

## **Chapter II**

### **A Literary Exploration of Social Capital in Education**

#### **2.1 Background of the Chapter**

Social capital is a sociological concept that has been gradually embraced by the realm of education. Though Hannifan (1916) conceptualized it in the nineteenth century, the concept gained prominence after the works of Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988), and Putnam (1993). Accordingly, a plethora of literature is available in fields such as sociology, economics, and political science among others that undertook studies to understand social capital. Numerous studies have been conducted to identify social capital in terms of its conceptualizations, emergence, dimensions, and contexts. Hence, to decipher the essence of literature on social capital, an attempt has been made here to fulfil the said purpose.

Due to the restriction of access to papers in some cases, only full papers are considered for this review. This step is important as it ensures that adequate and detailed information about the research design, sample, social capital indicators, and their effects, analysis, and consequently methodological gaps are pondered upon. This relates primarily to the databases accessed and the keywords used. The literature review includes journal articles, book chapters, and electronic publications published between 2000 and 2023. The sources were obtained from a variety of electronic database sources. Many of the investigated databases were Google Scholar, JSTOR, and ERIC. The selection criteria began with a search command using “social capital” and “education” as keywords.

The chapter on literature review is divided into three sections. The first section presents the studies which were conducted between the period of 2000 to 2023, to comprehend the existing body of knowledge and discipline related to social capital. It dwells into the literature's research trend of conceptualization, theoretical framework, and research methodology including data collection and data analysis of five time periods (2000-2004, 2005-2009, 2010-2014, 2015-2019, and 2020-2023). The second section of this review examines the impact of social capital on educational achievement, educational attainment, and psychosocial attributes. Finally, the third section of the review focuses

on issues and research gaps regarding the conceptualization, methodology, methods, and techniques for collecting and analysing data on social capital in education.

## **2.2 Research Trends**

Since its emergence through deliberations by Bourdieu, Coleman, Putnam, and many others, social capital has been investigated as an explanatory as well as exploratory factor in policy-making, execution of programs and welfare schemes, and evaluation of their success. However, the research trend drawn here is limited to the field of education at various levels- early childhood to higher education including professional courses such as teacher education and management. The upcoming subsections present a comprehensive analysis of research which have been specifically done in the field of education in the last two decades. These four sub-sections are:

### **2.2.1 Dawn of social capital in educational research (2000-2004)**

### **2.2.2 Social capital renaissance in educational research landscape (2005-2009)**

### **2.2.3 Synergising social capital research in education (2010-2014)**

### **2.2.4 Methodological oblivion in social capital research (2015-2019)**

### **2.2.5 Paradigm shift in social capital research in educational landscape (2020-2023)**

By understanding these five periods, conceptual and methodological implications were drawn, which subsequently helped in chartering the course of the entire study.

#### ***2.2.1 Dawn of Social Capital in Educational Research (2000-2004)***

By 2000, social capital slowly entered the lexicon of educationists. This broadened the scope of research on social capital in the field of education. In the review of five published studies, it was seen that the Australian communities were surveyed to understand the influence of social capital on educational aspirations (Onyx and Bullen, 2000). The other studies also employed surveys with a focus on understanding the effect of family and school social capital on the social adjustment of grade IV American children (Parcel and Dufur, 2001); learning of grade VIII American students (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002); longitudinal survey of forty-eight countries to understand democratic values (Paxton, 2002), and academic achievement of disadvantaged American students (Goodard, 2003) was also conducted.

The sample sizes in all the research ranged from 1211 to 2873 respondents. The sample was primarily drawn from secondary data from the National Longitudinal Survey of

Youth (NLSY) (Parcel and Dufur, 2001), the National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002), and the World Values Survey (WVS) (Paxton, 2002). All the reviewed studies were quantitative in nature and therefore analysed data using descriptive statistics in conjunction with hierarchical generalized linear modelling (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Paxton, 2002; Goodard, 2003) or ordinary least squares regressions (Parcel and Dufur, 2001; Israel and Beaulieu, 2002) through software packages such as SPSS (Onyx and Bullen, 2000), STATISTICA (Onyx and Bullen, 2000). There were studies (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Israel and Beaulieu, 2002; Goodard, 2003) that used Cronbach alpha to determine the internal consistency of the employed questionnaires.

