessary needs which are not accessible by the parents. It was also recommended that there is need for government to make pre-school education free so as more children are able to access it. Based on the findings the research recommended that there is need to conduct a study on how economic activities of the parents contribute to academic performance of the children. Since this study was conducted in one area, there is need to conduct the same study in other areas.

TABLE OF CONTENT

Content	Page
Title Page	i
Declaration	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgement	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of Content	v
List of Tables	x

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0	Background to the study	1
1.2	Statement of the Problem.	3
1.3	Purpose of the Study	3
1.4	Research Objectives	3
1.5	Research Questions	4
1.6	Significance of the Study	4
1.7	Assumptions of the Study	5
1.8	'Limitations' of the Study	5

1.9	Delimitations of the Study	6
1.10	Organisation of the Study	6

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0	Introduction	7
2.1	Effects of Poverty on Pre-school education	8
2.2	Family poverty and academic achievement	9
2.3	Effect of poverty on Children's Cognitive Abilities	11
2.4	Effects of Poverty on School Achievement Outcomes	13
2.5	Home Environment on academic achievement	14
2.6	Review of previous studies	15

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0	Introduction	18
3.1	Research design	18
3.2	Target population	18
3.3	Sample and sampling techniques	19
3.4	Research instruments	19

3.4.1	Instrument validity	20
3.4.2	Instrument reliability	21
3.5	Data collection procedure	21

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATIONS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0	Introduction	22
4.1	Data analysis techniques	22
4.2	Demographic information of respondents	22
4.2.1	Demographic information of Parents	22
4.2.2	Demographic information of teachers	24
4.3	Effect of family poverty on academic performance	27
4.3.1	Availability of learning materials	27
4.3.2	Economic background of the family and its effect on children academic performance	31
4.3.3	Home background and its effect on academic performance	33

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0	Introduction	35
5.1	Summary	35
5.2	Conclusions	36
5.3	Recommendations	37
5.4	Suggestions for further research	37
BIBLIOGRAPHY		38
APPENDICES		41
Appendix I: Questionnaire for the Teachers		41
Appendix II: Questionnaire for the Parents		45

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Age of respondents	23
Table 2 Gender of parents	23
Table 3 Occupation of the parents	24
Table 4 Age of teachers	25
Table 5 Academic qualification of teachers	25
Table 6 Duration at the present pre-school	26
Table 7 Number of children in the pre-schools	27
Table 8 Whether children always had the required materials	28
Table 9 Family poverty factors affecting children's' academic performance	30
Table 10 Causes of absenteeism of children	30
Table 11 Kind of housing	32
Table 12 Home environment reasons	33
Table 12 Reasons for poor performance of children	34

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the study

Education in the second half of the twentieth century has been characterized by increases in the provision of educational programs for preschool-age children. The world community that assembled in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 for the 10th anniversary of Education for All (EFA) reaffirmed its commitment to early childhood care and education, whose development was set as the first of the six Dakar EFA goals. Yet, in most developing countries, early childhood care and education has not been part of public policy, and governments have limited capacity for developing policies and systems for it.

In Kenya, the ministry of education mandate has been expanded to cater for the early care, development and education needs of young children. Awareness has been raised with regard to the importance of an integrated approach to the holistic development of the child. Yet gaps appear in practice. Services for children under three are not well developed, and the activities of ECD Centres focus heavily on teaching young children basic learning skills. Many stakeholders still view ECD as “early schooling”. Parenting education could be a good strategy for enhancing the care and education of younger children, and training is needed for ECD teachers.

Schweinhart (1985) points out that one-fourth of all children under the age of six are living in poverty, and that three-fifths of the mothers of three- and four-year-old children

now work outside the home. However, fewer than 20 percent of the nation's three and four-year-olds from poor families are currently enrolled in early childhood programmes. Kindergarten enrollment has also increased dramatically in recent years. While only seven states mandate kindergarten attendance, about 95 percent of all children currently attend kindergarten (Sava, 1987), and 23 percent of these attend full-day programs (Karweit, 1988).

Intergenerational poverty refers to the poverty induced by the socially/economically challenged background of a person's parents. Poverty threatens a wide range of child development, most critically school achievement and other academic-related behavior. In a study conducted in America it was found out that family poverty decreases IQ, verbal ability, and achievement scores of children from two to eight years old (Smith, Brooks-Gunn, & Klebanov, 1997) and that lower-income middle-school students scored lower on basic academic skills than higher-income students (Farkas, 1996). The Ontario Child Health Study in Canada found that welfare children had lower school performance than non-welfare students (Offord, Boyle, & Jones, 1987).

Children growing up in low-income households tend to have a higher chance of being deprived of access to services and opportunities including education. While material well-being cannot guarantee soundness in development, the lack of it could be detrimental to a child/youth's wholesome development. Therefore, basic needs considered to be essential/important to a balanced development have been provided for through various policies (Offord, Boyle, & Jones, 1987).

The harmful effect of family poverty is accentuated by neighborhoods with a concentration of low-income families (Sampson & Morenoff, 1997; Wilson, 1987). Neighborhood poverty exacerbated the effect of individual poverty through “collective socialization” (Jencks & Mayer, 1990; Wilson, 1987). Persistent unemployment in the neighborhood may provide models of joblessness as normative (Wilson, 1995) and reduce children’s motivation for school achievement (Albee & Gullotta, 1997).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Research indeed has found children living in poor background including the family have lower occupational and educational aspirations than counterparts living in affluent circumstances (Cook, Church, Ajanaku, Shadish, Kim, & Cohen, 1996). Schools in low-income neighborhoods will have a concentration of children in poverty who run the risk of having a lower level of school achievement and motivation for achievement (Wade, 1992). For example, the inability to read is correlated with a number of social problems that plague society’s children, such as poverty (Madden et al., 1993). Poverty therefore impedes children’s literacy and academic performance. Huruma estate of Nairobi is one of the areas inhabited by low income earners. The area is regarded as poor hence the economic activities of the parents do not earn them a lot. This must have some effect of the children of their children. This study therefore aimed at identifying effects of poverty on pre-school children academic performance.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to establish effects of poverty on the academic performance of pre-school in Huruma Estate in Nairobi Province.

