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Blended Family Dynamics and Social Behaviour Outcome of the Child in Kenya: Case of Kabete Sub-County in Kiambu County

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Abstract
Family changes adversely impact the social behaviour of a child. The aim of the study was to investigate the effect of blended family dynamics on social outcome of the child in Kenya using case of Kabete Sub-County in Kiambu County. To achieve its objectives, the study uses primary data collected from a sample of 50 secondary school age-going children from blended families. The data was analysed using descriptive analysis method as well as inference using the chi-square method. One of the key findings of the study was that within different blended family dynamics, a higher proportion of respondents with delinquent behaviours such as cheating, stealing, fighting and school absenteeism were found within stepmother families than in stepfather families or a combination of stepfather and stepmother. In general, the study reflects an adverse social behaviour outcome of the child in both stepmother and stepfather families suggesting that stepparents should establish friendships with the children and foster trust and respect in order to reassure them that the new environment is safe to live in. The findings of the study are important in that they can be used to formulate policies and strategies for promoting improvement in social behaviour of the child in blended families.
Keywords: blended family dynamics, social behaviour, stepparents, stepfather families, stepmother families.

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, the traditional family of mother, father, and shared biological children as the dominant structure of a family has been replaced by the modern family, the blended family (Cindy and Fernandez, 2014). A blended family is a family where at least one parent has children from a previous relationship that are not genetically related to the other parent (Jozsa and Balassa, 2014). Children from a blended family may live with one biological parent or they may live with each biological parent for a period of time. Visitation rights enable children in blended families often to have contact with both biological parents even if they permanently live with only one parent.

Blended families are called by several other names including stepfamilies, reconstituted families, patchwork families, non-traditional families, new families, etc. The part of the couple who is not the biological parent of the child is called stepparent who either can be stepmother or stepfather. Baham, Weimer, Braver, & Fabricius (2008) refer to the traditional family as the intact family where the family has remained together for the duration of the child's life. In an intact family, also referred popularly to as the nuclear family, the parents typically are the biological parents of the children in the household, exceptions occurring when parents adopt children (Baham et al., 2008). The blended family types are referred to as families that do not follow the intact family guidelines (Jozsa & Balassa, 2014).

The area of blended families is new ground for investigation, which is complex, and not vastly explored in the Sub-Saharan Africa. In the US the rate of family breakdown is more than 50% and about 38% of White children and 75% of Black children born to married parents experience family breakdown prior to the age of 16 years (Lazar, Guttmann, & Abas, 2009). Majority of these adolescents become part of a remarried family prior to turning the age of 18 years. The effect of the latter causes a change in the family structure of these adolescents that will result in relational issues in their life (Carranza, Kilmann, & Vendemia, 2009). Blended families are rapidly becoming the most common family structure, partly due to a high divorce rate and remarriage (Carranza, et al., 2009).

In Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), the institution of traditional family is resilient but steadily responding to global changes (Dube, 2015). For instance, the HIV/AIDS scourge has played a pivotal role in the changes in family in SSA because of adult mortality of people in their prime age. Other changes in the traditional family in SSA are characterized by increase in divorce, increase in cohabitation, and plethora of living arrangements other than marriage (Lesthaeghe, 2010). For instance in Kenya, Chacha (2015) reported of a drama in Githurai, Nairobi, where fed-up neighbours ganged up and stormed into a woman's house and warned her against mistreating her stepchildren. Details later emerged that the family was a complex and almost dysfunctional blended family. The stepmother and the stepfather had one child of their own while the she brought a son into the marriage and he brought two daughters. The mistreated stepchildren were the daughters that belonged to the man.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Family Types and Compositions

There are two main types of family compositions: intact families and blended families (Yau, 2016). An intact family, commonly referred to as traditional family or nuclear family is one, after marriage, husband and wife has remained together for the duration of the child's life. The parents in an intact family typically are the biological parents of the children in the household, exceptions occurring when parents adopt children, and when one of the parents has a child from a previous relationship. A blended family is one referred to as a non-traditional family, stepfamily, reconstituted family, patchwork family, new family, and refers to family types that do not follow the intact family guidelines (Jozsa & Balassa, 2014). Initially, formation of a blended family depended on the death of a spouse. This has been preceded, since 1960s by divorce of one or both partners from previous spouses (George & Fernandez, 2014). The dissolution of two traditional family structures that may lead to formation of a blended family structure requires reorganization of the new family structure as a whole in terms of its definition, identity, purpose, and roles of the family members (George and Fernandez, 2014).