Different researchers have conceptualized and measured social capital inflows to families, schools, and communities. Most of the studies cited either Coleman's concept of social capital or Putnam's perspective on social capital. This was observable in the studies on the contribution of associations (Paxton, 2002) and social adjustment (Parcel and Dufur, 2001) among school children. To gain access to community members, the studies have used the assistance of local agencies to collect data (Onyx and Bullen, 2000). The research also emphasized the link between social capital, human capital, and financial capital (Parcel and Dufur, 2001).

The investigations focused on Coleman's and Putnam's different factors of social capital such as community participation (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Paxton, 2002; Goodard, 2003), proactivity in a social context (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Paxton, 2002), trust (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Parcel and Dufur, 2001; Paxton, 2002; Goodard, 2003), feelings of safety (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Goodard, 2003), neighbourhood connections (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Parcel and Dufur, 2001), family and friends connections (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Parcel and Dufur, 2001), tolerance of diversity (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Paxton, 2002), the value of life (Onyx and Bullen, 2000), work connections (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Parcel and Dufur, 2001), intergenerational closure (Parcel and Dufur, 2001), reciprocity (Paxton, 2002), group membership (Paxton, 2002) and social norms (Goodard, 2003).

### ***2.2.2 Social Capital Renaissance in Educational Research Landscape (2005-2009)***

During this time the focus of the research was predominantly on minority populations across the globe. Here, six published studies have been reviewed. The studies were

found to focus on the effect of social capital on engagement and peer groups among grade VIII Mexican and Non-Latino Non-Spanish speaking White students (Ream and Rumberger, 2008) and Norwegian secondary students' academic achievement (Huang, 2009). The effect of social capital was also observed in the schooling of Tsimane of the Bolivian Amazon, a pre-industrialized society (Godoy et al., 2007), and on the social security in twenty-nine European countries (Gesthuizen et al., 2008). There were studies that focused on aspects such as immigrant Chinese parent-teacher relationships in America as a predictor (Wang, 2008) of social capital. The study by Lee (2007) diverged from its contemporaries by highlighting trust as an important factor in generating social capital among middle-school Korean children.

Except for Wang (2008) all the studies employed the survey design to understand the effect of social capital on educational attainment (Gesthuizen et al., 2008), school dropout (Ream and Rumberger, 2008), and student achievement in secondary students (Huang, 2009). Wang (2008) followed a case study design. There were two studies that surveyed to understand the influence of schooling on social capital (Godoy et al., 2007) and trust in school adjustment, academic motivation, and performance (Lee, 2007). The sample size in these studies ranged from 9 to 11406 respondents.

Most of the study continued to study the secondary data of the Eurobarometer 62.2 (Gesthuizen et al., 2008), NELS (Ream and Rumberger, 2008), and Young in Norway (YiN) 2002 (Huang, 2009) to select the respondents. Godoy et al. (2007) used a team of trained personnel to conduct the survey, interview, and transcribe them; Wang (2008) personally conducted personal one-on-one interviews with Chinese parents who spoke Mandarin that was transcribed in the spoken language. The studies have employed Cronbach alpha (Godoy et al., 2007; Lee, 2007) to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire.

Most of the studies continued to use descriptive statistics along with t-test (Lee, 2007), and correlation (Lee, 2007), by using different statistical software like Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) (Lee, 2007; Huang, 2009) like Mplus (Ream and Rumberger, 2008), SPSS (Lee, 2007) and AMOS (Lee, 2007). The hierarchical linear models, exploratory factor analysis, and regression models (Godoy et al., 2007; Huang, 2009) were used to predict the social capital effect on educational attainment (Gesthuizen et al., 2008) and academic achievement (Huang, 2009). On the other hand, Wang (2008)

transcribed the interviews in Mandarin, used coding, and conducted thematic analysis to generate themes from the codes to derive the effect of schooling on social capital in the form of social connection between the parents and the school.

