

**THE IMPACT OF POST ELECTION VIOLENCE ON
EDUCATION IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF THE NORTH-
RIFT REGION OF THE RIFT VALLEY PROVINCE**

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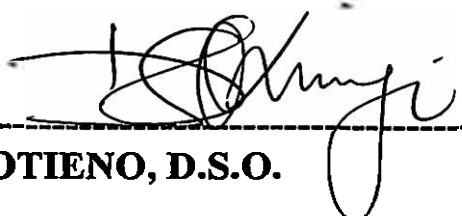
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DECLARATION

This research work is my original work and has not been submitted for a diploma/degree in any other university.

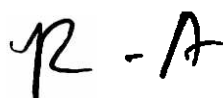


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This research work has been submitted for examination with our approval as University Supervisor(s)



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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to Albright, my Dad, Alex & The Late Prof. Robert M. Ayot

Acknowledgments

This research was undertaken under the guidance of my supervisors; Dr. Anne Aseey and The Late Prof. Robert M. Ayot who took their time to instruct me and read through my work, the University of Nairobi for giving me the opportunity to carry out an independent study. CARE-Kenya for their support in the field, my family for their patience, UNICEF-Kenya, colleagues Ann kinani, Josfine ondieki, Edna, an administrator at the Centre for Distance Learning, at the school of Education and Distance Learning, Kikuyu Campus, University of Nairobi. My research assistant, Mr. John Andrew relentlessly pursued data in every challenging context providing important basic information for this study. The work was undertaken with the support of Ms. Rose Bore, information assistant at the world bank information centre. She delivered regular comments and inputs from a wide range of people in the bank, most of whom were education consultants on issues of effects of conflict in education. My work was also supported by my colleagues who provided invaluable help all through the study. The help and assistance of the Staff at the Jomo-Kenyatta Memorial Library, Kikuyu Library, and at the Kenya National Library Services in the search of relevant information is invaluable. Without mentioning everybody, am indeed grateful to all of you whom I encountered.

Abstract

The relationship between education systems and conflict presents policy makers with a conundrum. Schools are almost always complicit in conflict. They reproduce skills, values, attitudes and social relations of dominant groups in society; accordingly, they are usually a contributory factor in conflict. Simultaneously, reconstructing and reforming education is increasingly viewed as a critical element in the strategy to reduce the risk of conflict or relapse into conflict. The central message in this paper therefore is that conflict presents not only challenges for reconstruction, but also significant opportunities for reform of education systems. The challenge of simultaneous reform and reconstruction at a time of constrained human, financial, and institutional resources and considerable urgency calls for particular attention priorities and sequencing of inter-ventions. Short-term immediate responses need to be conceptualized within a framework that provides for more substantial systematic reform as the new political vision emerges and system capacity is built.

Conceptualizing conflict as 'development in reverse' should be analyzed in the context of its impact on development. Reducing poverty and decreasing reliance on primary commodity exports, both of which require a functioning and effective education system have been shown to be critical strategies for reducing the risk of conflict. Ethnic and religious dominance rather than diversity is also a powerful contributory factor in civil conflict; education has a key role in mediating or deepening ethnic, religious, socio-economic differences or other identity-based conflicts. Education that helps build stronger resilience to conflict is therefore a critical strategy for postconflict reconstruction.

It goes without say, that conflict has a devastating impact on education, both directly in terms of suffering and psychological impact on pupils, teachers and communities, and in the degradation of the education system and its infrastructure. Yet these same educational systems are expected to make a significant contribution to rebuilding a shattered society at a time when they themselves are debilitated by the effects of conflict. Fortunately, as I will be showing in this study, schools and education systems are surprisingly resilient. And that the disruption caused by conflict offers opportunities and challenges for social reconstruction.

This paper is to offered as a contribution to the growing attention about the effect of violence on education. Included are findings of a study of education and postconflict reconstruction, drawing from literature reviews, a database of key indicators for 12 conflict affected countries in Africa, and a review of 5 country studies. The countries studied vary in terms of their present conflict status and the length, intensity and extent of conflict. Key issues in the country's study include ethnic and religious identity, politicization of education, competition for scarce natural resources especially land, minerals, water, and probable continuity of civil authority and civil administration.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AU	African Union
CAF	Conflict Analysis Framework
CSO	Civil society organization
EDUCA	Education with Community Participation Program
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information Systems
EQUIP	Education Quality Improvement Project
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
IDA	International Development Association
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
KNHCR	Kenya National Commission on Human Rights
NGO	Nongovernmental organization
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MPLA	Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola
PNA	Preliminary Needs Assessment
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
REBEP	Rehabilitation of Basic Education Project
SPLA/M	Sudanese People Liberation Association/Movement
TSS	Transportation Support Strategies
UPC	Universal Primary Completion
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNECO IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNITA	National Union for the Total Independence of Angola

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Conflict constitutes a major obstacle to the achievement of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially the sector goals of universal completion of primary education and achievement of gender parity in primary and secondary education (Unicef 2004). The central pillar in this paper is that education has a key role both in conflict prevention and in the reconstruction of post-conflict societies. It warrants high priority in both humanitarian responses and in postconflict reconstruction because every education system has the potential to exacerbate the conditions that contribute to violent conflict, as well as the potential to address them (EDA 1986). Ignoring education or postponing educational response for some later phase is not an option.

Irrespective of whether schools and education systems were a contributory factor in a conflict, they invariably are debilitated by conflict. They are left weakened, damaged, and underresourced at the precise time when communities, governments and international agencies require them to play a role in rebuilding and transforming themselves and the societies they serve (World Social Report 2004). This twin mandate of reform and reconstruction offers both significant opportunities and enormous challenges to societies emerging from conflict. Maximizing those opportunities and managing those constraints calls for strategies that balance prioritization and sequencing in a context of depleted human and institutional resources and unpredictable financial flows (Unesco 2004).

This paper is based on a preliminary study I undertook. The study, will build on work already undertaken by UNICEF, UNESCO, IIEP and the Department of Human Development Network Education of the World Bank, draws on the review of the literature, a database of countries affected by conflict since 1990, and a set of country studies. These include countries emerging from conflict (Angola, Rwanda, Burundi, Sierra Leone, Southern Sudan, Liberia, East Timor, Bosnia, Kosovo); and countries that have a longer history of postconflict reconstruction (Cambodia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Lebanon, and Nicaragua).

Consideration is given to how some of these lessons might apply to my country Kenya, that is emerging from a recent short but extremely destructive conflict.

The conflict-affected countries that have been referred to in this study vary significantly with regard to length and intensity of the conflict. Rwanda for example experienced a relatively short period of 3 months of intense conflict while Angola, Cambodia and Guatemala have experienced up to 3 decades of conflict. In Kosovo and East Timor, there were culminations of a decade or more of repression and resistance(Ungar S. 1986).

In Liberia, Bosnia, Kosovo and Cambodia, intensified conflict was wide spread, and many urban and rural schools were directly affected. Here in Kenya, it was the complete opposite. Although this holds true to the Kenyan scenario too, most areas afflicted by violence were in urban settings; Kisumu, Nairobi, Nakuru, Eldoret, Naivasha, Kakamega, Bungoma, Kapsabet etc., leading to a massive exodus of people from townships hitherto not 'theirs' back to their rural ancestral homes. Except for townships in Central Kenya, Eastern and North Eastern Provinces, the rest of Kenya experienced violence, albeit mild.

Ethnic and religious identities, politically-based struggles, and resource – fuelled conflict also impact educational reconstruction. While I do not attempt to summarize the complex network of factors that contribute to each conflict, it is clear that conflicts where ethnic identity emerge as an explicit dimension of struggle place particular demands on educational reconstruction, particularly with respect to language and curriculum (Kriemer A 1988).

Politically driven conflict have a powerful effect on reconstruction. In Kenya, the existing state authority essentially survived the conflict and was able to apply its institutional resources to policy development and educational continuity. In East Timor, Kosovo and Cambodia, educational reconstruction had to take place in parallel with reestablishment of civil authority and administration. Accordingly, the pace and pattern of reform and relationships between internal and external factors differ considerably(World Bank 2006).

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.

One of the most devastating impacts of violent conflicts is the damage it inflicts on education systems and the children and students they serve. Global statistics show that more than two million children have died as a result of direct conflict in the last decade alone. At least six million have been seriously injured or permanently incapacitated. In Kenya, it is estimated that about 40% of all those killed either in the line of fire or by marauding gangs during the violence were school going children. Long after the war, the lives of students and teachers continue to be imperilled. Some areas even become 'no-go' zones for the 'outsiders'.

Teachers often bear a heavy cost in times of conflict. In Rwanda for example, more than two thirds of the teacher population in primary and secondary schools were killed or fled. In Cambodia, the impact was even greater leaving the system with virtually no trained or experienced teachers. In East Timor, the impact on teacher numbers of that relatively short conflict was uneven: in primary schools, 80% of the teachers were Timorese and remained, while almost all secondary school teachers were Indonesian. The failure of the Indonesian teachers to return left East Timor with almost no trained or qualified personnel for its secondary system and no access to tertiary education (EDA 07).

Back in Kenya, official figures are still contradictory. But conservative figures from UNICEF indicate that more than ten thousand teachers were displaced. Tens of hundreds more who taught at middle level and higher institutions of learning were also thrown out for being 'outsiders'. Children were hardest hit. It is estimated that more than fifty thousand secondary school going children and over one hundred and fifty thousand primary school children were affected. These were the results of a conflict that lasted only five weeks. Despite the slowly returning normalcy, most of them have not returned to their work/learning stations or adopted homes and have opted for safer places. Others have even opted to change or transfer from zones considered not 'theirs' (KNHCR 2008).

Education commands high priority in both the initial humanitarian phase of national and international response and in this postconflict rebuilding phase. Every education system has

the potential to either aggravate the conditions that lead to violent conflict or heal them. The unavoidable conclusion MUST be that ignoring education or postponing it, is not an option (World Bank 2004).

Even when it is part of a humanitarian response, education is a development activity and must be undertaken with a developmental perspective. This is the naked fact if it is to contribute to reversing the damage and building resilience to prevent further violent conflict. Yet schools and education systems, whether they were a contributory factor to a conflict, are invariably debilitated by conflict. They are left weakened, damaged and underresourced at precisely the time when communities, governments and inter-national agencies need them to help rebuild and transform themselves and the societies they serve. This twin mandate of reform and reconstruction offers both significant opportunities and enormous challenges to societies emerging from conflict. There is now strong recognition that early investment in education is a prerequisite for successful postconflict reconstruction (Unicef 2007).

With an addition on the poor social cohesion and suspicion among the people, conflict leaves the country on a delicate position (World Social Report 2007). A wrong decision made somewhere and a careless statement thrown in another corner by politicians, religious and (or) opinion leaders, could plunge the country into further conflict. Yet this is not what is desired as a country tries to get back to its feet after the violence and displacement of people. It is from such a background that this study is based. Also to be explored is how education can be used to help in the reconstruction.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The results of this study will benefit scholars who wish to do further research on the effects of violence on education and the entire educational system.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The general objective of the study was to determine the effects of violent conflict on education and educational systems.

Specific objectives were;

- To investigate the effects of conflict in the society and particularly on education.
- To find out the possible causes of decent and conflict in society.
- To suggest what measures to be put in place to eliminate chances of conflict recurrence
- To make suggestions and recommendations on how recurrence of conflict can be avoided.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research seeks to bring forth the following questions:

- What is the relationship between education and conflict?
- What are the efforts being made to incorporate Peace Education, Conflict resolution and Mediation in the curriculum?
- What are the training needs of teachers and facilitators in school programs with regard to peace education in schools?
- What measures to be put in place to eliminate chances of conflict recurrence through education?

1.5 BASIC ASSUMPTION

The study assumes that the respondents will give honest, truthful and accurate response to the questions asked.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

My work builds substantially on recent World Bank and UNICEF studies on “Children, War, Education & Challenges”; and a range of global publications looking more broadly at the issue of reconstruction and development.

Building on the existing work, this study also focuses on challenges of postconflict reconstruction and its linkage to social and economic reconstruction, social cohesion rebuilding and conflict prevention. The study will also offer a digest of key issues supported by specific examples to guide policy makers and practitioners, identify a number of neglected areas that warrant more systematic focus, and suggest some priority areas for Kenya in the immediate future.

Investigated are the effects of violent conflict on education. Education should also aim at the mutual goals of the entire nation. This is essential because the nation can develop only when the people’s interest are fulfilled. The nation’s main resources are its people and their interest cannot be neglected. Mutual goals simultaneously provide for growth and development of the nation as well as of those human resources.

This study will provide a basis upon stability of the nation should be laid. That is; peaceful co-existence among people and communities in the country. It goes on to show that education has a role to play either as a forward social development tool in society or an instrument to enhance ‘development in reverse’ if mishandled by those in authority given its enormous social impact amongst the people of a nation.

Suggestions are also put forward on how the government and the communities can improve social cohesion, peace building and reconstruction.