1.4 Research Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. establish factors that contribute to low academic performance among pre-school children;
2. determine the extent to which parental income affect children's' participation in preschool education,
3. find out how home related factors affect children's academic performance;
4. determine pre-school factors that contribute to poor academic performance among the pre-school children;
5. establish how availability or teaching learning resources contribute to pre-school academic performance.

1.5 Research Questions

1. What factors contribute to low academic performance among pre-school children?
2. To what extent do parental income affect children's' participation in preschool education?
3. How do home related factors affect children's academic performance of pre-school children?
4. What pre-school factors contribute to poor pre-school academic performance?

5. How do teaching learning resources contribute to pre-school academic performance?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study significant to a number of sectors. The study is aimed at highlighting the effects of poverty on early childhood education. The findings will be important to policy in revising the policies on early childhood education. For example, the current Education and Training Act does not include ECD; the only policy framework that directs the MOEs provision of ECD is the Partnership Policy, first stipulated in the Sessional Paper No. 6 of 1988 and the National Development Plan of 1989/1993. The study will provide useful information the different organisations that work with early childhood education in finding ways of providing this education by first of all considering home poverty. The findings will be important to the government on its policy on early childhood and show the importance of being affirmatively pro-poor in the early childhood education.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumed that poverty affects pre-school academic achievement, the study also assumed that there are home based factors that affect children's performance.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of the study was that, the study was limited itself to only one area in Nairobi Province. The results of the study cannot be generalized because this was a case study.

1.9 Delimitations of the Study

The study was carried out in Huruma area of Nairobi Province. It is one of the estates that make only a proportion of Nairobi Province. The area is considered as one of the poor estates in Nairobi, this may not give a picture of the whole Nairobi and so findings will be generalized to other areas with caution.

1.10 Organisation of the Study

The report is organised in five Chapters. Chapter one of this study presented the background to the problem, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations, limitations, assumption of the study and definition of terms. The literature review was presented in chapter two. Chapter three highlights on the research methodology which included the research design, target population, sampling procedure and sample size, Instrumentation, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Data analysis and interpretation will be presented in chapter four while conclusion and recommendations from the study were presented in chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Education is a fundamental right of every person, a key to other human rights; the heart of all developments; the prerequisite for equity, diversity and lasting peace. (World Education Forum Education for all: All for Education, A Framework for Action, Dakar, April 2000). Education occupies a central place in Human Rights and is essential and indispensable for the exercise of all other human rights and for development. Article 26 of the United Nation's 1984 Universal Declaration on Human Rights, states that "everyone has the right to education." Article 28 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, (UNCRC), 1989 sets out the right to education to which every child is entitled. Article 29 of the Convention also attaches importance to the process by which the right to education is to be promoted (United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989).

Article 28 Convention on the Rights of the Child (U.N. General Assembly Document A/RES/44/25 (12 December 1989) states that parties should recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

- (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
- (b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child,

and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;

2.1 Effects of Poverty on Pre-school education

Despite the many declaration on education of children, majority of children are still out of school. Poverty has been one of the factors that has caused the above phenomena. One of the most pernicious aspects of poverty is that it is self-reinforcing. For example, it at once magnifies the power of educational success as a means of social mobility and interferes with the probability of such success occurring. Because poor children have lower rates of achievement in the core curricula of the educational system, they are less able to obtain the high-status academic credentials that have become necessary for securing well-paying, stable jobs in the modern American economy and, therefore, are more likely to face economic hardships as adults (Duncan et al., 1998; Mayer, 1997).

Notwithstanding the large body of research in the US on the effect of poverty on children, Canadian data are sparse. Systematic intervention to address the low reading levels of children in poverty or low-income homes is especially rare in Canada (Mayer, 1997). In a study "Poverty and Achievement" (1993), a supplementary reading program was delivered to young children living in low-income homes. The study asked: what is the effect of the intervention on children's reading skills? The study hypothesized that the intervention resulted in higher levels of reading skills (Mayer, 1997).

Children from poor families begin elementary school with lower levels of achievement in core curricula than their peers from more affluent backgrounds and, from this lower starting point, post fewer gains in learning over the following three years. Thus, they

enter school at a disadvantage that widened over time, a vivid example of cumulative disadvantage. For the most part, the cumulative risks to early learning posed by family poverty are a function of concomitant family characteristics, especially the tendency for poor parents to be less educated than other parents (Mayer, 1997).

2.2 Family poverty and academic achievement

Although hundreds of studies have documented the association between family poverty and children's health, achievement, and behavior, few measure the effects of the timing, depth, and duration of poverty on children, and many fail to adjust for other family characteristics (for example, female headship, mother's age, and schooling) that may account for much of the observed correlation between poverty and child outcomes. Family income appears to be more strongly related to children's ability and achievement than to their emotional outcomes (Garret 1994).

Children who live in extreme poverty or who live below the poverty line for multiple years appear, all other things being equal, to suffer the worst outcomes. The timing of poverty also seems to be important for certain child outcomes. Children who experience poverty during their preschool and early school years have lower rates of school completion than children and adolescents who experience poverty only in later years. Although more research is needed on the significance of the timing of poverty on child outcomes, findings to date suggest that interventions during early childhood may be most important in reducing poverty's impact on children (Garret 1994)..