### ***2.2.3 Synergising Social Capital Research in Education (2010-2014)***

As the visibility of social capital research increased, so did its scope of research in education. From the year 2010-2014, thirteen published studies were reviewed. Research involving studying the effect of social capital on safety concerns and antisocial behaviour of middle school Italian children (Vieno et al., 2010), bullying among grade VI American students (Carney et al., 2011), information channels of Turkish elementary school teachers (Ekinci, 2012), educational attainment among rural community of Terengganu in Malaysia (Hakim et al., 2012), educational inequality among grade IV German students and their mothers (Roth, 2013), school drop-outs from grades I to VIII in Turkey (Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014), aspirations of socially disadvantaged English girls (Fuller, 2014), psychosocial adjustments of migrant children in Mainland China (Wu et al., 2011), a cross-sectional survey on the psychosocial well-being of adolescents in the United States (Yamaguchi, 2013), educational achievement of immigrant students from kindergarten to grade VIII in America (Tang, 2012), educational achievement of grades V and VI Cambodian students (Eng, 2013), grade IV German students (Roth, 2013) were conducted. There was an intervention study to understand the effect of social capital on KidFirst, an early childhood care program in Canada (Shan et al., 2012). There was an experimental study that showed the influence of the family-neighborhood-school-peer-organization-community level to understand the mechanism of manifestation of social capital in low-income Latino school communities and families (Shoji et al., 2014).

The sample across the studies ranged from 25 to 2500 respondents. The sample, though chosen through random sampling (Vieno et al., 2010; Ekinci, 2012; Hakim et al., 2012; Tang, 2012; Shoji et al., 2014), multistage sampling (Wu et al., 2011), snowball sampling (Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014), purposive sampling (Eng, 2013; Roth, 2013), convenience sampling (Carney et al., 2011; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014). The samples were accessed from databases of the National Survey of America's Families (NSAF) 1999 (Yamaguchi, 2013), Child Development Supplement (CDS) of the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (Tang, 2012), German Panel 'Immigrant' Project (Roth, 2013),

School Bullying Survey (SBS) of Carney (2000), General Social Survey (GSS) (Carney et al., 2011). The reliability of the questionnaires was found using Cronbach alpha (Vieno et al., 2010; Ekinci, 2012; Shan et al., 2012; Eng, 2013; Roth, 2013; Yamaguchi, 2013).

Most of the studies have used either a self-made questionnaire (Vieno et al., 2010; Hakim et al., 2012; Tang, 2012; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014); scales such as the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale for Children, Satisfaction with Life Scale, Friendship Qualities Scale, Parent-Child Relationship Inventory were used by Wu et al., (2011); Ekinci's Scale for Social Capital and Organizational Information Sharing at Schools (Ekinci, 2012); subscales such as Hostility from the Aggression Questionnaire, School climate from the Inventory of School Climate-Student Version was also employed by Wu et al. (2011) to collect the responses from the participants. The responses were collected either employing a team of research assistants (Vieno et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Ekinci, 2012; Shan et al., 2012; Eng, 2013; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014; Shoji et al., 2014).

There were studies that employed mixed methodology (Shan et al., 2012; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014), yet the weightage on quantitative studies (Vieno et al., 2010; Carney et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2011; Ekinci, 2012; Hakim et al., 2012; Tang, 2012; Eng, 2013; Yamaguchi, 2013; Shoji et al., 2014) was observed to remain persistent. There was one study that adopted a qualitative research design (Fuller, 2014) indicating the readiness to attempt to shift from the surveys. Thus, the studies seemed to begin experiencing the need to depart from the traditional dimensions of social capital such as groups and networks, trust and solidarity, collective action and cooperation, information and communication, social cohesion and inclusion, and empowerment and political action to explore new dimensions that could either contribute to or produce social capital.

A shift in research design has also influenced the analysis of the data. Even though descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviations were prevalent along with t-test (Carney et al., 2011), MANOVA (Carney et al., 2011; Eng, 2013), correlations (Yamaguchi, 2013) such as Pearson's Product-moment correlation, regression models (Ekinci, 2012; Hakim et al., 2012; Tang, 2012; Eng, 2013; Roth, 2013; Yamaguchi, 2013; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014) such as ordinary least square regression, hierarchical regression model, logistic regression model, hierarchical multilevel

regression model, structural equation modelling (Vieno et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011; Tang, 2012; Roth, 2013), the goodness of fit model (Tang, 2012) using LISREL and MPlus.

It was also observed that there has been a bend towards exploring the social world through interviews, informal conversations, and participant observations by Shan et al., (2012), Roth (2013), Cemalcilar and Goksen (2014), Fuller (2014) employed through coding, content analysis, and triangulation by the aid of software such as ATLAS.ti (Shan et al., 2012) and NVivo (Shoji et al., 2014).