In a study in Western Kenya, Goldberg (2013) observed that after a family transition, children may experience increased ambiguity in expectations about behaviour, as well as disruption in their sense of security and difficulties in fitting in blended families, and they may begin to rely on peer groups for support or intimacy previously provided by caregivers.

2.2 Dynamics of Blended Families

A common sociological and physiological typology of the blended family system distinguishes five situations according to the stepparent who joined the system (Cindy & Fernandez, 2014). The five situations are: 'simple' family with stepmother where a woman joins a man and his biological child; 'simple' family with a stepfather where a man joins a woman and her biological child; 'complex' family where the two partners get connection and both bring their children from prior relationships, 'complex' family where the two partners have a common child or children besides the 'brought' child or children; and 'part-time' family where the children from the prior relationships live with the biological parent and the stepparent in certain specified times. If both members of the couple have prior children, those children are stepbrothers and stepsisters to one another. Any subsequent child born to the couple is a half-sibling of the respective members' prior children (Cindy & Fernandez, 2014).

According to Jozsa and Balassa (2014), blended families can include various combinations of stepparents or single parents. A stepparent family occurs when one parent is the biological parent of the child or children, and the other parent is not the biological parent of the child or children. A step-father family is one in which the children are biologically related to the mother, but not the father. A step-mother family is one in which the children are biologically related to the father, but not the mother. A step-mother and step-father family is one in which both mother and father have biological children from previous relationships living together (Jozsa and Balassa, 2014). Some children are biologically related to the mother and unrelated to the father, and other children in the household are biologically related to the father and unrelated to the mother. A single-mother family is one in which the biological mother of the children is the only adult or parent living with the children, whereas a single-father family is one in which the biological father of the children is the only adult or parent living with the children (Jozsa and Balassa, 2014).

Blessing (2016) identifies three types of siblings and two main types of family composition. The three types of sibling are: full-siblings, step-siblings, and half-siblings. A full sibling is a sibling of the target child who shares the same biological parents. A step-sibling is a sibling of the target child who is not biologically related to the child, and has entered the family system via the child's stepparent. A half-sibling is a sibling of the target child who shares one biological parent with the child, but the sibling's other biological parent is not biologically related to the child. The half-sibling can be a result of the union between the target child's biological parent and the target's stepparent, or could be the result of the target child's biological parent's with a prior partner (Blessing, 2016).

The changing of classical or traditional form of family has been a global social phenomenon.

Blessing (2016) claimed that more than half of Americans were eventually in one or more family during their lives. The portrait of the Canadian family is changing dramatically with blended families increasingly becoming the national norm, especially in Quebec (Fekete, 2012). The increase in blended families comprises one of the largest demographic trends in Australia, brought about by the rising divorce rate (AIPC Article Library, 2012). Although many people come to re-partner with children, the odds are not in favour of remarriages, as a higher proportion of second marriages fail than first marriages. In SSA, Kenya included, studies on blended families are almost non-existent (Dube, 2015). In a study in Western Kenya, Goldberg (2013) observed that after a family transition, children may experience increased ambiguity in expectations about behaviour, as well as disruption in their sense of security and difficulties in fitting in blended families, and they may begin to rely on peer groups for support or intimacy previously provided by caregivers. In Hungary, half of the marriages end with divorce and majority of these adults remarry (Jozsa and Balassa, 2014). Social processes

are influenced by way of life and lifestyles including consumption and buying habits of families.

Children's lives are influenced by the number of parents and siblings that they live with, as well as by whether or not their parents are married (World Family Map, 2014). According to the World Family Map, two-parent families are becoming less common in many parts of the world although they still constitute a majority of families around the globe. Children are particularly likely to live in two-parent families in Asia and the Middle East, compared with other regions of the world. Children are more likely to live with one or no parent in America, Europe, Oceania, and sub-Saharan Africa than in other regions (World Family Map, 2014).