1.7 DELIMINATION OF THE STUDY

This study is only confined to parts of the North Rift, particularly Eldoret, and Burnt Forest. The findings therefore may not be appropriately applied for generalization in other countries.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines previous studies of literature related to the current study. It highlights major factors that affect educational management from previous studies. This summarized literature review has apparently helped to clarify some important issues that have been observed by other researchers in this area of educational challenges.

2.01 Risk Factors Affecting Conflict, Poverty, and Education

Conflict has been conceptualized as 'development in reverse' and should be analyzed in the context of its impact on development. Reducing poverty and decreasing reliance on primary commodity system, have been shown to be critical strategies for reducing the risk of conflict. Ethnic and religious dominance rather than diversity is also a powerful contributory factor in civil conflict; education has a key role in mediating or deepening ethnic, and other identity based conflicts. Civil war itself increases the likelihood of further outbreaks of violence. Education that helps to build resilience to conflict is a critical strategy for reducing the risk of relapse into violent conflict (World Bank 2003).

Conflict affects countries at all levels of economic development, but it disproportionately affects developing countries or countries in economic stagnation. Conflicts vary widely in their nature, extent, duration, range of contributory factors, and the ways in which they impact on education. The Uppsala dataset of Armed conflict (1946-2001), identified 52 countries that have been affected by war or intermediate conflict since 1990. These countries were then compared on the United Nations Development Programme's (UNDPs) Human Development Index that combines a number of indicators of social and economic development into a single index and ranks countries accordingly (World Bank 2003).

60% of countries rated "low" on the Human development Index have been involved in conflict since 1990, in contrast to less than 25% of 84 countries that have a "medium" rating. The impact of conflict has been felt in every region. But Africa and Central and

Eastern Europe have been particularly affected. More than half the wars have been fought in these two regions, both of which include a high proportion of economies that have declined or stagnated in the past decade (World Bank 2003). Economic stagnation or decline preceded the outbreak of conflict in most of the case study countries. Some of the factors identified in the World Bank 2003 Report include:

i) Economic Factors – Reducing poverty is critical for reducing likelihood of civil war. Economic diversification requires the development of new and flexible skills and competencies that require a functioning and efficient education system.

ii) Identity – Based Factors – Ethnic and religious diversity in cases of domination and polarization is high. Education systems and schools often stand accused of deepening conflict among ethno-social groups.

iii) Civil War Factors – Zones that have experienced civil strife/war in preceding times are almost twice as likely to experience rebellion. If education is to have an impact on reducing the likelihood of conflict, the reconstruction and simultaneous reform of the entire system must begin at the earliest possible stage.

iv) Educational Factors – Schools and educational systems can create or exacerbate conditions contributing to conflict. Recognizing the role that schools and educational systems play in reproducing many of the factors underlie much civil conflict. Skills, values, attitudes, and social relationships of dominant groups produced in schools and society are often a contributory factor in conflict. Inadequate educational provisions, ethnic, racial or other forms of discrimination; distorted curricula; and frustrated expectations exacerbate existing social tensions or may themselves generate new sources of tension in society. In Burundi, for example, unequal education access on ethnic lines was a critical factor in influencing the outbreak of war. Jackson (2000) notes that “...if access to education remains unequal for Hutu, Tutsi and Twa, and if glaring disparities in education provision between different provinces persist, the exclusion that is the root of Burundi’s conflict will remain and any peace agreement will be short-lived.” The

disparity and the tertiary level was a particular source of resentment, with Tutsi students, a minority in the population, constituting a majority of university students.

Sri Lanka offers a good example of curriculum changes serving as an explicit issue in conflict. There was a shift in the medium of instruction to the national languages in the 1950s and 60s that "...resulted in fewer opportunities for interaction between Sinhalese and Tamil children and youth. This made it impossible to communicate leading to alienation and mutual suspicion." (Wickrema and Colenso 2003). In the 1970s, the extremely limited access to tertiary education based on strict quotas led to a reduction in the number of Tamil students gaining admission to universities, with adverse consequences: These developments, with the depressed economic conditions and high unemployment of the mid 70s, provided a fertile ground for the birth of youthful Tamil separatist groups including the Tamil Tigers." (World Bank 1998).

Education can, however, play a key role in several of the factors that build resilience to conflict in societies. Among high conflict risk indicators include; high youth unemployment and poor social and ethnic relations (The World Bank's Conflict Analysis Framework[CAF]). Education systems and institutions have a critical impact on youth employment and on social and ethnic relations.

2.02 Characteristics of Resilience to Conflict.

The following are the four major characteristics of a society that is resilient to violent conflict:

- Political and social institutions that are inclusive, equitable, and accountable
- Economic, social, and ethnic diversity rather than polarization and dominance
- Growth and development that provide equitable benefits across society
- A culture of dialogue rather than violence (Wickrema and Colenso 2003)

Education is a key social institution that is impacted by and can influence each of these characteristics. Just as education has the potential to be a contributory factor in violent conflict, it also has the potential to instil new values, attitudes, skills and behaviour as well as help to promote new social relations that will build resilience to conflict.

Education can help to reduce economic, social, and ethnic polarization, promote equitable growth and development, and build a culture of dialogue rather than violence. Ensuring that schooling and education systems play a constructive role requires a closer understanding of the way in which conflict impacts education system (Unicef 2006).

2.03 The Destructive Impact of Conflict on Education

Conflict has a devastating impact on education, both in terms of the suffering and psychological impact on the pupils, teachers and communities, and in the degradation of the education systems and its infrastructure. Yet it has also been demonstrated that schools and education systems are surprisingly resilient, and the disruption caused by the conflict offers the opportunities as well as challenges for social reconstruction (Cromwell A.J. 2000).

Schools rarely escape the ravages of violence. The first and most obvious impact of conflict on education is the loss of life and physical and psychological trauma experienced by teachers, students, parents, and communities either directly as targets of war or indirectly as victims in the crossfire. The havoc on the lives of students and teachers lasts long after the violence ends (Wickrema and Colenso 2003).

The teaching forces are severely debilitated by conflict. In Rwanda, more than two-thirds of teachers in primary and secondary school were either killed or fled; in Cambodia, the carnage was even more severe leaving the system with almost no trained or experienced teachers. In East Timor, the impact on the teacher numbers of that relatively short conflict was uneven. In primary schools, 80% of the teachers were Timorese and remained; however, almost all the teachers in secondary schools were Indonesian and their failure to return left the system with almost no trained or qualified personnel for its secondary schools and no access to tertiary education. Kenya was no exception. More than 3000 teachers and over a hundred and fifty thousand children displaced in conflict affected zones (UNICEF 2008).

However, except in cases of genocide or extremely low initial enrolment rates, the impact on the teaching force is often more qualitative than quantitative. The challenge for most

countries in postconflict reconstruction is not recruitment of new teachers, but improving the quality of the teaching force in terms of qualifications, experience and competence (Tawil and Harley, 2004). The extended period of conflict and extremely low enrolment rates, mean that the output of the secondary system cannot keep pace with the demand for primary teachers. It cannot also grow at a fast enough pace until the cohorts of pupils from the expanded primary school system reach secondary school age to train as teachers.

The demand for teaching positions and teachers tend to grow rapidly during early postconflict reconstruction. This' so because returnees, demobilized combatants and the unemployed turn to a very constricted labour market. Rationalization and redistribution rather than large-scale recruitment are the most common teacher management problems facing educational authorities. However, considerable numbers of teachers who don't meet minimum qualifications continue to teach as 'volunteer teachers,' usually supported by communities (Wickrema and Colenso 2003).

While teacher numbers may even grow and pupil-to-teacher ratios decline during conflict and its aftermath, the quality of the teaching force frequently suffers. Teacher development is an early casualty of conflict, and the impact is long term. This includes both in-service training and initial teacher training. As a result, even where teacher numbers grow, the teacher qualification levels, often low to begin with, tend to drop significantly. By the end of the conflict, for example, only 50% of Lebanon's teachers were qualified, a pattern found in most conflict-affected areas. In addition, well qualified teachers may be induced to by emerging employment opportunities to leave the profession and may be replaced by unqualified or underqualified persons (Tawey & Alley 1986).

Displacements, either within the country's borders or across borders, place enormous pressure on education systems and results in loss of many learning days. Globally, there are at least 30 million displaced persons, of which half are cross-border refugees and the rest are internally displaced (World Bank 2006). Kenya herself had about 600,000 people of her own internally displaced with an estimated 3,000 taking refuge in neighbouring Uganda (KNCHR

2008). Population shifts precipitated by conflict often are not easily reversed after conflict and may result in rapid urbanization with congestion of urban schools and depopulation of rural areas. Conflict has the effect of eroding the core values of societies. Children are orphaned, or separated from parents; teachers and children traumatized by violence; education systems and curricula politicized; and culture of violence is reflected in school practices and even books.

The immediate symptoms are often quickly recognized in post conflict contents in the form of blatant exclusion or curriculum distortions that are manifested in biased textbooks. However, the erosion of core values penetrates much more deeply and has a longer lasting impact than these peripheral symptoms. War transforms the role of children and youth in ways that become extremely difficult to reverse. In a context where families and communities are often divided or displaced by the upheaval of conflict, schools are seen as key institutions that will play the major role in rebuilding core values, in instilling new democratic principles, and in helping children recover lost childhood (Unicef 2004).

Conflict is enormously destructive of educational infrastructure and buildings. East Timor, which experienced a short but intense spasm of violence following the independence referendum in 2000, is one of the most extreme examples, with an estimated 95% of classrooms destroyed or seriously damaged in the conflict. Schools and classrooms are often targeted in civil conflict because they are seen to represent state. They also suffer damage from a range of other causes; as public buildings they are often used for storage, looted or occupied by the displaced. In Kenya, schools in Eldoret and Kapsabet were burnt or completely destroyed.

In many cases it is difficult to differentiate between damage resulting directly from violent conflict, and years or decades of official neglect in the period prior to and during the conflict. In Iraq, the deterioration of primary and secondary school infrastructure was largely a consequence of neglect. At the tertiary level, this was compounded by extensive looting during the violent aftermath of the collapse of the Saddam regime. In Afghanistan, the effect of decades of conflict was a failure to carry out expansion of the system capacity that

neighbouring countries undertook in the 1980s and 90s. The backlog of physical capacity and trained teachers left the country with a legacy that will take decades to address. Whatever the cause, post conflict reconstruction almost invariably requires extensive capital investment to effect the repairs and rehabilitation of the buildings and physical infrastructure (EDA 2007).

Enrolment Rates. Conflict always involves a significant decline in enrolment rates during periods of intense conflict. Reliable data is very rare, but the general pattern is that periods of intensified conflict see precipitous declines in enrolment in all levels. However, there is evidence of rapid recovery as intensity levels decline, even before the peace agreements delivered consolidated stability. In Burundi, there was a rapid decline in enrolment rates following the crisis in 1993, followed by a fairly steady recovery.

The period of conflict saw stagnation in enrolments during conflicts in El Salvador and Guatemala so that by 1989, both countries had only made limited progress on expanding primary enrolment, secondary and tertiary enrolments were below the regional averages. Nicaragua, on the other hand, made significant progress in expanding primary access even during the years of the conflict, climbing from 58% Gross Enrolment Rates in the 1970s to 94% by 1989. This was partly as a result of a determined campaign of the Sandanista government, and partly a result of significant international support from donors eager to support the populist program (Marques and Bannon 2003).

One impact of conflict on education systems is the imbalance in the systems among primary, secondary and tertiary subsectors. While enrolment rates in primary schooling normally decline as a result of conflict, enrolments in secondary and tertiary levels tend to collapse more drastically for a number of reasons including:

- Students in secondary and tertiary levels are more often closer to conscription age and are frequently among the early cohorts of recruits into militias.
- Students are often involved, especially at the tertiary level as activists in the political struggle that precede conflict, and so universities and postsecondary institutions tend to be targeted more often.

- Secondary and tertiary institutions are more expensive to operate and maintain and are less likely to be able to subsist on community resources as official resources for education decline.

Capacity Building. It is the accumulated backlogs in human and institutional capacity that add most significantly to the burden of post-conflict reconstruction. The damage to the physical infrastructure is one of the easily rectified forms of conflict damage. More challenging is the deterioration in human and institutional capacity-building that is the lifeblood of any education system. Teacher training often collapses, learners drop out; management development, training and policy development break down, and resources are channelled to military expenditure and away from education, leaving the system without books and learning materials; unpaid teachers, and schools go unsupervised. In East Timor, 20% of primary school teachers, 80% of secondary school teachers and almost all management officials were Indonesian. They left when the conflict erupted and never returned.(Bannon 1990)

Data Collection and Integrity. With a serious depletion of management capacity, there arises serious loss of records and management information. The instability preceding conflict, in conjunction with disruption created during conflict, have a very serious impact on educational data for planning and policy. Even in countries where education data was systematically collected before the conflict, the decline or collapse of civil administration in all or part of the country often results in large gaps in policy and planning data, and even official distortions or wilful destruction of official data as happened in Kosovo (Bannon 1990).