#### ***2.3.4 Methodological Oblivion in Social Capital Research (2015-2019)***

Through the review of sixteen published studies, it was observed that surveys continued to be the most sought-after way to conduct and understand social capital. The surveys focused the on effect of social capital on themes such as educational achievement (Farheen and Farooq, 2015; Huang et al., 2015; Behtoui and Neergaard, 2016; Yang,2017; Hemmerechts et al., 2018) in Pakistan, Norway, Romania, Sweden, Korea, Belgium; personality development (Farheen and Farooq, 2015; Seevers et al., 2015) in Pakistan; educational aspirations (Chesters and Smith, 2015; Shahidul et al., 2015 ) in Australia, Germany, Bangladesh; school adjustment (van Rossem et al., 2015; ) Netherlands, job satisfaction(Ozan et al., 2017), job motivation (Ozan et al., 2017) among Turkish school teachers.

Shahidul et al. (2015) surveyed the effect of family social capital on the educational aspiration of grade IX Bangladeshi students. Arriaza and Rocha (2016) through a case study in a Californian elementary school studied systematic and intentional ways of introducing classroom and school yard activities to enhance social capital among grade III students. Galindo et al. (2017) explored the manifestation of social capital was manifested in among grades pre to K-5 students in an urban community elementary school. Dika and Martin (2018) investigated the effect of bridging social capital on Latino undergraduate engineering students studying in public universities in the United States of America. Lindfors et al. (2018) conducted a longitudinal study on school social capital, school burnout, and academic achievement among Finnish adolescents. Khattar (2019) attempted to understand the effect of social capital on the Quality of Work Life of Personnel of Educational Institutions in India and Sweden. Poltacan and Balci (2019)

investigated the relationship between social capital and innovative climate in secondary schools.

The sample ranged from 30 to 11873 respondents. The sample for the studies has been chosen through simple random sampling (Ozan et al., 2017), multi-stage cluster sampling (Farheen and Farooq, 2015), stratified sampling method (Poltacan and Balci, 2019), and convenience sampling (Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Galindo et al., 2017; Khattar, 2019). However, most of the studies relied on secondary data from databases such as the Social Futures and Life Pathway (SFLP), Australia (Chesters and Smith, 2015); National Education Panel Study (NEPS), Germany (Chesters and Smith, 2015), Utrecht Social Development Project (USDP) (Second Wave), Netherlands (van Rossem et al., 2015), Project Innovating and Excelling in Education (PIEE), Belgium (Hemmerechts et al., 2018), Resource Generator (Dika and Martin, 2018), YiN 2010 (Huang et al., 2015), School Success Profile Survey (SPS) 2010, Romania (Huang et al., 2015), Social capital and Educational Achievement Survey (SCEAS) (Behtoui and Neergaard, 2016) and Korea Education Longitudinal Study (KELS) (Yang, 2017). The reliability of questionnaires was determined using Cronbach alpha (Seevers et al., 2015; van Rossem et al., 2015; Yang, 2017).

The studies continued to rely on quantitative tools of data collection such as self-made questionnaires (Seevers et al., 2015; Shahidul et al., 2015; Behtoui and Neergaard, 2016; Dika and Martin, 2018; Lindfors et al., 2018); scales (Farheen and Farooq, 2015; Ozan et al., 2017; Poltacan and Balci, 2019); subscales, and secondary data (Chesters and Smith, 2015; Huang et al., 2015; Yang, 2017; Hemmerechts et al., 2018). The qualitative designs such as case studies (Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Galindo et al., 2017; Khattar, 2019), either single or multiple gave a scope to conduct an in-depth collection of data through techniques such as interviews (Shahidul et al., 2015; van Rossem et al., 2015; Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Galindo et al., 2017; Khattar, 2019), participatory (Arriaza and Rocha, 2016), non-participatory observations (Galindo et al., 2017), document reviews (Galindo et al., 2017) and field notes (Galindo et al., 2017). Except for Galindo et al. (2017) and Khattar (2019), all the investigations have been done by engaging a team of trained research assistants.

Descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation were used in all the quantitative studies. However, van Rossem et al. (2015) quantified responses from semi-

structured interviews instead of using a scale or a questionnaire to collect responses from the participants. Apart from this, quantitative methods of analysis such as correlation (Ozan et al., 2017; Hemmerechts et al., 2018) such as Pearson Product-Moment, regression (Chesters and Smith, 2015; Seevers et al., 2015; Shahidul et al., 2015; van Rossem et al., 2015; Dika and Martin, 2018; Yang, 2017; Lindfors et al., 2018; Poltacan and Balci, 2019), either ordinary least-squares regression or multinomial logistic or multiple linear, MANOVA, principal component analysis (Farheen and Farooq, 2015), Exploratory Factor Analysis (Huang et al., 2015), structural equation modeling (Huang et al., 2015), Mann-Whitney U test (Lindfors et al., 2018) and chi-square test (Farheen and Farooq, 2015) were used to analyze data.

The qualitative studies relied only on content analysis (Galindo et al., 2017; Ozan et al., 2017) and triangulation (Khattar, 2019). These analyses were done through software such as SPSS, LISREL, and MPlus for quantitative data whereas qualitative data was managed by software such as Ethnography 6.0 and HyperRESEARCH.

### ***2.2.5 Paradigm Shift in Social Capital Research in Educational Landscape (2020-2023)***

The seven studies reviewed indicated an epistemological shift from positivist to interpretivist toward studying social capital in different contexts. The studies focused on the social capital effects through family-school-peer-state-community-civil society-business partnerships on environmental citizenship (Alkaher and Gan, 2020), well-being (Beausaert et al., 2023), educational expectation (Ding and Wu, 2023), emotional support (Martin et al., 2020), teacher education (Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020) and recruitment in universities (Laufer, 2020) shows the expansion of the scope of social capital research in educational context. Sakai-Bizmark et al. (2020) have examined the association of school social capital with smoking behaviours among grades V and X students. Though Coleman and Putnam's ideas and views continue to dominate the research turf on social capital, a divergence in the form of the inclusion of Bourdieuan concepts of capitals- financial, cultural, and symbolic along with the effect of social capital on all of these was found to be in prominence (Ding and Wu, 2023).

There was a shift observed in understanding social capital in different contexts and measures. The studies showed a paradigm shift from quantitative survey designs to case studies (Alkaher and Gan, 2020) and narrative research designs (Laufer, 2020; Martin

et al., 2020; Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020). The studies were found to be continuing the survey design (Beusaert et al., 2023) but reliance on secondary databases such as China Education Panel Survey (CEPS) (Ding and Wu, 2023), Resource Generator (Martin et al., 2020) or Healthy Passages Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (HPLSAH) (Sakai-Bizmark et al., 2020) was found to be still prevalent as a source of the sample. The sample in these studies ranged from 22 to 2813 participants. The responses from samples were collected by using a team of research aides (Alkahrer and Gan, 2020; Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020) and only one (Laufer, 2020) collected data through interviews individually.

The studies have continued to consider and use the responses of the surveys such as to identify the extent and measure social capital. The studies also use Cronbach alpha to measure the internal consistency of their scales (Beusaert et al., 2023; Ding and Wu, 2023). The usage of statistical and data management software such as HyperRESEARCH (Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020), R (Beusaert et al., 2023), SPSS (Ding and Wu, 2023), and MPlus (Ding and Wu, 2023) was prevalent. The analysis of all the quantitative data was done through descriptive statistics, regression (Sakai-Bizmark et al., 2020), structural equation modeling (Beusaert et al., 2023; Ding and Wu, 2023), confirmatory factor analysis (Ding and Wu, 2023), chi-square (Sakai-Bizmark et al., 2020; Ding and Wu, 2023), Maximum Likelihood Estimation (Beusaert et al., 2023), t-test (Sakai-Bizmark et al., 2020) whereas, qualitative data analysis was done through triangulation, content analysis (Alkahrer and Gan, 2020), and thematic analysis (Laufer, 2020).