2.3 Role of Stepparent

The transition into step parenting role is neither immediate nor a smooth transition (Pasley, Dallhite, & Ihinger-Tallman, 2017). This process is clouded by lack of positive role models for the role of stepparent. The authors explain that there are three relevant themes pertinent to the role of stepparents include: an ambiguity regarding feelings of being stepparent; a lack of clarity of stepparent role; and concern about diminished attention to personal needs and loss of private time. The new family (blended family) presents an implicit confusion between the parental authorities of the biological parent and stepparent. For the stepparents who do not have biological children of their own in the blended family, their step parenting role becomes more challenging because the presence of children requires an ongoing attention and interaction but for the stepparent, the form of the ''relational lens'' that the attention and interaction of children takes, whether a pseudo parent, friend, disciplinarian or some combination thereof, remains a troubling question (Pasley et al., 2017). Further, the authors indicate that private time and concern must be sacrificed in the new parenting role, but there seems little precedence or guidance in how to be an effective parent.

The ambiguous nature of the stepparent role has been the focus of a number of empirical investigations. Early empirical studies found that stepfathers felt inadequate in their role and did not perceive mutual love or mutual respect between themselves and their stepchildren while stepmothers were reported to be more authoritarian in their parenting style than were others in first-marriage families and commonly used stern, dogmatic control without explanations of reasons for discipline and did not promote independent decision making on the part of children (Pasley et al., 2017). Similarly, stepfathers were less warm, less supportive, less controlling, and more permissive with their stepchildren than were fathers with their biological children and less consistent in their discipline. Being a stepmother is believed to be more difficult than being a stepfather, primarily because stepmothers often are expected to assume primary responsibility for child care. Some studies have shown that stepmothers emit a greater proportion of negative behaviors toward stepchildren than stepfathers. In addition, stepmothers report higher levels of stress and greater dissatisfaction with their role than do stepfathers (Pasley et al., 2017).

In a blended family structure, the most successful parenting occurs where the stepparent focuses first on the development of a warm, friendly interaction style with the stepchild and once a foundation of mutual respect and affection is established, a stepparent who assumes a disciplinarian role is less likely to meet with resentment from the stepchild (Pasley et al., 2017). Parenting behaviors that include high levels of warmth, support, and control are associated with positive child wellbeing in first-marriage families. This pattern of parenting behaviors, known as authoritative parenting, does not have the same positive wellbeing in a blended family structure. The predominant parenting in blended families is characterized by more disengagement where, over time, stepfathers showed much lower levels of warmth, control, and monitoring and higher levels of conflict than did fathers in traditional families (Pasley et al., 2017).

Kwikwap Website Consultant (2017) explains that most blended families in South Africa are able to work out their growing pains and live together successfully because open communication, positive attitudes, mutual respect and plenty of love and patience, aspects all of which are important in creating a healthy blended family. Further, the author asserts that the stepparents need to focus a lot on their children and their adjustment, besides focusing on building a strong marital bond as this will ultimately benefit everyone, including the children, who when they see love, respect and open communication between stepparents, will feel more secure and may even learn to model those qualities. Uncertainty and worry about family issues often comes from poor communication. Children like to know what to expect and when they feel empathy and understanding from their parents and stepparents, they are more likely to be resilient to the normal ups and downs of adjusting to new family members and a new living situation (Kwikwap Website Consultant, 2017). Beninger (2011), in a study in Namibia, explains that stepchildren frequently report discriminatory treatment within the home in terms of love and attention, access to food and material goods, and an unequal burden of household labour as compared to biological children. The author cites abuse as the greatest disadvantage of living in a stepfamily particularly the sexual abuse of a stepdaughter by a stepfather.

Jozsa and Balassa (2014) analyze the causes of social process using consumer behaviour in blended families and test the null hypothesis that the buying decision making mechanism do not differ from that in traditional families. Using snowball sampling technique and cross tabulation method of data analysis, the authors found

that the buying decisions and conflicts of the blended families differ from those in traditional families because of differences in the family structures.

2.4 Social Behaviour Outcome

Researchers including Magnuson & Berger (2009), Brown (2010), and Brown, Manning, and Stykes (2015) investigated living arrangement patterns and their implication for the social wellbeing of the child and found that, on average, children residing outside the traditional family tend to fair less well than those in the traditional family dynamics.