Poverty-related family processes tend to reduce the flow of school-specific information and instrumental support to poor children, school environments that actively engage

children in their education and that tap them into valuable information channels (e.g., parental outreach) will likely make more of a difference for poor children's learning than their peers (Coleman, 1990). Third, poor families are less able to provide many of the material and practical resources that promote school readiness, such as health care, learning tools, and information technology. Consequently, classes and schools that have more services and materials (e.g., health services, classroom computers) will fill a void in poor children's lives that allows them to make up ground (Coleman, 1990; Millstein, 1988).

Family poverty also predicted math and reading achievement in third grade, net of first grade achievement (as well as the control variables). Again, these associations were attenuated but not eliminated by the inclusion of the other family socioeconomic characteristics. To examine the degree to which these poverty risks were channeled through family dynamics, we added the full set of family process variables. Of these, parent depression, parental divorce, reading activities, and parental involvement in education predicted math and reading achievement in first grade, net of the sociodemographic characteristics, school structural characteristics, family socioeconomic characteristics, and family poverty (Garret 1994)..

Parent poverty predicted math and reading achievement in third grade even when first grade achievement was controlled. Furthermore, the inclusion of these family process variables attenuated the family poverty coefficients in all models by as much as 50%. Overall, the school factors were less predictive of achievement than the family process variables, and they did not attenuate the poverty-achievement associations in any model

by more than 10%. Of the school factors, teaching strategies and student body composition provided the most additive value to the achievement models and did the most to account for the achievement risks of family poverty. Poverty has adverse effect on the holistic development of the child. Poor children suffer higher incidences of adverse health, developmental, and other outcomes than non-poor children. This has positive influence on their academic performance (McLoyd, 1990).

2.3 Effect of poverty on Children's Cognitive Abilities

Children living below the poverty threshold are 1.3 times as likely as non-poor children to experience learning disabilities and developmental delays. Reliable measures of cognitive ability and school achievement, for young children in the Children of the NLSY and IHDP data sets have been used in a number of studies to examine the relationship between cognitive ability and poverty in detail (Conger, 1994).

A recent study using data from the Children of the NLSY and the IHDP compared children in families with incomes less than half of the poverty threshold to children in families with incomes between 1.5 and twice the poverty threshold. The poorer children scored between 6 and 13 points lower on various standardized tests of IQ, verbal ability, and achievement. These differences are very large from an educational perspective and were present even after controlling for maternal age, marital status, education, and ethnicity (Magnuson, 1990).

Children in families with incomes closer to, but still below, the poverty line also did worse than children in higher-income families, but the differences were smaller. The smallest differences appeared for the earliest (age two) measure of cognitive ability;

however, the sizes of the effects were similar for children from three to eight. These findings suggest that the effects of poverty on children's cognitive development occur early. The study also found that duration of poverty was an important factor in the lower scores of poor children on measures of cognitive ability. Children who lived in persistently poor families (defined in this study as poor over a four-year span) had scores on the various assessments six to nine points lower than children who were never poor. Another analysis of the NLSY that controlled for a number of important maternal and child health characteristics showed that the effects of long-term poverty (based on family income averaged over 13 years prior to testing of the child) on measures of children's cognitive ability were significantly greater than the effects of short-term poverty (measured by income in the year of observation). A few studies link long-term family income to cognitive ability and achievement measured during the school years (Magnuson, 1990).

Research on children's test scores at ages seven and eight found that the effects of income on these scores were similar in size to those reported for three-year-olds. But research relating family income measured during adolescence on cognitive ability finds relatively smaller effects. As summarized in the next section, these modest effects of income on cognitive ability are consistent with literature showing modest effects of income on schooling attainment, but both sets of studies may be biased by the fact that their measurement of parental income is restricted to the child's adolescent years. It is not yet possible to make conclusive statements regarding the size of the effects of poverty on children's long-term cognitive development (Graber, 1996).

2.4 Effects of Poverty on School Achievement Outcomes

Educational attainment is well recognized as a powerful predictor of experiences in later life. A comprehensive review of the relationship between parental income and school attainment, concluded that poverty limited school achievement but that the effect of income on the number of school years completed was small. In general, the studies suggested that a 10% increase in family income is associated with a 0.2% to 2% increase in the number of school years completed. Several more recent studies using different longitudinal data sets (the PSID, the NLSY, and Children of the NLSY) also find that poverty status has a small negative impact on high school graduation and years of schooling obtained (Magnuson, 1990).

Much of the observed relationship between income and schooling appears to be related to a number of confounding factors such as parental education, family structure, and neighborhood characteristics. Some of these studies suggest that the components of income and the way income is measured (number of years in poverty versus annual family income or the ratio of income to the poverty threshold) may lead to somewhat different conclusions. But all the studies suggest that, after controlling for many appropriate confounding variables, the effects of poverty per se on school achievement are likely to be statistically significant, yet small. Based on the results of one study, the authors estimated that, if poverty were eliminated for all children, mean years of schooling for all children would increase by only 0.3% (less than half a month) (Magnuson, 1990)..

A recent study that attempted to evaluate how the timing of income might affect completed schooling found that family income averaged from birth to age 5 had a much more powerful effect on the number of school years a child completes than does family income measured either between ages 5 and 10 or between ages 11 and 15.⁷ For low-income children, a \$10,000 increase in mean family income between birth and age 5 was associated with nearly a full-year increase in completed schooling. Similar increments to family income later in childhood had no significant impact, suggesting that income may indeed be an important determinant of completed schooling but that only income during the early childhood years matters (Gutman, 1999).

2.5 Home Environment on academic achievement

Physical condition of the home account for a substantial portion of the effects of family income on cognitive outcomes in young children. Some large longitudinal data sets use the HOME scale as a measure of the home environment. The home scale is made up of items that measure household resources, such as reading materials and toys, and parental practices, such as discipline methods (Bradley, 1995).