On the other hand, in Burundi, official statistics were published for every year even through the most serious phases of conflict, and the challenge for reconstruction is in determining the validity of the official data. In Iraq, many officials took their official computers home and were able to help partially restore some information systems, although not enough to counteract the effect of the extensive looting and burning of headquarters and other official buildings.

System Management and Development – is usually brought to a stand-still during conflict, as administration and supervision of learning are disrupted and policy development is suspended, distorted by competing political agendas, or fragmented. Education systems, often highly centralized prior to conflict, frequently experience fragmentation as the management systems, communication and control are disrupted. Management and administrative structures wither or are prevented from operating; policy and curriculum development often grind to a halt, leaving, in the case of extended conflict, outdated policies, inappropriate and inadequate curricula, and neglected deteriorating infrastructure. Sri Lanka offers an exception to this general trend. As policy development and reform accelerated during the latter stages of conflict some reforms were even implemented in conflict-affected areas, although coverage and depth were lacking (Marques 2003).

Gender Dynamics – in relation to war and conflict is an intricate and complex issue. It is also a critical dimension of the interaction between education and conflict. During conflict, girls take on unconventional roles as their mothers cope with survival needs of their families or have to serve as heads of households. For girls, getting to and from school becomes even a personal safety hazard during periods of conflict and during the instability of early reconstruction.

- Girls are often at a greater disadvantage in terms of access to primary school. This is even higher at the secondary and tertiary levels. These inequalities also reflect the development conditions and gender relations of a country prior to conflict and are compounded by conflict. In Angola, gender disparities favoured men in both rural and urban areas. The percentage of girls who did not complete grade four in urban areas was four times higher than that of men (UNICEF 2002). The gender gap was consistently in favour of boys throughout the war period. The percentage though narrowed down slightly from 13% in 1994 to about 7% in 2000. This was largely as a result of a more rapid decline in boys' enrolment rather than any net gains by girls. Post conflict Angola continues to struggle with gender inequality. The government introduced adult education schools and a positive discrimination quota to improve access among female students. The number of female professionals in areas previously dominated by men has increased (SADC 2002). However, a substantial

population of Angolan women remain illiterate, uneducated, and suffering the consequences of war.

- The case of Burundi shows that the closing of the gender gap is a consequence not of the increased access of girls, but of greater decline in the rate of enrolment by boys. It is worth noting that as the declining level of conflict permits more children to return to school, the gender gap widens again to near preconflict levels.

Quality – rather than access, is the most profound and lasting impact of conflict on primary education. It tends to deteriorate as qualified teachers disperse, learning materials and suppliers become less available, and the length of the school day is reduced to accommodate two or more shifts per day. The legacy of dropout and repetition, disrupted attendance, and overage students greatly outlasts the frequently quite rapid recovery of enrolment rates. Outdated and inappropriate curricula, inadequately prepared teachers, collapsed teacher training, support and supervision services, and poor alignment of the system to development needs of the country continue to under-mine the quality of learning for many years after the problem of access has been addressed (KNHCR Report 2008).

2.04 Surprising Resilience of the Education System

A striking feature of education during conflict is that it never grinds to a halt for an extended period. As public systems collapse under the effects of conflict, schooling continues to be supported by communities. They see the benefits of education in helping to restore a sense of normalcy in the midst of chaos and providing a protective environment and sense of continuity for young people (Wickrema and Colenso 2003). The most dramatic exception to this was Cambodia, where schooling ground to a complete halt and teachers were systematically killed. In Guatemala, el Salvador, and Sri Lanka, rebel militia movements recognized the potential propaganda value of schooling and supported rebel schools; communities also continued to struggle to provide for schooling even in the most difficult conditions, using alternative accommodation and flexible or multiple shifts. In areas not directly affected by conflict, schooling generally continues, albeit with reduced public support and a consequent deterioration on quality. Bosnia, Kosovo and Sierra Leone introduced shorter school days to accommodate double or triple sessions. Kosovar refugees arriving in

Albania and Macedonia quickly set up schools to ensure continuity during the intensified conflict and NATO bombings in 1999/2000 (World Social Report 1998).

This resilience may be reflected in continued schooling during conflict, but equity, access, and quality usually go down. Poorer families and child-headed households are often unable to meet the rising costs of schooling. Both children and the youth are withdrawn to join militias or other labour, or increased poverty or child-care responsibilities tend to magnify/distort existing gender and other inequities. Conflict affected areas fall behind areas of the country not directly affected by conflict, and rural-urban inequities are exacerbated. Enrolment rates and schooling always seem to recover rapidly even in areas that were affected by intense conflict. In the short term, education access suffers seriously as a result of conflict leaving a lasting impact and development lag. However, primary schooling is quickly restored to preconflict levels (World Social Report 1998).

The general trend from figures is upward, with higher primary enrolment rates in the years following conflict than in the year before. Sierra Leone, although badly affected by the conflict, was able to report a 260% growth in primary enrolment over 10 previous years, within two years of the end of conflict (Musker 2003). This again gives evidence of relative resilience of the primary sector and also the probable international priority placed on restoring primary schooling. Angola and Burundi, countries that were still experiencing residual conflict despite ongoing peace talks, both show a slight decline.

This measure does not take into account of the growth that would have taken place had the system not been involved in conflict. Sommers presents one attempt to calculate lost student years as a result of conflict using a basis of projection of preconflict enrolment trends. He offers estimates of Burundi, DRC, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Yugoslavia. While this type of counterfactual estimate must be viewed with considerable caution, these data offer crude evidence of substantial student years lost after the conflict erupted. In each case, more student years were lost for boys than girls. For Rwanda and Sierra Leone, substantial student years were gained after the conflict; with the strongest trend in Rwanda. She has been able to get back on her preconflict development track and has a trajectory

steeper than prior to the genocide. However, the total number of student years lost is slowly being recovered (World Bank 2007).

The secondary and tertiary systems display less consistent patterns of resilience, although they frequently suffer equal and greater damages during conflict. In East Timor, where primary enrolment rates were restored very rapidly to preconflict levels, there was far less progress in enrolment rates at secondary and tertiary levels. A comparison of enrolment by single age of the population shows a significant increase between the 1998 and 2001 academic years for each age group below 15 years, and a steady decline for ages above 16 years (World Poverty Report 2002). This was partly because rates were already low, and many of the higher level students were children of Indonesian parents who left at independence.

While primary schooling can be quickly initiated by communities even before there is a coherent support system, secondary and tertiary education require greater investment of resources and institutional capacity. They also have a systematic lag as they can expand at the rate of output of the primary system and therefore cannot demonstrate the kind of explosive expansion experienced after the war in primary schooling.

Greater growth is always experienced in immediate postconflict enrolment rates after extended conflict. Slow progress in the expansion of secondary and tertiary education tends to generate a backlog of frustrated and unemployed youth ripe for recruitment into crime and violence. In addition to its impact on security and social stability the situation hampers economic development, and in the longer term weakens the entire education system. Two clear implications emerge from this: the importance of focus on sector-wide reconstruction. Also the need to attend the learning needs of youth who lost out on educational opportunities as a result of conflict and who run the risk of becoming a 'lost generation' for the education system and the wider society (Musker 2003).

2.05 Post Conflict Reconstruction Conundrum

For education reform and reconstruction, the post conflict reconstruction environment is the best and the worst of times, both an opportunity and a constraint. It is the best of times because the postconflict reconstruction environment offers significant opportunities for policy reform and system change:

- As old political regimes are challenged or replaced, more political space opens up.
- Communities and the public at large have high expectations for change and renewal in education.
- The resistance of established bureaucracies to change is often weakened.
- New and more flexible resources become available.

However, the same opportunities for reform contain constraints:

- Contested or weak political authorities are not well positioned to provide political vision and leadership required for reform.
- Civil society is often in disarray as a result of conflict, or if organized, more experienced in opposition politics than policy development.
- The lack of effective administration makes implementing reforms extremely difficult.
- The unpredictability of financial flows makes long-term planning for reform particularly challenging.

Legacy of Conflict – imposes significant additional burdens on educational challenges, development and reform. Already mentioned are the accumulated backlogs in physical infrastructure, supplies and equipment, policy and system development, teacher development and training, and overage children. There are additional groups of learners with special needs (child soldiers and other war-affected youth, orphans, and disabled children). Additional pressures are exerted on the curriculum to simultaneously modernize, streamline, and include additional conflict-related content, such as health and safety messages, tolerance and respect for diversity, psychological support, and conflict management skills (World Social Report).

Moreover, postconflict education systems also confront most of the challenges faced by systems in countries affected by poverty, economic crisis, mismanagement, or neglect. Much of postconflict reconstruction in education involves familiar development activities, the 'usual business,' of developing and reforming education systems – yet it is usual business in very unusual circumstances. Further, the 'unusual business' arising from the conflict legacy can only be undertaken as part of an educational development and reform program that places countries back to a more conventional development path linked to the familiar development mechanisms such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP 03), Education for All (EFA), and Sector-wide Planning.

Business Unusual. – The added demands created by conflict, the scale of the reconstruction challenge, the urgency to avoid relapse into violence, and the extremely difficult operating conditions call for strategies and programs that address both the usual development challenges and the additional problems created by conflict in new and innovative ways. Even though many of the development tasks are familiar, education programming in post conflict societies cannot be 'business as usual'. Education has a critical role to play in the wider reconstruction of society, from building peace and social cohesion to facilitating economic recovery and getting the country back to an accelerated development path. This places very considerable expectations on educational systems at the time when they are themselves seriously debilitated by the effects of conflict. The challenges facing educational systems in such contexts are enormous, and the potential for failure to deliver on such expectations are high. Yet there are examples of promising directions and lessons learned from the experiences gained in a wide range of different conflict and post conflict environments (Musker 2003).

2.06 Sinclair's Key Factors and Principles of Emergency Education

The key factors include the following four:

- Sound policies and committed leadership at the country level, supported by appropriate expenditure frameworks, effective budget execution, and good governance
- Adequate operational capacity at all levels, including capacity of communities to participate effectively, and the right incentives, so that countries can translate sound policies and strong leadership into effective action
- Financial resources to scale up programs that work and measures to ensure that these reach the service delivery level
- Relentless focus on results and accountability for learning and outcomes, so that policies and programs are built on the bases of empirical evidence of problems and solutions that work

The most systematic set of principles was published by Sinclair (2003), clustered around the issues of access, resources, activities/curriculum, co-ordination and capacity building as expounded below:

i) Access

- The right of access to education, recreation, and related activities must be ensured, even in crisis situations.
- Rapid access to education, recreation, and related activities should be followed by steady improvement in quality and coverage, including access to all levels of education and recognition of studies.
- Education programs should be gender-sensitive, accessible to, and inclusive of all groups.
- Education should serve as a tool for child protection and harm prevention.

ii) Resources

- Education programs should use a community-based participatory approach, emphasis on capacity-building.
- Education programs should include a major component of training for teachers and youth/adult educators and provide incentives to avoid teacher turnover.
- Crisis and recovery programs should develop and document locally appropriate targets for resource standards, adequate to meet their educational and psychological objectives.

iii) Activities/Curriculum

- All crisis-affected children and young people should have access to education, recreation, and related activities, helping meet their psychological needs in the short- and longer-term.
- Curriculum policy should support the long-term development of individual students and of society, and for the refugee populations, should be supportive of a durable solution, normally resettlement or repatriation.
- Education programs should be enriched to include skills for education for health, safety, and environmental awareness.
- Education programs should be enriched to include skills for education for peace/conflict resolution, tolerance, human rights, and citizenship.
- Vocational training programs should be linked to opportunities for workplace practices of the skills being learned.

iv) Coordination and Capacity Building

- Governments and assistance agencies should promote coordination among all agencies and stakeholders.
- External assistance programs should include capacity-building to promote transparent, accountable and inclusive system management by local actors.

The following are four additional principles that relate more to postconflict reconstruction. They in many ways complement/supplement those articulated by Sinclair.

- *Education is a development activity.* – Education and schooling may be an important pillar of humanitarian assistance and critical for child and social protection. It is also, from the beginning, a development activity and should be oriented towards social, economic, and political development, and the longer term interests of the learners and the society.
- *Education Reconstruction begins at the Earliest Stages of a Crisis.* – It is undertaken concurrently with humanitarian relief, assuming an increasing share of activities as the policy, civil society, administrative capacity, and access to resources develop. Educational reconstruction has no sharp distinction between a humanitarian phase and a reconstruction phase.
- *Postconflict Education Reconstruction* is centrally concerned with conflict prevention to ensure that education does not contribute to the likelihood of relapse into violence and actively builds social cohesion to help prevent it. The lessons from postconflict education reconstruction should be applied in countries at risk of conflict and those currently affected. One of the most significant contributions education can make is to help reduce the risk of violence in at-risk countries.
- *Postconflict Reconstruction in Education* calls for a prioritized approach within a broad sector-wide framework. The focus on basic education strongly reflected in this study is based on the recognition that primary education is the basis of the entire system and therefore warrants high priority. However, without systematic focus on all subsectors and delivery modes, there is a danger that postconflict reconstruction will introduce or exacerbate imbalances in the system. Apart from the system and development logic underlying this argument is the simple fact that recovery of the basic system requires teachers who are produced in the secondary and tertiary levels (Sinclair 2003).