Evenhouse and Reilly (2004) and Shui (2015) analyze the adolescent health data using family fixed-effects estimation methods and find that stepsiblings do worse than their half-siblings who are joint children in blended families in social behaviour as reflected trouble at school and school suspensions. Stepchildren also have adverse wellbeing in terms of risky behaviour such as early sexual activity and use of drugs and alcohol. The stepchildren also have lower relationship quality with stepparents and worse psychological wellbeing.

Tillman (2008) studied data on more than 11,000 teens and found that teenagers in families with different biological parents have more behaviour problems than other adolescents, and that these traits may not improve over time. Boys living with half or step-siblings had the most difficulty adjusting. Problems may arise because teens feel they have to compete for parental attention, combined with the stress of living with non-traditional siblings. A new parent figure can increase stress in young people because their relationships tend to be more conflict-ridden, explains Tillman. The author concludes that family formation patterns that bring together children who have different sets of biological parents may not be in the best interests of the children involved.

Scholars, including Artis (2007), Fomby & Cherlin (2007), Magnuson & Berger (2009), and Brown (2010) have investigated living arrangement patterns and their implications on social wellbeing of the child and find that children residing outside of families with two biological married parents: married stepparents and cohabiting families tend to fair less well, on average.

Family complexity is evident across all family structures (Halpem-Meekin and Tech, 2008; Tillman, 2008; Manning et al., 2014). The authors show that this complexity is negatively related to the social wellbeing of the child. Rasmussen and Stratton (2016) used distance between the child and the non-residential parent as proxy for contact and analyzed social wellbeing for a cohort of children from nonnuclear families in Denmark. Similar work by Kalil et al. (2011) compared the social wellbeing of children whose fathers were either always proximate or always distant using Norwegian registry data on a five year cohort of children whose parents were married at the time of their birth, but divorced before their thirteenth birthday. Contrary to the popular belief, the authors find no evidence that children who live a greater distance from their non-residential parent experience worse social wellbeing.

2.5 Governing Theories

The key theory that underpinned the study is Attachment Theory by Bowlby complimented by Theory of Structural Family Therapy by Minuchin. The Attachment Theory emphasizes the importance of attachment in regard to Internal Working Model (IWM) of a person which guides him/her in inter and intrapersonal relationships throughout life while the Structural Theory places importance on the patterns of interaction within the family.

2.5.1 Attachment theory

Attachment theory states that a strong emotional and physical attachment to at least one primary caregiver is critical to personal development and it is one of the most studied aspects of psychology. In his work in late 1960s involving the developmental psychology of children from various backgrounds, Bowlby (1969) established the precedent that childhood development depended heavily upon a child's ability to form a strong relationship with at least one primary caregiver. As a concept in developmental psychology, attachment theory concerns the importance of attachment in regards to personal development. The theory makes the claim that the ability for an individual to form an emotional and physical attachment to another person gives a sense of stability and security necessary to take risks, branch out, and grow and develop as a personality.

The parent-child relationship provides the child with important ideas of forming relationships and learning to adjust to various experiences in life (Hines, 2007; Gray, 2011). The theory assumes that adult friendships or romantic relationships develop from parents or examples of early caregivers (Carranza et al., 2009), suggesting that a parental separation could cause the child to have relationship issues later in life. Family breakdown can change the attachment style creating feelings of anger, resentment and confusion. In a blended family structure, adolescents and young adults face challenges of building relationships and committing to a relationship because of low trust in stepparents, low satisfaction and interpersonal skills (Fogarty, Ferrer, and McCrea, 2013). This creates the challenge of the blended family in building quality family.

Cassidy and Shaver (2008) explain that attachment theory sheds light on early development of Internal Working Model (IWM) in individuals. According the authors, the model informs the individual of relationships

and interactions with self and others from childhood to the entire lifespan. Potter and Sullivan (2011) assert that IWM facilitates future interactions of the individual with self and the world. The presence of the primary caregiver mostly the mother is paramount because the child mirrors the self with whom it attaches to (Smith and Elliot, 2011). According to Beebe and Steele (2013) the internal working model begins to develop six months after the baby is born. This confirms the observation by Smith and Elliot (2011). Positive internal working model facilitates intra and interpersonal relationships (Davies, 2011). Attachment relationships form bases on which individuals regulate their emotions (Brenning & Braet, 2013).