The HOME scale has been shown to be correlated with family income and poverty, with higher levels of income associated with improved home environments as measured by the scale.^{7,40} Several studies have found that differences in the home environment of higher and lower-income children, as measured by the HOME scale, account for a substantial portion of the effect of income on the cognitive development of preschool children and on the achievement scores of elementary school children.^{6,26,37} In one study, differences in the home environment also seemed to account for some of the

effects of poverty status on behavioral problems. In addition, the provisions of learning experiences in the home (measured by specific subscales of the HOME scale) have been shown to account for up to half of the effect of poverty status on the IQ scores of five-year-olds (Bradley, 1995).

2.6 Review of previous studies

In recent years, about one in five American children—some 12 to 14 million —have lived in families in which cash income failed to exceed official poverty thresholds. Another one-fifth lived in families whose incomes were no more than twice the poverty threshold. For a small minority of children—4.8% of all children and 15% of children who ever became poor—childhood poverty lasted 10 years or more. Income poverty is the condition of not having enough income to meet basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter. Because children are dependent on others, they enter or avoid poverty by virtue of their family's economic circumstances. Children cannot alter family conditions by themselves, at least until they approach adulthood (Lee and Burkham, 2002)

Government programs, such as those described by Devaney, Ellwood, and Love in this journal issue, have been developed to increase the likelihood that poor children are provided with basic necessities. But even with these programs, poor children do not fare as well as those whose families are not poor. Hundreds of studies, books, and reports have examined the detrimental effects of poverty on the well-being of children. Many have been summarized in recent reports such as *Wasting America's Future* from the Children's Defense Fund and *Alive and Well?* from the National Center for Children in Poverty (McLoyd, 1990).

However, while the literature on the effects of poverty on children is large, many studies lack the precision necessary to allow researchers to disentangle the effects on children of the array of factors associated with poverty. Understanding of these relationships is key to designing effective policies to ameliorate these problems for children. This article examines these relationships and the consequences for children of growing up poor. It begins with a long, but by no means exhaustive, list of child outcomes that have been found to be associated with poverty in several large, nationally representative, cross-sectional surveys. This list makes clear the broad range of effects poverty can have on children (Lee, & Burkham, 2002).

It does little, however, to inform the discussion of the causal effects of income poverty on children because the studies from which this list is derived did not control for other variables associated with poverty. For example, poor families are more likely to be headed by a parent who is single, has low educational attainment, is unemployed, has low earning potential, and is young. These parental attributes, separately or in combination, might account for some of the observed negative consequences of poverty on children. Nor do the relationships identified in the table capture the critical factors of the timing, depth, and duration of childhood poverty on children (Gutman, & Eccles, 1999).

Many used data on family income over several years and at different stages of development to estimate the differential effects of the timing and duration of poverty on child outcomes. The data sets analyzed include the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY). Children of the NLSY (the

follow-up of the children born to the women in the original NLSY cohort), the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH), the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), and the Infant Health and Development Program (IHDP). These rich data sets include multiple measures of child outcomes and family and child characteristics. This article is divided into four sections. The first focuses on the consequences of poverty across five child outcomes. If income does, in fact, affect child outcomes, then it is important not only to identify these outcomes but also to describe the pathways through which income operates (Duncan, and Rodgers, 1988).

A British study found that young children, aged four to eight years, from low socio-economic status families (SES) were behind children from higher SES in letter knowledge and other foundation literacy skills (Duncan & Seymour, 2000). Even as early as 48 months of age, many children from low SES showed lower levels of literacy concepts than their middle SES counterparts (Smith & Dixon, 1995). Poverty has been especially found to impair reading comprehension (Battistich, Solomon, Kim, Watson, & Schaps, 1995).

Intervention has been provided for children in economically disadvantaged homes centering on reading competence. In Canada, a reading program, "Success for All" was applied to "high poverty" elementary school students (Chambers, Abrami, & Morrison, 1998). By providing regular 90-minute tutoring of reading for students with reading difficulty, the program improved literacy skills. This program, however, targeted only on students with reading difficulty. Yet, as children from low-income homes in general require reading proficiency, all of them require enriched reading support. Success for All

also required extensive training, which is often not possible in school today. A practical reading program for young children in low-income homes, which is easy to administer, is yet to be developed and tested. However, teachers often lack the time to provide extra reading to children (Magnuson, Meyers, Ruhm, & Waldfogel, 2004).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focused on the research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, research instrument and data collection procedures.

3.1 Research design

Research design refers to the procedures used by the researcher to explore the relationship between variables, form subjects into groups, administer measures, apply treatment to the groups and analyse the data. Borg (1996) postulates that a research design is a logical and valuable way of looking at the world. Ogula (1995) says research design provides a framework for planning and conducting a research. Kathuri (1993) describes a research design as a plan or strategy for conducting research. For the purpose of this study, descriptive survey research design will be used. According to Gay (1981) descriptive survey design is used on preliminary and exploratory studies to allow the researcher to gather information, summarize, present and interpret for the purpose of clarification.

3.2 Target population

Borg and Gall (1989) defines population as all the members of a real or hypothetical set of people, event or objects to which a researcher wishes to generalize the results of the study. Population is defined as any group of people or observation, or test in which we

happen to be interested. (Nisbet and Entwistle 1967). The target population for this study all the pre-school centres in Huruma. The study solicited data from the teachers and parents from the centres.

3.3 Sample and sampling techniques

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defines sample as a small group obtained from the accessible population. Each member in a sample is referred to as a participant. Sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represent the large group from which they were selected. According to Ferguson and George (1981) a sample is any group sub aggregate drawn by appropriate method from population. Stratified sampling was used selected schools. There are about 18 pre-school centres in Huruma estate. The research used non-proportional sampling As Trochim (2001) says, in non-proportional sampling, the researcher specifies the minimum number of sampled units one wants in each category. The sample for the study consisted of 12 teachers and 25 parents. All teachers were selected from the centres. Some centres had one teacher and others had more than one teacher.