2.07 Conflict Analysis within the Operating Environment

Education should be a central component of all conflict impact assessments or conflict risk analyses. The World Bank's publication '*Post-Conflict Reconstruction: the Role of the World Bank*' proposes five stages as a framework for activities based on the operational conditions in an affected country:

- Watching Brief
- Transitional Support Strategy
- Early Reconstruction Activities
- Postconflict Reconstruction
- Return to Normal Operations

These are presented not as a framework for definition of conflict phases but as a logical progression of recovery and reconstruction activities. This study suggests a simple framework designed to ensure a fit between objective conditions in the country and appropriate strategies. This congruence should also be achieved within a developmental framework linked to longer-term reconstruction (Sinclair 2003).

This study offers four key indicators to such an environment:

- *Political Authority* – may range from a continuum from no legal or recognized political authority through interim (or competing) and transitional or provisional governments to a functioning internationally recognized government.
- *Civil Society* – may range on a continuum from a situation where civil society is not consciously constituted through various situations involving limited civil engagement or a strongly contested civil society that can effectively engage in policy and system development.
- *Administrative capacity* – may range from an apparent complete breakdown of education system administration even at and operational capacity for administering education, to a fully functioning administration that reflects balance of centralized and decentralized authority.
- *Resources for Education* – may range from a situation where public financing of education has completely collapsed through various combinations of public and private financing to a fully functioning system with a balance of public and private financing that ensures equity, quality and access (Sommers 2002).

It is more helpful to review the country in terms of these variables to determine the nature and scale of reconstruction activities that are possible. This framework could allow

some flexibility to accommodate the complex range of circumstances that postconflict reconstruction encounters.

2.08 Sequencing and Prioritization within a System-wide Approach

Appropriate sequencing of interventions is a key successful postconflict reconstruction in education. The postconflict environment presents particular challenges in terms of priorities, since the range of issues demanding attention, the urgency for action, the complexity of the context, and the limited human, institutional, and financial resources often make prioritization extremely difficult. The factor that makes analysis of sequencing so critical in postconflict situations is the urgency to take some action in almost all fronts. While there is no golden rule regarding the question of sequencing, the following could make reasonable starting points (Unicef 2004):

- i) focus on the basics to get the system working so that the return of children and youth to school can be seen as an early ‘peace dividend’ that will help to shore up support for peace.
- ii) acknowledge the importance of symbolism in education and provide bold symbolic actions (e.g. purging textbooks) that signal that the reform of the system has started.
- iii) build recognition that reform of education is a long term, incremental, and ongoing process that takes decades and that must be led from within the country as consensus develops on the wider development vision of society.
- iv) focus from the beginning on building reform capacity, which includes supporting the participation of communities, local authorities, and other stakeholders in the educational reform dialogue. This can be initiated in early phases when there is general anxiety about reform of the system, but not the political coherence, administrative capacity, civil society commitment, or financial and institutional resources required to implement systematic reform.

Authorities face the need to ensure balanced development of the system and support the resumption and development of education at all hierarchical levels. Large numbers of children and youth whose education may have been disrupted because of conflict place

additional pressures on the system. The need to restart teacher education, both in-service and pre-service, presents additional challenges to postconflict educational authorities and calls for creative solutions. Accelerated learning programs, 'catch-up classes', and a transparent and clear system-wide development program can help authorities to respond to these pressures to a certain extent. It is however notice-able that secondary, tertiary, and nonformal education almost always lags behind primary education.

While postconflict environments present exiting opportunities and often considerable community demand for change, the reality is that new systems are not built from scratch, but on foundations of previous systems. Interventions need to recognize this and work with communities and officials to identify and build on main strengths of the previous systems, incorporate beneficial practices and strategies that may have emerged during conflict, and identify a limited number of the most critical elements of the existing system to target for change. Attempting to change too many things at once often results in limited impact on the existing system, which usually demonstrates remarkable resilience and resurfaces even where it had apparently completely disintegrated (Orivel F. 1988).

2.09 Demonstrating Early and Visible Impact and Community involvement

System reconstruction and development are generally slow. Much of the work that has to be done does not produce early results with clear and visible impact. Successful outcomes direct resources in early reconstruction to demonstrate quick and visible impact. These ensure that the credit for the achievement is shared with communities. Rehabilitation and repair programs, provision of learning materials, teaching supplies, equipment, furniture, and school grant programs can all help to build the confidence of communities in themselves and in the new authorities. This confidence helps to sustain momentum and elicit support for the demanding challenge of simultaneous reform (Perrot P. 1988).

During most conflict situations, the energy to sustain delivery of education shifts to communities and schools. This energy, especially in early reconstruction, provides critical momentum to get schools re-opened and the system running. Efforts to reconstruct the system should not undermine the level of community involvement and participation that is

frequently engendered during conflict. Critical are the resources directed to schools and communities to sustain the momentum of education provision. This calls for direct integration of mechanisms that deliver resources into the emerging administrative and monitoring system to avoid the possible development of parallel bureaucracies.

The emergence of policy vision and implementation capacity of the interim, transitional, or new authorities can be considerably accelerated by the preliminary work on technical issues: collecting school and system data; conducting social assessments; exploring options and international experience on student assessment practices, and legislation options; or initiating management capacity-building. The design of strategies, policies, and programs is a complex technical undertaking that should be based on thorough diagnosis of the state of the system and should clearly evaluate the costs and options (Unicef 2004).

Some of the preparatory work need to even wait for an end to hostilities. Care must be taken to ensure the work is undertaken in a transparent manner and is limited to as far as possible technical issues or development options. It should prove to be an important resource for informing policy and developing implementation capacity in the prevailing conditions. The technical work done be included in as part of the capacity-building strategy so that there is commitment to and sense of ownership of the technical analyses data. The window of opportunity to implement bold reforms is generally brief and is more likely to be used if based on solid technical analytical work (Unicef 2004).

Postconflict situations mostly create conditions that make partnerships and interagency coordination difficult when it is most needed. The sudden influx of resources that follows many high profile peace agreements can precipitate the 'feeding frenzy' environment of intense competition among development partners and nongovernmental organizations for financial resources and visibility which official co-ordination mechanisms struggle to contain. National authorities may not yet be sufficiently consolidated to provide the strong and clear leadership and framework required for effective coordination.

During the transition from predominantly humanitarian assistance to predominantly reconstruction activities, there is often a need to restructure partnerships. Coordination mechanisms also need to be reconfigured to accommodate changes in resource flows and political authority. The key to effective interagency coordination in such contexts is movement as rapidly as possible to national leadership among the donor coordination process; in the interim, agreement among agencies of 'lead roles' and on a single strategic framework can help (Benavot 1986).

2.10 Education as part of The Problem as well as part of The Solution

Generally, agencies treat education as inherently benevolent and argue that it represents a 'force for good' in situations of conflict, without acknowledging that education can have negative consequences. This view is reflected in Education for All 2007 Report, which describes education as one of the best means of preventing conflict, *'Education is increasingly seen as one means to reduce and overcome the effect of violence. It can help prevent emergencies from occurring and can bring a sense of normalcy and stability into an otherwise chaotic situation.'*

However, a recent UNICEF study (Unicef 2008) highlights some of the negative aspects of education in relation to conflict. For example:

- The use of education as a weapon in cultural repression of minorities, denying them access to education, or using education to suppress their language, traditions, art forms, religious practices and cultural values.
- Segregated education such as the apartheid system in South Africa that served to maintain inequality between groups within society.
- The denial of education as a weapon of war, for example, through the forced closure of schools for Palestinian children by Israel during the Intifada.

EFA Global Monitoring Report (2002) *Education For All. Is The World On Track?* UNESCO Publishing, Paris. The main references to conflict in the global monitoring report are mainly in terms of 'education in emergencies' rather than in terms of the need for 'conflict sensitive education' as an integral part of quality education.

'Gender sensitive' education is identified in both the inputs and processes of quality education whereas 'conflict sensitive' education is not mentioned.

- **The manipulation of history and textbooks for political purposes, particularly where government defines the 'national story'.**
- **The inculcation of attitudes of superiority, for example, in the way that other peoples or nations are described, and the characteristics that are ascribed to them.**
- **The likelihood that many of these negative practices are in addition to gender-based discrimination and practices prevalent in conflict environments.**

The UNICEF 2008 study draws attention to the role of education in political and social processes, and therefore implies an active rather than passive role for education in relation to conflict. Aspects of education with the potential to exacerbate conflict may be deeply embedded in state-provided education and taken for granted. Therefore an analysis of the relationship between education and conflict needs to be a central and consistent feature of all education sector planning and development as a matter of routine.

In Conclusion by asking critical questions about the relationship between education and conflict we can see that education may be deeply embroiled in the conflict. This raises a serious question about whether contributing resources to education could make conflict worse. In conflict countries or those where severe tensions exist, country specific analysis is necessary to ensure that this does not happen. Secondly, education issues cannot be tackled in isolation. There has to be a comprehensive understanding of the political, security, economic and social dimensions of conflict so that the role of education can be understood in context.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH SCOPE & DESIGN

The research design for this study is descriptive in nature and involved collecting, analyzing, presenting and reporting data. The researcher used descriptive statistics method because it's efficient in collecting a wide range of data regarding the study topic. This is a case study of Kenya, an East-African country. It was done in the North-Rift Region of the country which has Eldoret as its major town.

3.2 TARGET POPULATION

The target population was made up of the internally displaced persons (IDPs) as primary victims of the violence are to make the major population. They were teachers, parents, youth and children. Coordinating agencies e.g. red cross and UNICEF were also be approached. Others included local education officers, security agents – the Kenya Polis, church leaders, and the perceived perpetrators of violence.

3.3 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The sample size was selected using simple-random procedure in which the target population was selected without bias. The sample size was preferred at 200 house-holds. This was to ensure that a representative of interviewees from each category is selected. This method also helped to reduce extraneous variables.

3.4 DATA SOURCE AND COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data was both primary and secondary. The primary data was collected by use of oral interviews and questionnaires. Secondary data was obtained through textbooks, internet, journals, government and other publications on effects of violence on education. To gather primary data, the researcher conducted a pre-survey of violence hit areas to have a primary knowledge background on the effects of the violence.

The study also employed an interview schedule with an interview guide as the major instrument for obtaining primary data. To supplement this, unstructured questions and simple observation were used. Most of the interviewing was done by the interviewer himself. The research assistant also helped but his major role was to trace the respondents and identify those already interviewed. This enabled the researcher to get responses as precisely as desired.

Interview Guide. This comprised questions that were asked to the IDPs, security agents, the clergy and the humanitarian agencies. It was quite simplified to suit the respondents. Follow-ups and cross-checks had to be done in some cases to confirm the reliability of the answers.

The interviews were carried out in confidence – one respondent and the interviewer. As a precedent to interviewing, the researcher briefed the respondent on the purpose of the study and its significance. Short notes were taken in a notebook as the interviewees responded.

Simple Observation was used together with the interview guide to enrich the data. This involved only simple observation to tap vital information that was expected to augment the data collected and to ensure double interviewing was avoided.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Data was collected by interviewing some of the respondents while others were required to use questionnaires. This was based on the respondents ability to read and write. The questions are designed to be both structured and unstructured questions.

3.6 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Data collected is presented in a simple statistical tool and technique i.e. tables, pie charts and bar graphs. The preferred data analysis technique is ms excel. It is in simple stratified tools like tabulations, percentages, fractions and any other appropriate techniques.

3.7 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED IN THE FIELD

Primary data collection was not a smooth sail. The major problem seen was that of the IDPs shying away from- or avoiding the researcher on suspicion of being a 'spy' of the 'other group'. Both the IDPs and government officials feared to respond to certain questions either because were too personal and evoke a lot of emotional reactions or because they are too sensitive and "classified" in the case of government officials.

Educational data in conflict affected zones are notoriously incomplete and unreliable. The official national data reported in the ministerial databases, UNICEF, KNHCR, and Red Cross Reports are particularly incomplete and inconsistent. Many data gaps exist in the official tables even for the most basic information on enrolment, drop outs, displacements etc. The reliability and accuracy of the reported data have been questioned; on several occasions, government data differ significantly from other official data available from sources that frequently draws on survey data to provide more up-to-date estimates.

This makes cross comparisons of data difficult and problematic. In North Rift for example, there are documented accounts of teachers in areas where public schools were burnt and have ceased to function. Conversely, the unofficial nature of many educational initiatives mean that they are often underreported. A further complicating factor is that official data are often not disaggregated by region and districts, so that the effect of the conflict is masked by national averages.

This study was undertaken in a context of very little availability of literature within the country in the field of education and conflict.