The attachment model explains infant behaviour towards their attachment figure, during separation and reunion times. It is believed that attachment behaviours formed in infancy will help shape the attachment relationships people have as adults. Some psychologists, such as Harris (1998) and Field (1996), disagree with this idea. Harris (1998) believes that too much emphasis on how a child "turns out" should not be placed on the parents and also disagrees with the nurture assumption as well. Peers have a lot of influence on a child's personality, just as the child's environment does. Field (1996) also criticizes the attachment model because he believes that there are many limitations to it.

2.5.2 Theory of structural family therapy

Theory of structural family therapy by Minuchin (1974) focuses on the organization of the entire family to include rules, boundaries, and coalitions that characterize the family structure (Nichols, 2010). Structural theory views the family as an integrated whole and as a system. The emphasis is on patterns of interaction within the family providing clues to the basic structure and organization of the system, the family. According to Minuchin (1974), the family will change as society changes. Society develops extra familiar structures to adapt to new ways of thinking and new social and economic realities. It is these changes in society that shape the formation of the blended family and other forms of the family.

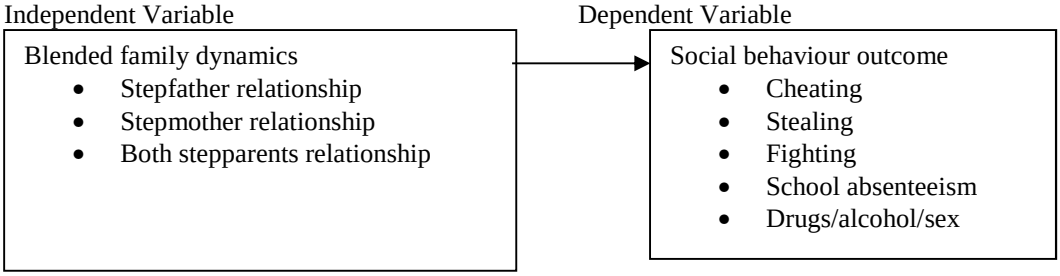
The key critique of the Structural Theory is Standish (2013), who claims that the Theory de-emphasizes emotional lives, is biased on appropriate family structure that is “western” nuclear family model and needs cross cultural considerations. While the attachment theory emphasizes the importance of strong emotional and physical attachment to personal development including children, family structural theory addresses problems in the functioning within a family. Changes in family structures can influence personal development of children in terms of psychological, social, and academic wellbeing (Brown et al., 2015).

3. Methodology

3.1 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework focuses on the interrelationships of various variables based on the theoretical and empirical considerations made in the literature review. Figure 2.1 illustrates the interrelationship of the dependent and independent variables used in the study. The independent variable is the blended family dynamics while the dependent variable is the psychological wellbeing of the child.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of blended family and social behaviour outcome of Child



Source: Own formulation based on Minuchin (1974) and Bowlby (1969)

Social behaviour refers to empathy, positive/negative relationships, guilt/shame, aggression, help/seeking and negativity (Brown et al., 2015). Several aspects as proxy for social wellbeing used in the study include: cheating, stealing, fighting, and school absenteeism, drugs/alcohol/sex.

Blended family is a family where at least one parent has children from a previous relationship that are not genetically related to the other parent (Jozsa & Balassa, 2014). The aspects used in the study as proxy for blended families is the blended family types: stepfather family, and stepmother family.

3.2 Sampling Design and Data Collection

The study employed both random (or probability) sampling and non-random (or non-probability) sampling techniques in sample selection. The target 15 public secondary schools in Kabete Sub-county were stratified into three (3) strata: girls’ only secondary schools, boys’ only secondary schools, and mixed secondary schools. A simple random sample of one-third of schools from each stratum was drawn, namely: one school for girls, one school for boys, and three mixed schools. From each school, the study drew a target sample of 10 students from

blended families using purposive sampling with the guidance of the schooling administration through Guidance and Counselling teachers. Thus, the study used a sample size of 50 secondary school age-going students from blended families in the age-group 14 - 19 years. According to Republic of Kenya [RoK] (2013), secondary school age-going children are in the 14 - 19 years age bracket.

With the help of the guidance and counselling teachers, the respondents were convened in a room, inducted about the study and were able to willingly participate in the study. The study collected primary data on family composition types, on children from blended families focusing on their well-being in relation to psychological wellbeing.