3.4 Research instruments

The research instrument to be employed in the study was structured questionnaire. According to Nkapa (1997), a questionnaire is a carefully designed instruments for collecting data in accordance with the specification of the research questions. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999:71) note that "Questionnaires are commonly used to obtain important information about the population. Each item in the question is developed to

address a specific research question of the study”. The questionnaires had two sections. Section 1 was on the background information of the respondents and section 2 was on effect of poverty on children’s academic performance.

3.5 Data collection procedure

The researcher paid a visit to each pre-school to discussed with the administration on the purpose of the study. She then made arrangements on the most suitable days, time and procedure to be followed in conducting the study in the school. The teachers were given questionnaires to fill while children were given the questionnaires to take to the literate parents who brought them back upon completion. The research also visited some of the illiterate parents and conducted interview.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATIONS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on data analysis based, the demographic information of the respondents, presentations, interpretation and discussions of findings. The presentations were done based on the research questions.

4.1 Data analysis techniques

Kerlinger (1986) defines data analysis as categorizing, manipulating and summing of data in order to obtain answers to research questions. Data from the questionnaires was first coded and entered in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software for windows programme to enable analysis. Data was presented in form of Table, frequencies and percentages obtained were used to answer the research questions.

4.2 Demographic information of respondents

4.2.1 Demographic information of Parents

Demographic information of the respondents was based on their age, gender and occupation. To establish the age of the parents they were asked to indicate the same. The data is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Age of respondents

Age in years	Frequency	Percent
25 - 30 years	7	28.0
36 - 40 years	8	32.0
41 - 45 years	10	40.0
Total	25	100.0

Data from table one shows that 7 (28%) parents were aged between the age of 25 and 30 years, 10 were (40%) were aged between the age of 41 and 45 years, while 8 (32%) were aged between 36 and 40 years. This shows that most of the parents were aged between 41 and 45 years. This is the age where most parents still have their children in schools and therefore could give valid information concerning the education of children. The parents were further asked to indicate their gender. Their responses are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Gender of parents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	8	32.0
Female	17	68.0
Total	25	100.0

Data showed that 17 (68%) were female while 8 (32%) were male. The parents were also asked to indicate their occupation. Their responses are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 Occupation of the parents

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Business	4	16.0
Hawker	10	40.0
Jobless	4	16.0
House wife	7	28.0
Total	25	100.0

Data in the occupation of the parents showed that 4 (16%) were business people, 10 (40%) were hawkers, 4 (16%) were jobless and 7 (28%) were housewives. The fact that most of the respondents were hawkers in line with the area of study where most people are not employed. These people do not have lot of resources to support their families.

4.2.2 Demographic information of teachers

Demographic information of teachers was based on their gender, age, professional and academic qualification, the year of establishment of the pre school, the sponsor of the pre-school and the number of pupils in the pre-school. Data on their gender showed that majority of the respondents 10 (83.3%) were female while 2 (16.7%) were male. This could be attributed to the fact that most of the people who apply for teaching in pre-schools are female. They were also asked to indicate their age. Their responses are presented in Table 4.

Table 4 Age of teachers

Age in years	Frequency	Percent
26 - 30 years	2	16.7
31 - 35 years	8	66.7
36 - 40 years	2	16.7
Total	12	100.0

Data from Table 4 showed that 2 (16.7%) were aged between 26 and 30 years, 8 (66.7%) were aged between 31 and 35 years and 2 (16.7%) were aged between 36 and 40 years. This shows that most of the teachers in the pre schools were relatively young. They were also to indicate their professional qualifications. Data revealed that 7 (58.3%) were form four leavers, 5 (41.7%) had a certificate in early childhood education. This shows that most of teachers were not trained in early childhood education. Academic qualification of the teachers in presented in Table 5.

Table 5 Academic qualification of teachers

Academic qualification	Frequency	Percent
KCSE	7	58.3
ECD certificate	3	25.0
KCPE	2	16.7
Total	12	100.0

Findings showed that 7 (58.3%) were holders of KCSE, 3 (25%) had a certificate in early childhood education while 2 were KCPE holders. This shows that most of the pre

schools have untrained teachers in the early childhood. It is assumed that student who have passed class 8 are able to teach at the preschools this however is at the disadvantage of the children. Findings on the sponsor of the pre-school revealed that 4 (33.3%) were sponsored by the community , 5 (41.7%) by the church and 3 (25%) were sponsored by the NGO.

The teachers were also asked to indicate for how long they had been in the current station. Data as presented in Table 6 showed that 4 (33.3%) had been in the school for a duration of between 1 and 5 years, 6 (50%) had been in the pre-school for a duration of between 6 and 10 years and 2 (16.7%) had been in the pre-school for a duration of between 16 and 20 years. This shows that most of the teachers had been in the schools for a good number of years and are able to give valid information on how poverty of the family affects academic performance of the children. The above findings are presented in table 6.

Table 6 Duration at the present pre-school

Duration	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	4	33.3
6-10 years	6	50.0
16 - 20 years	2	16.7
Total	12	100.0

The teachers were asked to indicate how many pupils they had in their pre-schools The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 Number of children in the pre-schools

Number of children	Frequency	Percent
26 - 50 pupils	4	33.3
51- 75 pupils	2	16.7
76 - 100 pupils	3	25.0
1- 25 pupils	3	25.0
Total	12	100.0

Findings revealed that 4 (33.3%) said they had between 26 and 50 children, 2 (16.7%) had between 51 and 75 children, 3 (25%) had between 76 and 100 children and the same number of teachers said they had between 1 and 25 children. This shows that most of the pre-schools had many children which presents the area of the study which is dominated by slums which usually had many children.