Most of the IDPs complained of hunger or poor clothing hence needed money or food before they could be interviewed. Some of them also suffered memory lapses during the interview session. A number parents were not willing to have their children interviewed to the extent that they totally refused. As with tracer problems, many difficulties were faced in tracing former IDPs who had relocated either back to their rural homes from the IDP camps or to other 'friendly' urban areas – i.e. Nakuru, Naivasha which are further to the

south. Some also caught wind of the interviews to be conducted and took-off. The financial constraint on the part of the researcher also offered a huge challenge given the wide geographical area that was covered.

However, the researcher overcame these problems through various ways: the researcher identified a coordinating agency – Red Cross, which he partnered with. This enabled him to take hikes in their vehicles whenever they were travelling to the IDP camps and affected regions. The researcher also identified local leaders to accompany him to overcome the suspicion. He also assured them of the independence of the academic study hence no expected victimization.

The problem of demand for money, food and (or) clothing was overcome by merely convincing the people to be interviewed without being given these items as demanded. That of memory lapses was overcome by allowing the affected individuals some time to recall. In order to have some children interviewed, the researcher convinced their parents of the benefits of having them interviewed too. All the questionnaires were returned. This was possible because the researcher waited as the respondents answered the questions and received them back as soon as the respondent were through.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND REPRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter gives an account of the research findings starting with the descriptive statistics followed by the econometrics models such as bivariate probit, instrumental variable probit for pre- and post-school attendance in the affected region. For the school performance effect, the probit model is estimated.

4.1 Observed Effects of the Violence

The following observations were made by simply touring the affected regions. Some of these were devastating and the emotional effect cannot be put down in words. The cost of the destruction to property particularly school buildings, equipment and other resources is estimated to run into tens of millions.

In Burnt Forest alone, seven schools were burnt down and totally destroyed even before the announcement of the general election results that were held on the 27TH of December 2007. Notable were Rukuiri and Kamuyu Primary schools. Farther to the north in Eldoret township, Fadhili and Victory Academies went up in flames. Schools here were seen then as representing the state that was “responsible” for the afflictions of the locals. Private schools targeted were those owned by the ‘foreigners’ who were seen to have an alignment to the government.

In other instances, it was difficult for parents to send back their children to certain schools because of their association with death. Rurigi and Ngarua Primary schools were notable. Dead rotting and stinking swollen bodies were found either within the compound or in the classrooms on the 14TH of January 2008. These were suspected to have been left behind by their clansmen who were fleeing the violence targeting them. Other reports claim that they had taken refuge within the school compound when they were attacked. The rest managed to escape.

Where the schools survived the flames, destruction and looting, they conveniently became safe grounds. The casing points here included St. Arnasens High School in Eldoret East

constituency. By February 2ND 2008, it was home to 8000 IDPs. This meant that the 600 boys learning at the school remained at home bringing learning at the centre to a grinding halt while schools elsewhere had already opened. Ainamoi Primary School also suffered the same fate. It became home to over 2000 people whose houses had been torched.

Their fate seemed sealed with the shooting of the Ainamoi Member of Parliament Elect – Honourable David Too. A flare up of violence erupted on February 1ST 2008. All the families camped at the school were violently evicted and some classrooms burnt down. A few people were reportedly killed during the incident. A few more schools within the constituency and the region also went up in flames.

Areas around Eldoret were no better. Dozens of school teachers were roughed up and beaten. This is because they had headed to the government call to open schools on the 15TH of January 2008 and let children to continue learning. The rallying call here was 'No Raila, No Learning'. Raila was the elected Lang'ata member of parliament and ODM presidential candidate whose perceived win but stolen election had stirred the violence.

By January 28TH 2008, reports in the Standard claimed that more than 7000 pupils and over 200 teachers had deserted learning institutions due to the increasing insecurity in Eldoret.

At the Eldoret Agricultural Society of Kenya (ASK) show grounds, a satellite IDP school was set up by UNICEF in conjunction with the Ministry of Education. Unicef provided the tents and basic learning equipment while the ministry allowed its 300 displaced teachers to provide the services to the over 5000 students in the camp.

One Mr. David Mwaura Karanja, himself a displaced teacher from Langas Primary school in Eldoret was appointed head of the makeshift school at the show ground. During an interview with him, he told how he had more than enough teachers and was confident learning would go on. Bishop Muge and St. Patrick's Academy in Burnt Forest also

experienced an invasion of families and turned into camps. In Turbo area, reports claimed that more than 25000 people remained camped in schools. Those schools that were thought to have a high affiliation to the Kikuyu minority or were owned by them were flattened. This made it very difficult for any consequential learning to take place in schools that had been converted to camps.

By the end of January 2008, the Education Sector in the North-Rift Region was facing one of its most challenging crises ever following the unprecedented exodus of pupils and teachers to safer regions. As the schools slowly opened in mid February, schools reported very low enrolments. According to the Uasin – Gishu Kenya Heads of Secondary Schools Association Chairman Mr. Luke Kibet, most parents who were displaced were keen to move to other destinations hence the need to transfer their children. At Chebisass High School, only 220 students, out of a possible 550 students had reported to school towards the end of 1ST term. Five of their teachers had requested for transfers and had moved.

He explained that the violence had greatly interfered with the learning process in the region. Staff had been transferred to other regions due to the then prevailing insecurity. Evidence availed to the researcher from the Provincial Directors of Education's office in Nakuru later confirmed this. More than 7000 teachers had requested to be transferred and over 5000 of them already confirmed to have moved from their working stations by the end of February 2008. A total of 10000 of them could not teach because of the insecurity. Another 80,000 pupils and 12000 secondary school students were directly affected by the violence.

One Mr. Dan Kahora, who was teaching at Eldoret Municipality, said he could not return to his old school under whatever circumstances. Despite having taught at the centre for about 20 years, his property had been looted and destroyed. He escaped to Nakuru together with his family after he witnessed the lynching of a neighbour in a convoy of tracks escorted by military personnel. This was the only safest way out after gangs had set-up road blocks targeting his community along the major highway.

Through out this devastating period, politicians, religious and even opinions leaders from these region did not seem to take action that could stop this crisis from further deepening. It looked like the sectarians interests had overshadowed the universal interests that protect humanity.

4.2 Social Economic Characteristics of the displaced

The results shows that as children progress to post secondary school they are likely to perform below the average mark as is expected since the curriculum content becomes complex. The results indicates that the type of school children attend is a major determinant of performance, the results shows that children in public schools are likely to perform below the average mark relative to those in private schools. The likelihood of a child being in post primary and performing poorly in school increases by 37 per cent relative to those in lower primary school.

Although the effect of participation in resource/reconciliation work is positive, it is not significant; the result may suggest that school performance is more related to the child's ability than to external pressure of resource participation work. This finding is also confirmed by Nankhuni and Findeis (2003) when they estimated determinants of school progress using variables such as progress at the right class at the right age and progress in the senior primary school.

The social-economic characteristics of the 200 house holds sampled are presented in Table 1. The data display low female headed households, at 13 percent of all households in the sample. The results indicate low average terminal level of education of household head with years of schooling, suggesting an average of primary education for most of household heads (8 years of schooling). This is also supportive of the education attainment dummies which indicate that only 38 per cent of all household heads had completed post primary education compared to 60 per cent who had completed primary education.

Table 1; Social economic characteristics of the 200 house holds sampled

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev	Min	max
Male head	0.87	0.337	0	1
Age of head	42.475	9.49	22	83
Head years of schooling	8.675	2.81	0	16
No education	0.02	0.12	0	1
Primary education	0.60	0.49	0	1
Post primary education	0.38	0.48	0	1
Household size	6.16	1.54	3	11
Number of children	4.10	1.59	0	9
Children age < 6 years	0.12	0.32	0	1
Children age 6 to 14 years	0.33	0.47	0	1
Children age 15 to 18 years	0.12	0.32	0	1
19 to 24 years adults	0.08	0.27	0	1
Over 25 years	0.35	0.48	0	1

The age categorization indicates that 45 per cent of the sampled age groups are school going children (age 6 to 18 years) who will be considered for the schooling models. Moreover, the household size on average is six members with an average of four children indicating that households with more children who are out of school were likely to be separated increasing the burden of stigmatization to those school going children.

The statistics reveal that around 25 per cent of sampled household had their homes totally destroyed while another around 18 per cent rescued some of their property. These clearly indicate that there is a well defined trend in property destruction. The destinations of the displaced vary depending on the source of the threat to them – i.e. from neighbours or invading gangs. For instance in Eldoret, the displaced moved to the nearby show ground while in Burnt Forest, they escaped in convoys of lorries farther south to Nakuru and Naivasha.

In Eldoret North, where 48 per cent of the student were ‘foreigners’, they had to leave. However, this estimate rate is quite low and it can not be used as a proxy for scarcity as discussed by Gardner and Barry (1978), when they were exploring the alternative measures of holding the violence. Those who attempted to restrain from relocating represented 57%

Table 2: Mean time taken by household members' to return the affected children to school in hours

Source	Eldoret	Burnt Forest	Ainamoi
Schools	228.75	240	168.57
Camps	254	269.5	195
Home	57.27	102.92	80.18
Police Station	25.26	27	28.22

Another measure is time per trip as suggested by Filmer and Pritchett (1996); Households were asked if they had a problem of getting their children to and from school which would normally be indicated by travel time and distance to school. The average time of a two way trip plus collection time depends on the distance to school taking the highest number of hours, with those camping within schools taking the least time. Average travel distance varies from 0 km to 10 km.

Table 3 shows the costs of security depending on the population to be protected.

Table 3: Cost of Security

Price per population Set on security.	Number of people Being protected
Ksh 150	90
Ksh 200	150
Ksh 250	200
Ksh 300	280
Ksh 400	400
Ksh 500	600

The table indicates that the price of security varies considerably with the different populations of customers. Households buy depending on the amount of money they have per day. The households buy security ranging from Ksh. 150 to Ksh. 500 in a single bundle purchased. The

households informed the researcher that they obtain the youth to protect their children while in school from different sources, which includes; own parents, paying police or organizing vigilante groups. Security in schools depend on the distance from the camp and its location.

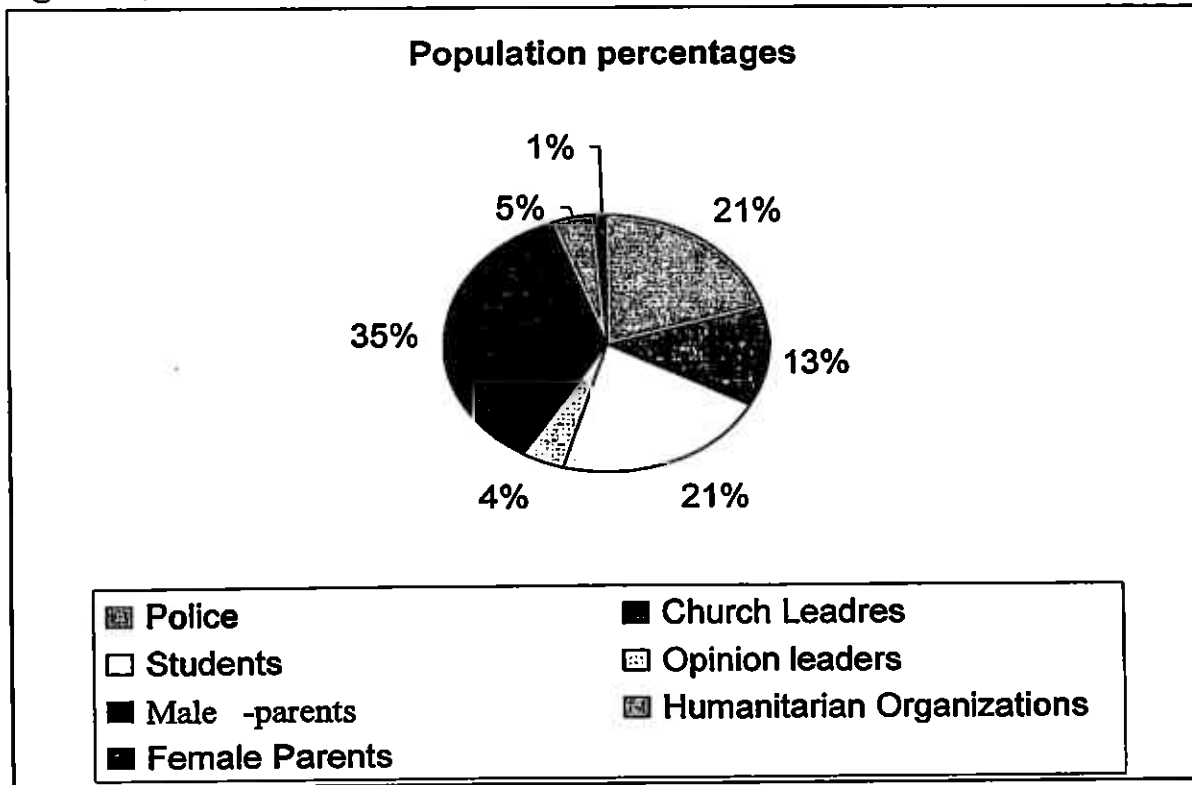
Table 4: Population Spread per week

Education Centre	Mean Population	Std. dev	Min	Max	Average Population
Camp	330.07	164.15	0	680	2000
Show Ground	249.17	391.62	0	3150	5000
Police Station	345.08	324.58	0	2000	1000

Households indicated that their children learned at the schools set up within the satellite camps. Table 4 shows the sampled households' children population in schools. This indicates that there is evidence of households which ensured that learning of their children continued uninterrupted. The study also revealed that education can hardly grind to a halt.