3.3 Study Area

Kabete is a cosmopolitan Sub-County in Kiambu County, close to Kenya's Capital City, Nairobi. It covers an area of 60.20 square kilometres which is about 2.4 percent of the total area of Kiambu County and has a population of 140,427 people constituting about 8.7 percent of the total population in the County (RoK, 2009). Due to its proximity to the Nairobi capital city, Kabete Sub-County has the highest population density in Kiambu County which is 2,534 persons per square kilometre followed by Kiambaa Sub-County which has 2,153 persons per square kilometre. The Sub-County is among the leading innovative commercial hubs in Kiambu County and constitutes five (5) County Assembly Wards (CAWs): Gitaru, Muguga, Nyathuna, Kabete, and Uthiru. Kabete Sub-County is also among the wealthiest counties in Kenya where people primarily work in the Civil Service, carry out businesses, do farming or are in the informal sector. The larger population of the people is in retail business and service provision where they manage hotels and restaurants, new and second hand clothes, foodstuffs, hardware shops and household goods (RoK, 2013).

Kabete Sub-County has a total of 203 schools: 185 primary schools and 18 secondary schools. The secondary school age group is 14-19 years and forms about 7.4 percent or 10,391 of the total population in the Sub-County (RoK, 2013). The total number of students in public secondary schools in the Sub-County is 5,504.

4. Results and Discussion

Annexes 1-6 present the findings of the study regarding the effect of blended family dynamics on social behaviour outcome of children in Kabete Sub-County, which in summary show that, most respondents involved in cheating, stealing, fighting and school absenteeism were from stepmother families while most respondents involved in drugs, alcohol and sex were from stepfather families. However, on average, the chi-square tests indicate that the difference between the delinquent behaviour of the respondents from stepfather families and stepmother families was not important, a finding that disagrees with Shui (2015).

4.1 Cheating Behaviour

Annex 2 presents results of cheating behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County. The results reveal that the difference in cheating between the respondents who had relationship with stepmother and those who had relationship with stepfather was not statistically significant ($\chi^2(1) = 2.013$, $p>.05$) implying that blended family dynamics did not influence cheating behavior of the respondents in Kabete Sub-County.

4.2 Stealing Behaviour

Annex 3 presents results of stealing behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County. The results indicate that the difference in stealing behaviour did not vary significantly between respondents from stepfather and stepmother families ($\chi^2(1) = 1.035$, $p>.05$) implying that respondents' stealing behavior was not influenced by the blended family dynamics.

4.3 Fighting Behaviour

Annex 4 presents results of fighting behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County. The results reveal that the difference in the proportion of respondents from stepmother relations and stepfather relationship who physically fought with others was not statistically significant ($\chi^2(1) = 0.027$, $p>.05$) suggesting that blended family dynamics did not influence aggressive behavior.

4.5 School Absenteeism Behaviour

Annex 5 presents results of school absenteeism behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County. The results indicate that the difference in the proportion of respondents from the two stepfamily types with school absenteeism behaviour was not statistically significant, ($\chi^2(1) = 0.004$, $p>.05$), suggesting that blended family dynamics had no important influence on school absenteeism behavior.

4.6 Involvement in Drugs/Sex Behaviour

Annex 6 presents results of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County who indulgence in drug /sex.

The results show that the difference in the proportion of respondents from stepfather family and from stepmother family that often indulged in drug/sex behaviour was not statistically significant, ($\chi^2(1) = 1.044$, $p>.05$), implying that the delinquent behavior of the respondents was not influenced by blended family dynamics.

5. Conclusion

The study findings show that there was no significant impact of blended family dynamics on social behaviour outcome of children although within different blended family dynamics, a higher proportion of respondents with delinquent behaviours such as cheating, stealing, fighting and school absenteeism was found within stepmother families than in stepfather families or a combination of stepfather and stepmother. Drawing from study findings, an important policy initiative to mitigate the adverse effects of blended family dynamics on the social behavior outcome of the child, is to develop interventions that take into consideration the unique challenges faced by members of blended families.