### **2.3 Conceptual Implications of the Review**

Theoretically, social capital has come to be understood as a cumulative of the actual or probable resources (Bourdieu, 1986) which are rooted in networks that may be converted into other manifestations of capital, including economic capital (Bourdieu 1986), human capital (Coleman 1988), and civic participation (Putnam 2000). Portes (1998), Woolcock (1998), and Lin et al., (2001) agreed that the exchangeability of these resources is embedded within networks such as friendships which foster the generation of other kinds of capital (via social exchange). However, it was noted that the framework of most of the studies focused on the effect of social capital on academic behaviours such as educational attainment, aspirations, and achievement rather than focusing on the

relationships and networks itself that lead to the generation of social capital. The upcoming sub-sections will present the conceptual implication of the review by analysing the relationship between social capital and educational achievement, educational attainment, and educational-related psychosocial attributes.

### ***2.3.1 Impact of Social Capital on Academic Achievement***

There were ten studies that explored the relationship between social capital and educational achievement. Out of these, five studies explored the relationship between social capital and achievement through secondary data from NELS (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002), YiN 2002 (Huang, 2009) and 2010 (Huang et al., 2015), SCEAS (Behtoui and Neergaard, 2016), and KELS (Yang, 2017). In addition to this, there were studies that assess the effect of social capital on the achievement of subjects like Mathematics (Goodard, 2003; Yang, 2017; Hemmerechts et al., 2018), Korean (Yang, 2017), Finnish (Lindfors et al., 2018), and skills such as writing (Goodard, 2003).

Israel and Beaulieu (2002) found schools to be an important contributor to generating social capital. The studies showed that the school's social capital had a much more prominent role in enhancing the achievement of the learner (Huang, 2009). However, the denser friendships were observed to be contributors to an increase in bullying and truancy, therefore Huang (2009) reported that the peer social capital in school had a weakening effect on the educational achievement of socially disadvantaged students. Furthermore, it was found that school social capital played a prominent role in gender roles by positively influencing girls' education (Huang, 2009; Eng, 2013). The quality of social capital in schools affected the achievement of students through factors such as school size (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002), qualification and experience of teachers (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002), educational planning (Huang et al., 2015), quality of interaction with students and parents (Huang, 2009; Huang et al., 2015), school norms (Yang, 2017), opportunities in form for extracurricular activities (Huang, 2009), trust between teachers, administration, and students (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002), and socio-economic-cultural background of the students (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002).

There were studies that showed that the social capital generated in the family is affected by factors such as the size of the residence (Eng, 2013), family size (Huang et al., 2015; Hemmerechts et al., 2018), nature of the family (Huang et al., 2015; Hemmerechts et al., 2018), socio-economic status (Huang, 2009; Huang et al., 2015; Hemmerechts et al.,

2018), intergenerational closure (Hemmerechts et al., 2018; Lindfors et al., 2018), neighbourhood (Farheen and Farooq, 2015; Behtoui and Neergaard, 2016), parent-student interaction (Huang et al., 2015) parent educational expectations (Yang, 2017), norms (Goodard, 2003; Yang, 2017), number of siblings (Eng, 2013), gender (Eng, 2013), educational aspiration of parent (Eng, 2013), parent belief on fate (Eng, 2013), and parent involvement (Israel and Beaulieu, 2002; Eng, 2013; Huang et al., 2015).

Thus, the studies indicated a positive relationship between social capital and educational achievement. However, most studies overlapped their findings with family and school social capital on educational achievement. However, the familial factors were observed to be limited to have a socio-economic-cultural effect rather than cognitive. The school's social capital is presented with factors that require in-depth research to reach a conclusion about the manifestation of social capital in an educational setting.

### ***2.3.2 Influence of Social Capital on educational attainment***

There were nine studies that focused on the effect of social capital on educational attainment. The studies reported a positive effect of social capital on educational attainment (Hakim et al., 2012; Farheen and Farooq, 2015) and educational success (Tang, 2012; Roth, 2013).

The studies reported that social capital has a negative effect on the dropout rate (Ream and Rumberger, 2008; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014). This meant that the higher the social capital, the lesser will be the dropout of students from the education system. This was evident from the findings of the studies by (Tang, 2012; Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014), who reported that social capital abates social and educational inequalities resulting in an influx of students and their retention. This could be also explained that studies show that highly trustworthy climate (Lee, 2007; Hakim et al., 2012), open information channels (Hakim et al., 2012; Farheen and Farooq, 2015), bonding-bridging-linking (Tang, 2012; Farheen and Farooq, 2015), solidarity (Hakim et al., 2012), networking (Hakim et al., 2012; Farheen and Farooq, 2015), communitarianism (Farheen and Farooq, 2015), social cohesion (Hakim et al., 2012), a sense of security (Gesthuizen et al., 2008), encourages students and parents to participate in school activities (Cemalcilar and Goksen, 2014). Social capital was also found to have a positive influence on overall school performance (Lee, 2007) and school success (Lee, 2007).