4.3 Effect of family poverty on academic performance

4.3.1 Availability of learning materials

To find out how family poverty affected the academic performance of pre-school pupils, the teachers were asked to indicate the type of family that the children were from. The findings indicated that 2 (16.7%) came from rich family, 6 (50%) from poor family and 4 (33.3%) from average family. This shows that most of the children were from poor family which represents the area of study which is an area of low income people. The teachers were also asked to indicate they provided learning for the children such as

books pens, and so on. Data showed that Only 2 (16.7%) said they provided while the rest 10 (83.3%) said they did not provide which suggests that parents were supposed to provide for the materials.

Teachers further said that parents were supposed to provide for the needs of the children. A number of parents respondents, 21 (84.%) said the they were supposed to provide for the needs of the children. When asked whether they were able to provide for the children needs, 18 (72%) said they were not able to provide for the needs while 7 (28%) said they were not able to provide for the needs of the children. Teachers when asked whether the children had the required materials all of them (100%) said they did not have. This was supported by the findings of the teachers who were asked to indicate whether the children had the learning materials that they were supposed to have as presented in Table 8.

Table 8 Whether children always had the required materials

Whether children had the required materials	Frequency	Percent
Yes	2	16.7
No	8	66.7
Sometimes yes sometimes no	2	16.7
Total	12	100.0

Data showed that 2 (16.7%) said the children had the required materials while 8 (66.7%) said they did not have and 2 (16.7%) said sometimes the children had them and other

times they did not have. Teachers also confirmed that the parents were not able to provide for the needs of the children. This confirms the previous findings that parents were not able to provide for the needs of the children which had a direct relationship with their academic performance.

The parents were further asked to state whether there were times when they were not able to provide for the needs. In this item 21 (84%) said yes while the rest said no. Lack of provision of materials has a direct relationship with pupils performance. In this study it was found that schools did not provide for the learning materials for the children and on the other hand parents were not able to provide the same. This shows that children could not get learning materials which contributed to poor academic performance.

Teachers were also asked to indicate whether family poverty affected children's' academic performance. All of them (100%) said yes. This shows that family poverty was a contributing factor to children academic performance. They were also asked to indicate some of the factors that contributed to poor performance of children. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 Family poverty factors affecting children's' academic performance

Factors	Frequency	Percent
Single parents	2	16.7
Alcohol brewing	4	33.3
Lack of basic needs	3	25.0
Slum environment	3	25.0
Total	12	100.0

Teachers said that some of the family poverty factors that affected performance of children in schools were single parenthood as presented by 2 (16.7%), alcohol brewing as indicated by 4 (33.3%), lack of basic needs as indicated by 3 (25%) and slum environment as indicated by 3 (25%) of the respondents. The teachers were also asked to indicate whether they experienced the problem of absenteeism. In this statement, 10 (83.3%) said yes while 2 (16.7%) said not very often. This shows that children were frequently missing out classes which can be a factor leading to poor performance. Asked to indicate the reasons for absenteeism, they responded as presented in table 10.

Table 10 Causes of absenteeism of children

Causes	Frequency	Percent
Lack of uniform	2	16.7
Children look after their siblings	5	41.7
Lack of food	5	41.7
Total	12	100.0

Teachers responded that children failed to attend school because of lack of uniform as presented by 2(16.7%) of teachers, another factor was alcohol brewing as indicated by 5(41.7%) of the teachers and lack food as indicate by 5 (41.,7%) of the respondents.

Teachers were also asked to indicate the activities that children performed at home. Data showed that children performance duties such as babysitting, house hold chores, being sent to sell some items by the street sides. Parents were also asked to indicate whether their children had clothing to go to school. Seven (28%) said yes while 18 (72%) said no.

4.3.2 Economic background of the family and its effect on children academic performance

Teachers were also asked to indicate whether the economic background of the children had an effect on the children education to which all the teacher respondents said it did. They said that factors such as lack of basics, lack of food, lack of sleep due to family involvement in alcohol selling were factors that affected children education. In an exclusive interview, the research found out that most of the children were from families that were involved in selling alcohol, at times children were involved in the selling itself and at times parents sold alcohol even to late night and children could not sleep which affected their class concentration.

Parents were asked to indicate how many children they had. Their responses indicated that 7 (28%) said they had 3 children, 4 (16%) had 2 children, 10 (40%) said they had 4 children and 4 (16.7%) said they had 1 child. This shows that majority of the parents had

many children. The number of children in a family has a relationship with how the parents are able to take care of the children. The findings show that parents had many children and then they also reported that they were not able to take care of them by providing for their school needs.

The parents were asked to indicate the economic activities of the people around the school. Their findings revealed that they were involved in small scale business such as selling vegetables, clothes and selling foodstuffs.

4.3.3 Home background and its effect on academic performance

In order to find out how the home background affected the children's' education the parents were asked to indicate what kind of housing they had. Their findings are presented in table 11.

Table 11 Kind of housing

Kind of housing	Frequency	Percent
Slum	7	28.0
Very small	8	32.0
Shared room	6	24.0
Good	4	16.0
Total	25	100.0

Data revealed that 7 (28%) said they were living in slum areas, 8 (32%) said they had very small houses, 6 (24%) said they shared a small room and 4 (16%) said they had

good housing. They were further asked to indicate whether children were able to study well while at home. 18 (72%) said yes while 7 (28%) said no. This shows children were not able to study at home. Data revealed that 7 (28%) said yes while 18 (72%) said no. This shows that the kind of housing contributed to children not being able to study while at home. Parents further said that the home environment affected children's' education. Some home environment factors that contributed to children not be able to study at home are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 Home environment reasons

Home Factors	Frequency	Percent
Lack of food	7	28.0
Lack of enough room	4	16.0
Noise from slum	10	40.0
Parents selling alcohol at night	4	16.0
Total	25	100.0

Parents responded that home background factors that made children not study well included. Lack of food (28%) lack of space (16%) noise in the slum (40%) and parents selling alcohol at night which was represented by 16%) of the parents. The parents were also asked to indicate what cased the children not to perform well. Their findings are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 Reasons for poor performance of children