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Annexes

Annex1: Overall social behaviour outcome

Table 1: Blended family dynamics and social behaviour outcome of children in Kabete Sub-County

Wellbeing		Very often	Often	Never	Total
I cheat people when I want something from them	Frequency	5	20	25	50
	Percent	10%	40%	50%	100%
I take other people's things without permission	Frequency	3	16	31	50
	Percent	6%	32%	62%	100%
I physically fight with others	Frequency	1	17	32	50
	Percent	2%	34%	64%	100%
I absent myself from school without permission	Frequency	2	13	35	50
	Percent	4%	26%	70%	100%
When I am angry, I take alcohol, drug or engage in sex	Frequency	2	6	42	50
	Percent	4%	12%	84%	100%

Table 2: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.611[a]	2	.425
Likelihood Ratio	.353	2	.436
Linear-by-Linear Association	.231	1	.447
N of Valid Cases	54		

a. 1cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.1.

Annex 2: Cheating behaviour

Table 3: Cheating behaviour of children in Kabete Sub-County

Dynamics		Cheating		Total
		Never	Often/ very often	
Relationship with stepfather	Frequency	14	7	21
	Percent	56.0%	28.0%	42.0%
Relationship with stepmother	Frequency	9	16	25
	Percent	36.0%	64.0%	50.0%
Relationship with both stepmother and stepfather	Frequency	2	2	4
	Percent	8.0%	8.0%	8.0%
Total	Frequency	25	25	50
	Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 4: Chi square test on cheating behaviour

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.013[a]	1	.156
Likelihood Ratio	2.027	1	.155
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.973	1	.160
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.50.

Annex 3: Stealing behaviour

Table 5: Stealing behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County

Dynamics		Stealing		Total
		Never	Often/ very often	
Relationship with stepfather	Frequency	14	7	21
	Percent	45.2%	36.8%	42.0%
Relationship with stepmother	Frequency	13	12	25
	Percent	41.9%	63.2%	50.0%
Relationship with both stepmother and stepfather	Frequency	4	0	4
	Percent	12.9%	0.0%	8.0%
Total	Frequency	31	19	50
	Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 6: Chi-Square test of stealing behaviour of children from blended families

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.035[a]	1	.309
Likelihood Ratio	1.043	1	.307
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.014	1	.314
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.74.

Annex 4: Fighting behaviour

Table 7: Fighting behaviour of Children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County

Dynamics		Fighting		Total
		Never	Often/ very often	
Relationship with stepfather	Frequency	13	8	21
	Percent	40.6%	44.4%	42.0%
Relationship with stepmother	Frequency	15	10	25
	Percent	46.9%	55.6%	50.0%
Relationship with both stepmother and stepfather	Frequency	4	0	4
	Percent	12.5%	0.0%	8.0%
Total	Frequency	32	18	50
	Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 8: Chi-Square test of fighting behaviour of children from blended families

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.027[a]	1	.869
Likelihood Ratio	.000	1	1.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.027	1	.870
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.28.

Annex 5: School absenteeism behaviour

Table 9: School absenteeism behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County

Dynamics		School absenteeism		Total
		Never	Often/ very often	
Relationship with stepfather	Frequency	14	7	21
	Percent	40.0%	46.7%	42.0%
Relationship with stepmother	Frequency	17	8	25
	Percent	48.6%	53.3%	50.0%
Relationship with both stepmother and stepfather	Frequency	4	0	4
	Percent	11.4%	0.0%	8.0%
Total	Frequency	35	15	50
	Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 10: Chi-Square test of school absenteeism

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.004[a]	1	.951
Likelihood Ratio	.004	1	.951
Linear-by-Linear Association	.004	1	.951
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.90.

Annex 6: Indulgence in drugs/sex behaviour

Table 11: Indulgence in drug/sex behaviour of children from blended families in Kabete Sub-County

Dynamics		Indulgence in drug/sex		Total
		Never	Often/ very often	
Relationship with stepfather	Frequency	16	5	21
	Percent	38.1%	62.5%	42.0%
Relationship with stepmother	Frequency	22	3	25
	Percent	52.4%	37.5%	50.0%
Relationship with both stepmother and stepfather	Frequency	4	0	4
	Percent	9.5%	0.0%	8.0%
Total	Frequency	42	8	50
	Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 12: Chi-square test of children indulgence in drug/sex behaviour

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.044[a]	1	.307
Likelihood Ratio	1.045	1	.307
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.023	1	.312
N of Valid Cases	50		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.68.