Statistics on the Sampled Population

Figure 1;

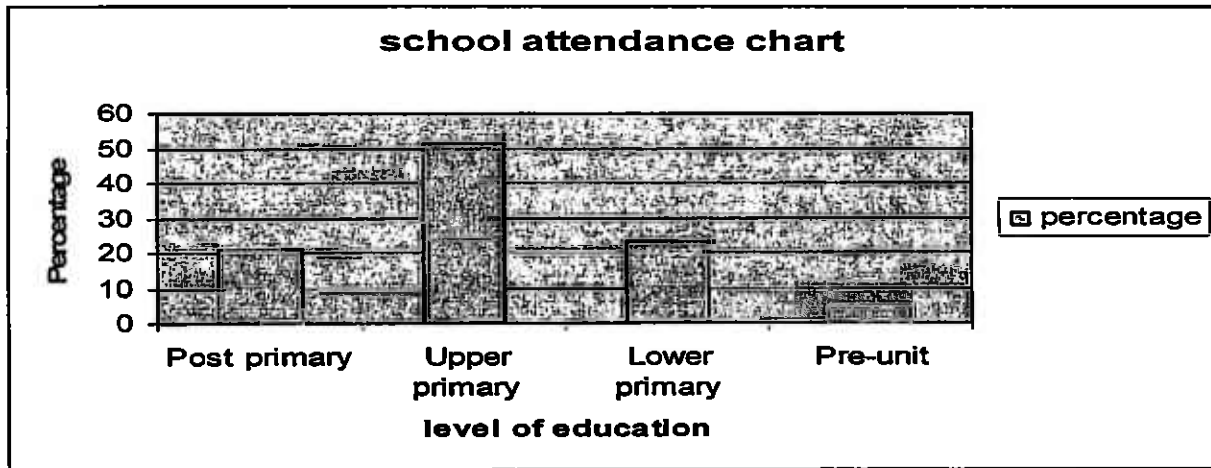


Households sampled reported that they did not stop sending their children to school.

4.3 The Relationship between reconciliation work and schooling

From the sample, the total number of children aged between 5 to 18 years is 609 who are the main focus for schooling children in pre-unit, primary, and post primary level of education in Kenya. Children on average were reported that they start nursery school at an average age of 5 years and join standard one at the age of 6 or 7 years depending on the number of years they spend in pre-unit. Out of the 609 children with education information who are aged between 5 to 18 years sampled, 51 per cent have attained a level of upper primary education. 23 per cent and 4 per cent are in lower primary school and pre unit level respectively. The post secondary level has 21 per cent children who are either in secondary school, polytechnic, universities or have just completed Form Four studies. The school attendance data is summarized using four major categories as shown in figure 3 below

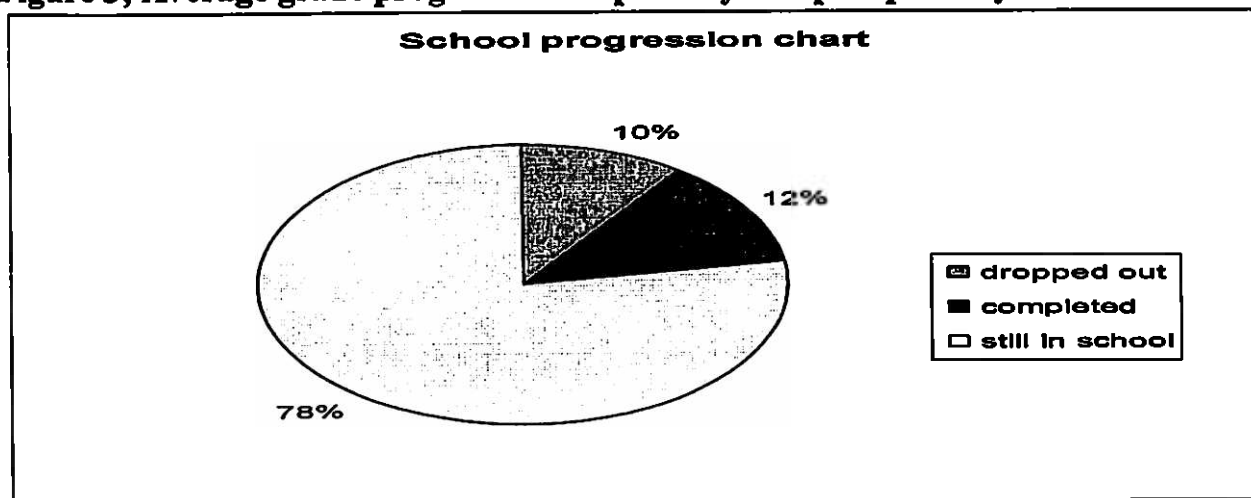
Figure 2; school attendances in primary and post primary school for 2007



Out of the 609 children 19 per cent are out of school while 81 per cent are still in school. 10 per cent of the sampled children are out of school due to lack of school fee.

The pie chart below shows the percentage of school progress in the sampled children.

Figure 3; Average grade progressions in primary and post primary school



Those who have ever attended school in the sample were also asked question about repetition and tabulating this shows that 24 per cent of children sampled have ever repeated and 76 per cent have not repeated any class. The drop out rate is about half the number of children who should join secondary school in the sample. Table 5 bears the descriptive statistics for children schooling variables

Table 5: Descriptive statistics for children schooling variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Age child began school (std 1)	6.25	0.65	4	8
Resource work hours children spend on weekdays	0.58	0.53	0	4
Hours children work on weekends	2.07	1.76	0	7
Evening study hours	1.77	0.84	0	5
Average number of children in a household	4.10	1.59	0	9
School type dummy=1 if public school	0.83	0.37	0	1
School type dummy=1 if private school	0.17	0.37	0	1
School attendance dummy(1=attending)	0.88	0.32	0	1
Dummy for lower primary(1=lower primary)	0.24	0.42	0	1
Dummy for pre unit(1=pre-unit)	0.02	0.21	0	1
Dummy for upper primary(1=upper primary)	0.55	0.50	0	1
Dummy for post primary(1=post primary)	0.19	0.40	0	1

The schooling variables reveal that 83 per cent of children in the sample were from public school and 17 per cent from private school. This indicates that majority of rural population are benefiting from the free primary education. On average, children spend 8 hours in school and an hour to reconcile amongst themselves after school. Children also spend on average one hour forty five minutes for private studies. 9 per cent of children who are involved in reconciliation activities reported to be affected positively and this' reflected by their ability to complete homework. This is also confirmed by the 9 per cent of children whose teachers' comments in their progress report indicate that the conflict was affecting their performance.

From Table 6 below 63 per cent of the school going children are beginning to get comfortable while 41 % are still disturbed. On average 59 per cent of the sampled school going children participated directly or indirectly in the violence.

Table 6: Summary statistics for children comfortability in school

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	Max	Min
Comfortable	0.63	0.48	0	1
Uncomfortable	0.41	0.49	0	1
Participation	0.59	0.49	0	1
Travel time	98.61	91.20	0	360
Collection time	66.37	51.44	0	300
Very comfortable	22.68	22.37	2	150
Willing to learn	38.71	42.18	3	240
Learning total time	168.23	116.82	10	480
Reconciliation total time	61.48	60.62	5	390

Children spend 4 hours on average to try and reintegrate themselves with the others around. This indicates that there is a high willingness by the communities to find harmony for the future generation.

4.4 Results of Bivariate Probit Model of Reconciliation Work Participation and School Attendance

The first outcome of interest that we study is whether children are currently attending school and learning. As this is a binary outcome, we use maximum-likelihood to estimate a bivariate probit model which will be followed by computing the marginal effects.

Table 7: Estimated Bivariate Probit Model

Number of observations – 609, Iterations completed – 3, Log likelihood function - (-402.70721), Wald test of rho=0: chi2 (1) = 4.79451 Prob > chi2 = 0.0286, Marginal effects after biprobit $y = \Pr(\text{School attendance}=1, \text{child resource work}=1)$ (predict) = 0.61169809

Variables	School attendance			Learning Effect			Marginal effects
	Coefficient	Robust Std. Errors	P values	Coefficient	Robust Std. Error	P values	
Learning time	-0.003	0.001	0.01	0.017	0.004	0.00	0.005
Girl child	0.135	0.167	0.42	0.369	0.137	0.01	0.131
age15to18	1.249	0.198	0.00	2.445	0.355	0.00	0.571
Resource work	0.117	0.057	0.04	-0.080	0.050	0.11	-0.015
age6to14	2.948	0.250	0.00	2.582	0.390	0.00	0.858
Household size	-0.003	0.044	0.94	-0.016	0.040	0.69	-0.005
Post primary	0.310	0.291	0.29	1.208	0.294	0.00	0.341
Upper primary	-0.651	0.287	0.02	0.925	0.159	0.00	0.229
Head years of schooling	0.026	0.027	0.33	-0.035	0.026	0.181	-0.009
cons	-1.193	0.495	0.02	-2.396	0.527	0.00	
Athrho	0.279	0.126	0.029				
Rho	0.272	0.118					

The discussion of the bivariate probit model marginal effects will not be decomposed to both direct and indirect effects, since the study analysed the data using Stata 9 which has no capacity to calculate the decomposed marginal effects. The bivariate probit results of resource collection work and school attendance by 609 children are provided in Table 7. The marginal effects presented below are for the conditional probability that the two events occurred. The correlation term (the rho. value (0.27)), summarizes the direction of correlation between the error terms in the two equations of resource work participation and school attendance, is positive and statistically significant. This suggests that the two choices are jointly determined. The positive significant sign indicates that these activities are positively related. We also carried out a

likelihood ratio test of the null hypothesis that ρ equals zero against the alternative that ρ does not equal zero. The test statistic, 4.79 is distributed as chi-squared with one degree of freedom under the null hypothesis. The value of 4.79 is statistically significant, so the null hypothesis is rejected.

The above results provide indications of those factors that positively influence the sampled children's likelihood of engaging in reconciliation work as well as the determinants of school attendance. These results imply that age groups 6 to 14 years and 15 to 18 years significantly determine resource work participation and school attendance, based on their positive signs. Additionally, being in the age group 6 to 14 years increases the child's total marginal effect of combining participating in reconciliation work and school attendance by about 86 per cent relative to those in age group 19 to 24 years. Those in age group 15 to 18 years increases the total effect of participating in reconciliation and school attendance by 57 per cent relative to age group 19 to 24 years. In both age categories the total marginal effect is positive.

The level of children education was categorized into lower primary (standard 1 to 3), upper primary (Standard 4 to 8) and post primary school (Form 1 and above). Those in post primary variables have the expected positive sign of both participation in resource collection and schooling. Those children in upper primary are less likely to be attending school as the school attendance coefficient is negative, this may be due to high drop out rate. Being in upper primary level will increase the positive total marginal effects of combining the two decisions by 23 per cent while post primary is by 34 per cent relative to those in lower primary. One of the reasons why the upper primary has a lower percentage than post secondary is due to the high drop out rate in the sampled region.

With the presence of a girl child in a household, signs for resource work are positive and statistically significant, and being a girl increases the likelihood of combining resource work and school attendance by 13 per cent relative to boys. The involvement of women in resource work positively affects the likelihood of a child involvement in resource work and negatively affects child involvements in incitement. This indicates that adult involvement in resource work will reduce the burden of children in mental strain. The household size negatively affects both

resource work and school attendance. Although household size is not significant the negative signs of household size affecting school attendance suggest that as households members increases the household asset base is constrained and this may lead to children not attending school due to poverty. Those who don't participate in school reduce the burden of those in school in a large households and thus negatively affecting child resource work participation.

Reconciliation time measured in hours for resource work was estimated as the emotional variables. The camping hours negatively affect school attendance and they are statistically significant in determining the total marginal effect of school attendance and reconciliation work. The marginal effects of the emotional variable is very low, for instance, a one hour increase in camping hours increases the total marginal effect of combining reconciliation work and school attendance by 1 per cent.

One major disadvantage of bivariate probit model is that it only shows that the decisions are correlated, corrects for the endogeneity but does not provide information about the direction of causality. To be able to establish the direction of causality that is, the effect of reconciliation on school attendance an instrumental variable probit model was estimated and the IV probit results are reported in Table 8.

In the Instrumental variable probit model, the time children spend reconciling is used as instrument for resource work which is used to correct for endogeneity.