Godoy et al., (2007) assumed that in schooling in pre-industrialized societies such as Tsimane of the Bolivian Amazon, social capital is expressed through gifts to people other than kin. Schooling, therefore, could produce an ambiguous effect on social capital that is more dependent upon gifts rather than labour by the kin. It was reported that schooling has no significant statistical effect on social capital.

To sum up, social capital has been demonstrated to positively impact aspects such as educational attainment, reduction of dropout, fostering social cohesion, participation in school activities, and many more, which are critical for a student's educational experience.

### ***2.3.3 Effect of Social Capital on education-related psychosocial attributes***

There were thirty studies that explored the relationship between social capital and different psychosocial attributes in the field of education. It was observed in three studies that school success is largely dependent upon bridging and linking social capital (Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020; Beausaert et al., 2023); to an extent on bonding social capital (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; van Rossem et al., 2015; Beausaert et al., 2023). This was manifested through social ties (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Poltacan and Balci, 2019), mutual obligation (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Shoji et al., 2014), a sense of shared identity and connection (Shoji et al., 2014; Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Poltacan and Balci, 2019), solidarity (Shoji et al., 2014; Poltacan and Balci, 2019), trust (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Carney et al., 2011; Ekinci, 2012; Fuller, 2014; Shoji et al., 2014; Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Khattar, 2019; Poltacan and Balci, 2019; Beausaert et al., 2023) and reciprocity (Onyx and Bullen, 2000; Arriaza and Rocha, 2016; Khattar, 2019).

A few studies showed a positive interaction between an educational institution and the community, that can lead to the generation of social capital in the form of long-term connections (Shan et al., 2012; Alkaher and Gan, 2020; Tinkler and Tinkler, 2020), and democratic values such as association (Paxton, 2002). There were seven studies that showed a positive influence of social capital on aspiration including student engagement (Ream and Rumberger, 2008), parent qualification (Fuller, 2014), parental expectation (Chesters and Smith, 2015; Shahidul et al., 2015), parent engagement (Galindo et al., 2017), the mental health of parents (Yamaguchi, 2013), parent-student discussion on school issues (Shahidul et al., 2015), parents help in homework (Shahidul et al., 2015), parent participation in schools (Shahidul et al., 2015), parent-student talk about future

(Shahidul et al., 2015), parent socio-economic background (Chesters and Smith, 2015; Shahidul et al., 2015), and family norms (Shahidul et al., 2015). Shahidul et al. (2015) also observed that the family's social capital has more influence on a child as compared to that of the school's social capital.

This was a stark contrast to the observations of Chesters and Smith (2015) who reported that though the positive effect of parental occupation and education has a positive effect on the child's aspiration it is the peers and school through organizing extracurricular activities that increase the scope of developing social capital. Ding and Wu (2023), also reported an insignificant effect of family social capital on educational expectations, parent help in homework, attendance of children, and interaction of children with their peers as compared to the peer and school social capital. Thus, it is important that the school (Ream and Rumberger, 2008; Arriaza and Rocha, 2016) ensures the organization of intentional and meaningful activities. Relationships that are inherent in neighbourhood and community in the form of intergenerational closure (Parcel and Dufur, 2001; Vieno et al., 2010) can positively influence psychosocial adjustments such as alleviating antisocial behaviour (Parcel and Dufur, 2001; Vieno et al., 2010; Sakai-Bizmark et al., 2020) and psychosocial well-being (Yamaguchi, 2013).

A school, on the other hand, stands on the tripartite interaction between the principals, teachers, and students. There were six studies that observed the positive influence of social capital in the form of increased motivation (Ozan et al., 2017), innovative climate (Poltacan and Balci, 2019), job opportunities (Laufer, 2020), improved job satisfaction (Ozan et al., 2017) and organizational information channels (Ekinci, 2012), well-being (Beausaert et al., 2023) and better-quality work life (Khattar, 2019). The good side of social capital in school was also found to be dependent upon the extent of participation in decision-making in school (Ozan et al., 2017), tolerance of differences (Ekinci 2012; Ozan et al., 2017), norms (Ekinci, 2012; Ozan et al., 2017), sense of belonging (Ozan et al., 2017), educational qualification of the teachers (Shahidul et al., 2015) and teaching experience of teachers (Shahidul et al., 2015). An environment of mistrust and conflict in school was found to increase the incidences of bullying which in turn decreases the social capital both at the individual and classroom levels (Carney et al., 2011).