Reasons for poor performance	Frequency	Percent
No basic needs	7	28.0
No materials	8	32.0
No father	6	24.0
Absenteeism	4	16.0
Total	25	100.0

Data revealed that reasons for poor performance of children were lack of basic needs, lack of learning materials, single motherhood and school absenteeism. Parents also revealed that children performed other activities at home which hindered their studies, they were at times not able to provide for the family, there were times when children were not able to go to school due to poverty.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to establish effects of poverty on the academic performance of pre-school in Huruma Estate in Nairobi Province. Five research questions were formulated to guide in the study. Research question one aimed at establishing factors that contribute to low academic performance among pre-school children; research question two sought to determine the extent to which parental income affect children's' participation in preschool education, research question three aimed at finding out how home related factors affect children's' academic performance; research question four sought to determine the pre-school factors that contribute poor academic performance among the pre-school children and research question five sought to establish how availability or teaching learning resources contribute to pre-school academic performance.

The study employed descriptive survey research design. Findings revealed that:

- Parents were not able to provide their children with learning resources which affected their academic performance;
- Children came from poor families which provided children with uncondusive learning environment which affected their learning,
- Chilren were at times forced to be absent from schools to do other jobs at home such as looking after their siblings or do some jobs which affected their academic performance
- Parents economic standards were low that they were not able to support their children's' education which also affected their academic performance.
- The living environment was not proper to support children's' education for example children did not have adequate space for homework.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the findings, it was concluded that Parents were not able to provide their children with learning resources which affected their academic performance. Family poverty had an impact on children's academic performance. It was also concluded that family condition contributed by poverty affected children's academic performance. It was therefore concluded that poverty of the family had an effect on children's' academic performance in the pre-schools.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above findings it was recommended that there is need to support pre-schools by provision of the necessary needs which are not accessible by the parents. It was also recommended that there is need for government to make pre-school education free so as more children are able to access it.

5.4 Suggestions for further research

Based on the findings the research recommended that there is need to conduct a study on how economic activities of the parents contribute to academic performance of the children. Since this study was conducted in one area, there is need to conduct the same study in other areas.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, K. & Entwisle, D. (1988). Achievement in the first two years of school: Patterns and processes. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Best, John, W. and Kahn, J.V. (1998). Research in Education. 8th Edition. Boston: Allan Baston
- Borg, W. R., and Gall, M. D., (1989): Educational Research: An Introduction. (5th ed) New York: Longman.
- Bradley, R.H. (1995). Home environment and parenting. In *Handbook of parenting*. M. Bornstein, ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum,
- Bronson, M.B.; Pierson, D.E.; and Tivnan, T. "The Effects of Early Education on Children's Competence in Elementary School." In *Evaluation Studies Review Annual*, Vol. 10, edited by L.H. Aiken and B.H. Kehrer. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, 1985, 243-256.
- Brooks-Gunn, J., Guo, G., and Furstenberg, F.F., Jr. (1993) Who drops out of and who continues beyond high school?: A 20-year study of black youth. *Journal of Research in Adolescence* 37,3:271-94.
- Conger, R., Ge, X., Elder, G.H., Jr., Lorenz, F.O., & Simons, R.L. (1994). Economic stress, coercive family process, and developmental problems of adolescents. *Child Development*, 65, 541-561.
- Duncan, G.J. Volatility of family income over the life course. In *Life-span development and behavior*. Vol. 9. P. Baltes, D. Featherman, and R.M. Lerner, eds. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1988, pp. 317-58.
- Duncan, G., Brooks Gunn, J., Yeung, J.W., & Smith, J.R. (1998). How much does childhood poverty affect the life chances of children. *American Sociological Review*, 63, 406-423.
- Elder, G.H., Jr. (1999). *Children of the Great Depression: Social change in life experience*, 25th anniversary edition. Westview Boulder, CO:.
- Entwisle, D.R. & Alexander, K.L. (1999). Early schooling and social stratification. In R.C. Pianta & M.J. Cox (Eds.), *The Transition to Kindergarten* (pp. 13-38). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

- Entwisle, D.R. & Alexander, K.L. (2002). The first grade transition in life course perspective. In J. Mortimer & M. Shanahan (Eds.), *Handbook of the Life Course* (pp. 229-250). New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum.
- Gay L R. (1976). *Educational research competencies for analysis and application* – Ohio Macmillan Publishers.- New York.
- Graber, J.A., and Brooks-Gunn, J. Transitions and turning points: Navigating the passage from childhood through adolescence. *Developmental Psychology* (1996) 32,4:768–76. Rutter, M. Beyond longitudinal data: Causes, consequences, changes and continuity. *Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology* (1994) 62,5:928–90.
- Guo, G., Brooks-Gunn, J., and Harris, K.M. Parents' labor-force attachment and grade retention among urban black children. *Sociology of Education* (1996) 69,3:217–36.
- Garrett, P., Ng'andu, N., and Ferron, J. Poverty experience of young children and the quality of their home environments. *Child Development* (1994) 65,2:331–45.
- Gutman, L.M. & Eccles, J.S. (1999). Financial strain, parenting behaviors, and adolescent achievement: Testing model equivalence between African-American and European-American single- and two-parent families. *Child Development*, 70, 1464-1476.
- Lee, V. & Burkham, D. (2002). *Inequality at the starting gate: Social background differences in achievement as children begin school*. Washington DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Magnuson, K.A., Meyers, M.K., Ruhm, C.J., & Waldfogel, J. (2004). Inequality in preschool education and school readiness. *American Educational Research Journal*, 41, 15-158.
- McLoyd, V. (1990). The impact of economic hardship on black families and children: Psychological distress, parenting, and socioemotional development. *Child Development*, 61, 311-346.
- Mugenda, O..M and Mugenda A.G. (1999): Research methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches, Acts Press Nairobi.
- Wiersman, (1995) Research Methods in Education: An Introduction 2nd edition.