Table 8: IV Probit results

Variables	Coefficient s	Robust std. Err.	Z	P values
School attendance				
Child reconciliation work	-0.942	0.320	-2.950	0.003
Girl child	0.213	0.151	1.410	0.160
Age15to18	1.612	0.240	6.720	0.000
Mother reconciliation work hours	0.080	0.049	1.650	0.100
Age6to14	3.098	0.235	13.180	0.000
Household size	-0.013	0.041	-0.330	0.744
Post primary	0.601	0.267	2.250	0.025
Upper primary	-0.259	0.269	-0.960	0.335
Head years of schooling	0.013	0.024	0.560	0.573
_cons	-1.050	0.451	-2.330	0.020
Child resource work				
Girl child	0.098	0.035	2.850	0.004
Age 15 to 18	0.582	0.051	11.350	0.000
Mother resource work hours	-0.022	0.010	-2.190	0.028
Age 6 to 14	0.606	0.045	13.550	0.000
Household size	-0.007	0.010	-0.710	0.479
Post primary	0.315	0.049	6.440	0.000
Upper primary	0.281	0.040	7.100	0.000
Head years of schooling	-0.008	0.006	-1.340	0.181
Reconciliation hours	0.003	0.000	9.530	0.000
_cons	-0.032	0.098	-0.320	0.747
/lnsigma	-1.002	0.025	39.730	0.000
/athrho	0.608	0.156	3.890	0.000
Sigma	0.367	0.009		
Rho	0.543	0.110		

Wald test of exogeneity (/athrho = 0): chi2(1) = 15.17 Prob > chi2 = 0.0001

Number of observation=609

The significant Wald test for exogeneity indicates that we reject the null hypothesis, that there is no correlation between the errors in the schooling equation and the resource collection equation. The positive rho of 54 per cent indicates that the two decisions are correlated. The school attendance is negatively affected by resource collection work as indicated by the negative

significant resource collection coefficient. Although the household head years of schooling is not significant, it has the expected signs that is, the head education positively affect child school attendance and negatively on their resource collection work. Household characteristics and household composition variables also affect the likelihood of a child attending school or participating in reconciliation work. The household size is insignificant but has a negative effect on both schooling and reconciliation implying that children from large household are less likely to participate in reconciliation but can also negatively affect schooling due to factors such as poverty.

The high positive probit index of the age category of 6 to 14 years suggest that this is the age most likely to be attending school as compared to the age 15 to 18 years which has a lower probit index relative to those over 18 years of age. Due to the high drop out rate the probit index for a child being in upper primary is negative and insignificant while that in post secondary category probit index is positive and significant relative to those in lower primary category. The presence of women being involved positively increased school attendance and negatively determine the child involvement which takes more time compared to reconciliation.

4.5 Determinants of Children's School Performance

One variable is used to estimate school performance which is constructed from the collected information about the last examination results which are averaged and any mark below the average of 300 marks out of 500 marks is labelled below average and is the dependent variable of the performance model. The results from the bivariate model prove the same. The insignificant negative rho coefficient (-0.17) from the Bivariate probit suggests that participating in reconciliation work and school performances are not jointly decided. Therefore I estimated the univariate probit of school performance and reconciliation as one of the explanatory variable for 486 children who had performance and reconciliation activities information.

The results indicates that the type of school children attend is a major determinant of performance, the results shows that children in public schools are likely to perform below the average mark relative to those in private schools. The likelihood of a child being in post primary

and performing poorly in school increases by 37 per cent relative to those in lower primary school.

Although the effect of participation in reconciliation work is positive, it is not so significant; the result may suggest that school performance is more related to the child's ability than to external pressure of resource participation work. This finding is also confirmed by Nankhuni and Findeis (2003) when they estimated determinants of school progress using variables such as progress at the right class at the right age and progress in the senior primary school.

Table 9: Probit model of school performance results

Number of observation = 486, Iterations completed = 4, log pseudolikelihood = -294.43067

Variables	coefficients	Robust std error	P value	Marginal effects	Robust std Error	P-Value
Child resource work	-0.213	0.178	0.232	-0.081	0.067	0.232
Learning hours	0.001	0.001	0.645	0.000	0.001	0.645
Age	-0.116	0.115	0.317	-0.044	0.044	0.317
Age squared	0.005	0.005	0.285	0.002	0.002	0.285
Girl child	-0.145	0.123	0.237	-0.056	0.047	0.237
Mother resource work in hours	-0.071	0.044	0.107	-0.027	0.017	0.107
Household size	0.069	0.039	0.078	0.026	0.015	0.078
Post primary	1.284	0.345	0.000	0.388	0.070	0.000
Upper primary	0.196	0.204	0.337	0.075	0.078	0.337
Head years of schooling	-0.003	0.024	0.908	-0.001	0.009	0.908
Learning Hours	0.001	0.001	0.342	0.000	0.000	0.342
Public school	0.727	0.175	0.000	0.283	0.066	0.000
cons	0.032	0.713	0.964			

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Research Findings and Analysis

The main findings are that children's school attendance and progress was negatively affected by the conflict and resulting atrocities. Children's school attendance was affected through the animosity that had developed between the communities over time and thus they could not get to school because of insecurity.

The school performance and the reconciliation model indicates a positive interlink however, the effects of reconciliation on performance were not significant which suggest that performance mostly depends on child's ability. There is a positive relationship between performance and type of school the child attends which is evident from the public schools dummy relative to private schools. Increased school attendance by children in public schools can be associated with the free primary education although the quality seems to have been compromised as evidence of lower school performance by children in public schools relative to private schools.

5.1 Summary

This study examines the links between effects of the violence on education and the impact of reconciliation on schooling in the North-Rift. The study was motivated by the growing concern about the anticipated negative effect of the violence on the social and economic degradation on human capital development, particularly education. The study uses data collected from 200 households using a detailed questionnaire. The sample had 609 children from Eldoret Municipality, Eldoret North Constituency, Burnt Forest and Ainamoi. The descriptive statistics indicates that children are involved in both decisions of reconciliation and school attendance.

5.2 Conclusion

Conflict in fact constitutes a major obstacle to the achievement of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially the sector goals of universal completion of primary education and achievement of gender parity in primary and secondary education. By its nature, education can be a central pillar both in conflict prevention and in the reconstruction of post-conflict societies. It is a highly rated social and political phenomena that has a direct impact on the political and economic future of a society. It warrants high priority in both humanitarian responses and in post-conflict reconstruction because every education system has the potential to exacerbate the conditions that contribute to violent conflict, as well as the potential to address them. Ignoring education or postponing educational response for some later phase is not an option.

It was evident that schools and education systems were a contributory factor in the conflict. They were thus invariably debilitated by the conflict. They were left weakened, damaged, and under-resourced at the precise time when communities, governments and international agencies require them to play a role in rebuilding and transforming themselves and the societies they serve. The twin mandate of reform and reconstruction offered both significant opportunities and enormous challenges to society as it emerged from conflict. Maximizing those opportunities and managing those constraints called for strategies that balance prioritization and sequencing in a context of depleted human and institutional resources and unpredictable financial flows.

The challenge then is to look at critical role played by education particularly in development. By identifying what it takes to ensure education plays an effective role in post-conflict reconstruction, we require a more systematic analysis of the way education, conflict and poverty interact and inter-relate. Conflict retards economic and social growth and has been conceptualized as 'development in reverse'. Research also shows that development patterns that exacerbate inequalities or promote economic dependence, increase or deepen poverty or undermine social cohesion may themselves contribute to the likelihood of conflict or the recurrence of conflict.

It emerged that ethnic and religious identities, politically-based struggles, and resource – fuelled conflict also impact educational reconstruction. It was clear that a conflict where ethnic identity emerges as an explicit dimension of struggle place particular demands on educational reconstruction, particularly with respect to language and curriculum. Politically driven conflict have a powerful effect on reconstruction. In North-Rift, the conflict was significantly fuelled by competition for control of natural resources, especially land. It is of worth to note that the perpetrators made no effort to ensure provision of education to the displaced in the areas that fell under their control.

Schools and educational system has created or exacerbated conditions contributing to conflict. Recognizing the role that schools and educational systems play in reproducing many of the factors underlie much civil conflict. Skills, values, attitudes, and social relationships of dominant groups produced in schools and society are often a contributory factor in conflict. Inadequate educational provisions, ethnic, racial or other forms of discrimination; distorted curricula; and frustrated expectations exacerbate existing social tensions or may themselves generate new sources of tension in society.

Education can, however, play a key role in several of the factors that build resilience to conflict in societies. Among high conflict risk indicators include; high youth unemployment and poor social and ethnic relations (The World Bank’s Conflict Analysis Framework[CAF]). Education systems and institutions have a critical impact on youth employment and on social and ethnic relations.

Education is a key social institution impacted and influenced each of these characteristics. Just as education has the potential to be a contributory factor in violent conflict, it also has the potential to instil new values, attitudes, skills and behaviour as well as help to promote new social relations that will build resilience to conflict. Education can help to reduce economic, social, and ethnic polarization, promote equitable growth and development, and build a culture of dialogue rather than violence. Ensuring that schooling and education systems play a constructive role requires a closer understanding of the way in which conflict impacts education system..

Schools did not escape the ravages of the violence. The first and most obvious impact of conflict on education was the loss of life and physical and psychological trauma experienced by teachers, students, parents, and communities either directly as targets of war or indirectly as victims in the crossfire. The havoc on the lives of students and teachers lasts long after the violence ends.

The teaching forces were severely debilitated by conflict. More than 40% of teachers in primary and secondary school were either killed or fled, leaving the system with few trained or experienced teachers. However, except in cases of genocide or extremely low initial enrolment rates, the impact on the teaching force is often more qualitative than quantitative. The challenge in post-conflict reconstruction is then not recruitment of new teachers, but improving the quality of the teaching force in terms of qualifications, experience and competence (Tawil and Harley, 2004).

The demand for teaching positions and teachers grew rapidly during early postconflict reconstruction. This' so because returnees, demobilized gangs and the unemployed turned to a very constricted labour market. Rationalization and redistribution rather than large-scale recruitment are the most common teacher management problems facing educational authorities. However, considerable numbers of teachers who don't meet minimum qualifications continue to teach as 'volunteer teachers,' supported by their communities.

While teacher numbers reduced and pupil-to-teacher ratios increased during conflict and its aftermath, the quality of the teaching force suffered. Teacher development is an early casualty of conflict, and the impact is long term. This includes both in-service training and initial teacher training. As a result, even where teacher numbers grow, the teacher qualification levels, often low to begin with, tend to drop significantly. By the end of the conflict, for example, only 60% of the Kalenjin teachers were qualified, a pattern found in most conflict-affected areas. In addition, well qualified teachers have been induced to- by emerging employment opportunities in NGOs and have left the profession only to be replaced by unqualified or under-qualified persons.

Displacements, either within the country's borders or across borders, place enormous pressure on education systems and results in loss of many learning days. Population shifts precipitated by conflict often are not easily reversed after conflict and may result in rapid urbanization with congestion of urban schools and depopulation of rural areas. Conflict has the effect of eroding the core values of societies. Children are orphaned, or separated from parents; teachers and children traumatized by violence; education systems and curricula politicized; and culture of violence is reflected in school practices and even books. The educational infrastructure is also enormously destroyed by the conflict.

The erosion of core values penetrates much more deeply and has a longer lasting impact than these peripheral symptoms. War transformed the role of children and youth in ways that are extremely difficult to reverse. In a context where families and communities are often divided or displaced by the upheaval of conflict, schools are seen as key institutions that will play the major role in rebuilding core values, in instilling new democratic principles, and in helping children recover lost childhood (Bannon 2003).

One impact of conflict on education systems has been the imbalance in the systems among primary, secondary and tertiary subsectors. While enrolment rates in primary schooling declined steadily as a result of conflict, enrolments in secondary and tertiary levels tended to collapse more drastically for a number of reasons including:

- Students in secondary and tertiary levels are more often closer to conscription age and are frequently among the early cohorts of recruits into illegal militias and gangs.
- Students were often involved, especially at the tertiary level as activists in the political struggle that preceded conflict, and so universities and postsecondary institutions tended to be targeted more.

Despite the conflict, education never ground to a halt for an extended period. As public systems collapsed under the effects of conflict, schooling continued to be supported. Communities and individuals saw the benefits of education in helping to restore a sense of normalcy in the midst of chaos and providing a protective environment and sense of

continuity for young people. Communities continued to struggle to provide for schooling even in the most difficult conditions, using alternative accommodation and flexible or multiple shifts. In areas not directly affected by conflict, schooling generally continued, albeit with reduced public support and a consequent deterioration on quality.

This resilience was reflected in continued schooling during conflict, but equity, access, and quality went down. Poorer families and child-headed households were and are still unable to meet the rising costs of schooling. Both children and the youth are withdrawn to join the unskilled labour market. The increased poverty or child-care responsibilities have tended to magnify/distort existing gender and other inequities. Conflict affected areas fall behind areas of the country not directly affected by conflict, and rural-urban inequities are exacerbated.