The few reviewed studies reported that a good student-teacher relationship, indicative of social capital positively affected their school adjustments (van Rossem et al., 2015),

social connections (Wang, 2008), educational opportunities (Dika and Martin, 2018), and career choices (Martin et al., 2020). On the other hand, a positive impact between students in terms of social capital was found to be influencing positively personality factors such as agreeableness (Seevers et al., 2015), extraversion (Seevers et al., 2015), psychosocial adjustments (Wu et al., 2011) and educational expectations (Ream and Rumberger, 2008; Ding and Wu, 2023).

Therefore, the above analysis shows that social capital is positively linked to psychosocial attributes such as educational expectations, aspiration, normative behaviour, and others. The studies focused on the influence of social capital at the school level, family level, and community level. Even though contrasting results have been presented, one can deduce that the well-being of an individual is dependent not only on the family but also on the school and community at large.

#### **2.4 Methodological Implications of the Review**

Portes (1998) and Morrow (1999) criticized the paradoxical definition of social capital by Coleman (1988) which incepted an erratic chain reaction of studies. Coleman (1988) conceived the idea of social capital by utilizing High School and Beyond (HSB) data to show the effect of social capital on dimensions of trust, norms, intergenerational closure, and networks. By following Coleman's path, most of the studies have relied on secondary databases such as NELS, CEPS, KELLS, NLSY, YiN, and many more. At the same time, some studies have used Cronbach alpha to measure the internal consistency of scales, and questionnaires. The absence of Validity, specifically construct validity, remains a cause of concern as neither the survey databases employed nor the indicators in them such as family size, and the number of siblings, etc. present an accurate picture of nature and factors leading up to the development of social capital from the process of socialization. The survey designs have used scales and even subscales, which again limits the responses of the participants. The nature of interviews conducted in some of the survey designs did not provide a clear picture as to what actions by the people led to the possession of social capital, especially in an educational setting.

The studies have tried to understand the social capital effects of individuals, educational institutions, families, neighbourhoods, or communities on different educational-related aspects, but could not point out the clear picture of possession of what type of social capital could lead to desirable educational outcomes. The studies presented a positive

effect of social capital on educational achievement, school success, well-being, belongingness, and others across gender, race, and community. Such uniform findings across the studies raise a question as to whether social capital generates, manifests, and sustains in the same way across all social contexts. Thus, it is important to note that the indicators used were derived from different continents and different social settings, hence it becomes necessary to contextualize the research on social capital.

It was observed that most of the studies employed the assistance of a team of research assistants to collect data through surveys, interview the participants, and even transcribe the interviews. According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), working in a team ensures a deeper penetration in the field with respect to access to the participants. This ensures that the study conducted gives more productive and valid results. It was observed that even studies that adopted qualitative methodologies, such as narrative research and case studies relied on pre-meditated indicators and conducted interviews and observations around them. This again points out biases and the ‘finding what I want to find’ attitude.

The studies have used sophisticated statistical tools such as regression models and structural equation models. These analyses can present the findings based on an existing tool that the researcher(s) have administered with a pre-conceived notion about the existence of social capital and its dimensions. This directly undermines the principle of doing research objectively and free from bias.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

Society does not function as a water-tight compartment, yet it is important to see the effect of each component to understand its proper function. As social capital continues to be an enigma, we cannot let our fascination with the past govern our present way of conducting a study on social capital. In the educational context, the focal point is the student, who largely depends on the teachers, principal, peers, and other members for the fulfilment of the needs that ultimately affect education and zeal to learn. Therefore, it requires undertaking an idiographic approach such as a case study to derive meaning to social capital in each social context. An in-depth study at a micro-level through participatory observation, informal conversations, interviews, and other qualitative data collection tools would be helpful to understand how social capital inheres in school and affects its stakeholders, teaching-learning processes, aspirations and school related engagements.