- Duncan, G.J., and Rodgers, W.L. (1988) Longitudinal aspects of childhood poverty. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* (November 1988) 50,4:1007–21.
- Duncan, G.J., Yeung, W., Brooks-Gunn, J., and Smith, J.R. How much does childhood poverty affect the life chances of children? *American Sociological Review*, in press. Hauser, R., Brown, B., and Prosser, W. *Indicators of children's well-being*. New York: Russell Sage For a review of the causes and consequences of low birth weight in the United States, see Shiono, P., ed. *Low Birth Weight. The Future of Children* (Spring 1995) 5,1:4–231.
- Starfield, B., Shapiro, S., Weiss, J., et al. Race, family income, and low birth weight. *American Journal of Epidemiology* (1991) 134,10:1167–74.
- Peters, E., and Mullis, N. The role of the family and source of income in adolescent achievement. In *Consequences of growing up poor*. Duncan and J. Brooks-Gunn, eds. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1997.
- Teachman, J., Paasch, K.M., Day, R., and Carver, K.P. (1997) Poverty during adolescence and subsequent educational attainment. In *Consequences of growing up poor*. G. Duncan and J. Brooks-Gunn, eds. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Haveman, R., and Wolfe, B. (1994). *Succeeding generations: On the effect of investments in children*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation,

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to establish the relationship between type of family and preschool children academic performance. You are therefore requested to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. You are therefore assured that all your responses will be treated with highest confidentiality. You are asked to respond to all items as they apply to you.

Section A: Demographic information

1. Indicate your gender

Male ()

Female ()

2. Indicate the name of your pre-school _____

3. Indicate your age

20 – 25 years

26 – 30 years

31 – 35 years

36 – 40 years

41 – 45 years

46 – 50 years

51 and above

4. What is your highest professional qualification? _____

5. What is your academic qualification? _____

6. When was your pre-school established? _____

7. Who sponsors your pre-school?

The community ()

The church ()

NGO ()

Government ()

Others (specify)

8. How long have you been a pre-school teacher?

1-5 years ()

6 – 10 years ()

11 – 15 years ()

16 – 20 years ()

21 – 25 years ()

26 years and over ()

9. How many pupils do you have in your pre-school

1- 25 pupils ()

26 – 50 pupils ()

51 – 75 pupils ()

76 – 100 pupils ()

100 and over ()

Section B: Family poverty and Academic Performance

1. From what types of family do your children come from? (tick as appropriate)

Rich family ()

Poor family ()

Well to do ()

2. Do you provide learning materials (books, pens etc...) for the children?

Yes ()

No ()

3. Are the parents supposed to provide for the learning materials for their children?

Yes ()

No ()

4. Are the parents able to support their children's education

Yes ()

No ()

5. Do all the children have the required materials ?

Yes ()

No ()

6. a. Are there family poverty factors that affect childrens' academic performance?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If your answer above is yes please state some of the factors

7.a Do you experience problems of absenteeism?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes what are some of the causes of the problem

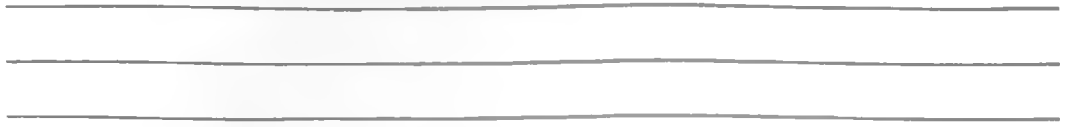
8. What activities do children do while at home?

9.a Do you think the economic background of the parents affect children's education ?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes above, please explain how



APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE PARENTS

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is designed to establish the relationship between type of family and preschool children academic performance. You are therefore requested to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. You are therefore assured that all your responses will be treated with highest confidentiality. You are asked to respond to all items as they apply to you.

Section A:

1. Please indicate your age by ticking in the space provided

25 – 30 years ()

31 – 35 years ()

36 – 40 years ()

41 – 45 years ()

46 – 50 years ()

51 and above ()

2. Indicate your gender

Male ()

Female ()

3. What is your occupation

4. Who provides for the school needs of the children?

a. the school ()

b. The parents ()

5. How many children do you have?

6. What are the economic activities of the people around the school?

Section B. Poverty and its effect of academic performance

1. How many children do you have

1 – 5 children ()

6 – 10 children ()

11 – 15 children ()

16 – 20 children ()

More than 21 ()

2. How many children are in school? _____

3. a. Do you have children in preschool

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes above please indicate how many _____

4.a. Do you have children who are supposed to be in preschool but are not?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes, what are the reasons

5. Are you able to provide for the children you have in the preschool?

6. Are you able to provide for your pre-school needs?

Yes ()

No ()

7. Are your children able to study comfortably at home?

Adequate ()

Inadequate ()

8. Are you at times not able to provide what your children need for school?

Very well ()

Fairly well ()

Poorly ()

9. If your children do not perform well in school, what do you think are the reasons?

10 a. Does the family environment affect children's performance?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes above, how does the family environment affect children's performance?

11. Do your children have clothing to go to school?

Yes ()

No ()

12. Do your children have adequate learning materials

Yes ()

No ()

13. Are the children able to do their homework after school?

Yes ()

No ()

14. Do the children have other activities to do at home?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes above do the chores they do affect their learning?

Yes ()

No ()

15. Are there times you are not able to provide for the family?

Yes ()

No ()

16. a. Are there times that the children are not able to go school?

Yes ()

No ()

b. If yes, what are the reasons?

17. How does poverty affect children's academic performance?

18. Do you think your children may have been performing poorly in school because of family economic problems?

Yes ()

No ()