As normalcy resumed, enrolment rates and schooling always seemed to recover rapidly even in areas that were affected by intense conflict. In the short term, education access suffers seriously as a result of conflict leaving a lasting impact and development lag. However, primary schooling quickly recovered and was restored to preconflict levels.

The general trend from figures is upward, with higher primary enrolment rates in the year following the conflict than in the previous year. This again gives evidence of relative resilience of the primary sector and also the probable international priority placed on restoring primary schooling. This measure does not take into account the growth that would have taken place had the system not been involved in conflict. For the North-Rift, substantial student years have been regained after the conflict; with the strongest trend in Eldoret. She has been able to get back on her preconflict development track and has a trajectory steeper than prior to the conflict. However, the total number of student years lost is slowly being recovered.

The secondary and tertiary systems display less consistent patterns of resilience, although they suffered equal and greater damages during conflict. In Burnt Forest, where primary enrolment rates were restored very rapidly to preconflict levels, there was far less progress

in enrolment rates at secondary and tertiary levels. A comparison of enrolment by single age of the population shows a significant increase between the 2008 and 2009 academic years. (UNICEF 2009). This was partly because rates were already low, and many of the higher level students were children of Kikuyu parents who left during the war.

For education reform and reconstruction, the post conflict reconstruction environment is the best and the worst of times, both an opportunity and a constraint. It is the best of times because the postconflict reconstruction environment offers significant opportunities for policy reform and system change:

- As the old political regime was challenged or replaced, more political space opens up.
- Communities and the public at large have high expectations for change and renewal in education.
- The resistance of established bureaucracies to change is often weakened.
- New and more flexible resources become available.

However, the same opportunities for reform contain constraints:

- Contested or weak political authorities are not well positioned to provide political vision and leadership required for reform.
- Civil society is often in disarray as a result of conflict, or if organized, more experienced in opposition politics than policy development.
- The lack of political-will within the administration makes implementation of reforms extremely difficult.
- The unpredictability of financial flows makes long-term planning for reform particularly challenging.

Post-conflict education systems also confront most of the challenges faced by systems in regions affected by poverty, economic crisis, mismanagement, or neglect. Much of the reconstruction in education involves familiar development activities, the 'usual business,' of developing and reforming education systems – yet it is usual business in very unusual circumstances. Further, the 'unusual business' arising from the conflict legacy can only be undertaken as part of an educational development and reform program that places a

country back to a more conventional development path linked to the familiar development mechanisms such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), Education for All (EFA), and Sector-wide Planning.

This places very considerable expectations on educational systems at the time when they are themselves seriously debilitated by the effects of conflict. The challenges facing educational systems in such contexts are enormous, and the potential for failure to deliver on such expectations are high. Yet the country could choose a promising direction and learn from her own experiences and others from a wide range of different conflict and post conflict environments.

Most of the major challenges confronting postconflict re-construction of education systems are the same as those confronting any effort at system reform. From a recent review of the World Bank and UNCEF Report (2008), of developing countries to access the extent to which they are 'on track' for achieving the MDGs and EFA goals of universal primary completion and gender equity in primary and secondary education by 2015. Conflict was identified to constitute a significant obstacle to achieving the targeted goals. It is worth noting though, that conflict is only one of the several factors that contributed to the poor performance in achievement of the international goals.

Slow progress in the expansion of secondary and tertiary education trends has generated a backlog of frustrated and unemployed youth ripe for recruitment into crime and violence. In addition to its impact on security and social stability the situation hampers economic development, and in the longer term weakens the entire education system. Two clear implications emerge from this: the importance of focus on sector-wide reconstruction. And two, the need to attend the learning needs of youth who lost out on educational opportunities as a result of conflict and who run the risk of becoming a 'lost generation' for the education system and the wider society.

5.3 Recommendation

1. Protection of the Child.

In almost all Africa, Kenya included, there is still a long way to go. Appropriate legislation need to be enacted and institutional framework established with the capacity for effective enforcement and implementation of measures that will ensure the well being of a child. Such bodies are necessary for the effective formulation and implementation of policies that insulate the child in the event of a social, political of cultural disharmony.

These bodies must then be strengthened politically, technically and financially to ensure that the rights of the child are kept at the heart of the public agenda, and addressed both in law and in practice. Some of the issues that must be addressed include:

- i) Ensure that Universal, Free and Compulsory basic education is enshrined in law and that progressive access to other higher levels of education is provided for.
- ii) Ensure that universal access to primary health care is enshrined in law and is progressively realised.
- iii) Repeal all provisions that discriminate against the child particularly on the grounds of ethnicity, parentage, sex, ethnicity, disability, and others.
- iv) Prohibit any forms of incitement that may disrupt societal harmony in homes, schools, churches or any other institutions.
- v) Ensure that the child justice administration serves the best interest of the child.

If the above listed are to be realised, then a priority for action has to be set on the following basis;

Firstly, Health. An Unhealthy child cannot learn. The best way to increase enrolment in schools is to expand access to primary health care, nutrition, and improved water and sanitation. This will ensure that an increased percentage of children reach a school going age and can learn.

Secondly, Education. The rapid expansion of education is evidently necessary, not only for children themselves, but as a condition for the region's, Kenya's and the continent's economic success, prosperity and its effective participation in the globe.

Thirdly, there should be **Zero tolerance to violence** of whatever form. In the event of an occurrence, concrete action should be taken against the perpetrators and sponsors of such violence. In addition, the government should implement a civic education programme that promotes respect for the rights and dignity of all. The countries legal and justice capacity should be strengthened to fight violence and ensure respect for the rights and well being of all.

Fourthly, Advocacy and political pressure. The African Union (AU) is emerging as a major actor in the continent's transformation. The effort it has been putting into resolving conflicts and bringing about political transformation is paying off. This is evident given the slowly returning peace to many African countries, Kenya being one of them. Authoritarian structures are seen to be giving way to more pluralistic regimes. It enjoys political legitimacy required to ensure that states respect and protects peoples' rights, and that they fulfil their needs as stipulated in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights. With the moral and political standing it commands, the AU has a duty to use its leverage to make states accountable to their citizens

Finally, Kenya needs a **Vibrant civil society** that can engage constructively with the state and hold it accountable for their behaviour and actions. They would then hold hands and put pressure on the state to ensure that it lives up to her obligation. Such initiatives can also support and reinforce the efforts of the AU.

2. Tackling Inequality

Since independence, Kenyans have been grumbling with the issue of inequality. It has been argued that areas that produce leaders with the most influence in government generally get rewarded through projects funded by the government. Likewise, political leaders and technocrats close to the holders of political power tend to amass personal fortunes.

Thus, communities whose members have been left at the periphery of political dominance grumble that the distribution of public service appointments has also been skewed to favour areas that provide political support to the incumbent president. This includes building of new schools and establishing institutions of higher learning.

A new and growing perception in Kenya is communal wealth, which means infrastructural developments in an area inhibited by the community. The major grievance being that some regions have been favoured in allocation of government resources more than others. It is thus easy to understand the vocalized discontent among Kenyans on equality both on quality education and wealth. The underlying causes of political violence that gripped the nation was identified as inequality and massive youth unemployment.

It is a staggering statistic that 20% of the population holds 80% of the Kenyan wealth. It is factual that the wealthy people obtained their wealth particularly land from the departing colonialists. This was due to their influence or positions in government, access to capital and corruption to appropriate as much as was available to them. Business people had to learn fast how to cope within such an environment for them to survive and pursue their industries of interest with fervour. They had to learn how to be 'politically correct'. The principle abusers of public resources continue to enjoy the 'fruits of their labour' when the rest of the population resides in abject poverty.

The rest of the 20% of the wealth is held by a quickly diminishing middle class. The World Bank Social index (2008) indicates that 60% of Kenyans live on a budget of below US\$ 1 a day. Yet this is the voting majority. They can't afford an education for

themselves and their children. Thus restricting them to a corner they can hardly get out of. This apparent and ostensible disparity leads to increased discontent amongst the poor majority. Unless the ruling elite wakes up to this fact, recurrence of the violence is unstoppable.

There is hope in the horizon though. It has been suggested that one of the ways to enhance equality and equitable distribution of wealth is through devolution of limited political power and financial resources from the central government. The funds which have been collected in the form of taxes are then distributed based on a formula defined by law. Every region in Kenya has specific economic potential. It will be able to choose the best industries and projects that it should implement. Through devolution, the exploitation of that potential can be an attempt to make every region self sufficient.

These funds are used to create and improve the social amenities such as education, proper medical care, availability of water and electricity, proper roads etcetera. Such an improved infrastructure will attract the establishment and development of industries away from the traditional urban areas into the newly emerging economic zones. This will create an increase in the level of employment within the regions thus creating more independent self-sufficient micro-economies. Parents will then be able to afford a decent education to their children that guarantees them a better life in the future.

The objects of this form of devolution must however, ensure democratic and accountable exercise of sovereign power, foster national unity by recognizing diversity, give power of self governance to the people and enhance participation of the people in exercising the powers of the State. This can be done by recognizing the powers of the local communities to manage their affairs, promote social and economic development and ensure access to services by the people as well as sharing of national resources.

3. Government Policy on Education

The government must be supported in its implementation of the free primary and secondary education programmes. A most effective way to bridge the gap is by ensuring

access to quality education opportunities for all Kenyan children across the country regardless of parentage, ethnicity, creed, region, etc. This must be supported by other factors as illustrated previously on the rights of the child. To ensure enhanced efficiency in service delivery, there is a case that these services be delivered and managed by the central government.

There are additional groups of learners with special needs (child soldiers and other war-affected youth, orphans, and disabled children). Additional pressures are exerted on the curriculum to simultaneously modernize, streamline, and include additional conflict-related content, such as health and safety messages, tolerance and respect for diversity, psychological support, and conflict management skills.

4. Curriculum

Curriculum contains the comprehensive content that the learner must be taught and learn during the coverage of the syllabus at their academic level. All crisis-affected children and young people should be exposed to enriched educational programs that include skills for education for peace/conflict resolution, tolerance, human rights, and citizenship. They should also have access to, recreation, and related activities, helping meet their psychological needs in the short- and longer-term.

The curriculum must support the long-term development of individual students and of society, and for the refugee populations, should be supportive of a durable solution, normally resettlement or repatriation. Education programs should also be enriched to include skills for education for health, safety, and environmental awareness. These should also include vocational training programs linked to opportunities for workplace practices of the skills being (or have been) learned.

5. Reform and Reconstruction

The challenges that postconflict reconstruction of education faces, are complicated by an added sense of urgency and the additional debilitating after-effects of war. The following four factors are critical in postconflict societies:

- Sound policies and committed leadership at the country level
- Adequate operational capacity at all levels, including capacity of communities to participate effectively, with the right incentives
- Financial resources to scale up programs that work and ensure these reach the service delivery level
- An unequivocal relentless focus on results.

These, are demanding requirements in any circumstances. But they are no less critical for reform and reconstruction in post conflict societies. The lesson from successful initiatives is that each of these factors should be approached in an iterative manner. The 'relentless focus on results,' for instance may start with simply ensuring that the measuring and reporting of results in terms of visible impact – books delivered or schools repaired, or increased access and equity – while the system restores its capacity to measure the real results of reform: the impact on learning outcomes.

All this must be achieved in a context where political authority and civil administration are often weakened, compromised, or inexperienced; civil society is in disarray, deeply divided, and more familiar with the politics of opposition than reconstruction; financial resources are constrained and unpredictable. Yet each of these constrains also contains possibilities: new political authorities are more likely to seek education reform to distance themselves from the previous regimes, particularly where international aid provides additional incentives. Weakened bureaucracies are less able to resist reform. Civil society always focuses on education as a key strategy around which it can coalesce for reform, and the publicity around the end of conflict often attracts an injection of resources that can help to kick-start reform.

In this situation where the demand on an educational system frequently outstrip its capacity to deliver, the question of priorities looms large. In facing challenges on all fronts, where does one begin? There are four possible options:

- Focus on the basics to get the system working so that the return of children and youth to school can be seen as an early 'peace dividend' that will shore up support for peace.
- Acknowledge the importance of symbolism in education and ensure that some bold symbolic actions (such as purging textbooks) signalling that while much about the system remains unchanged, reform has started.
- Build recognition that reform of education is an incremental and ongoing process that takes decades and must be led from within the country as consensus develops on the wider development vision of that society.
- Focus from the beginning on building capacity for reform, which includes supporting the participation of communities, local authorities and other stake holders.

Some other important overarching lessons that have emerged include:

- Making use of interim arrangements and transitional mechanisms.
- Prioritizing basic education within a system-wide approach.
- Demonstrating early and visible impact.
- Building the capacity of the central authorities to ensure an enabling environment for decentralization.
- Building effective partnerships and work closely with interagency coordination mechanisms.
- Recognize the contribution that returning IDPs, refugees, and especially the youth can make to the process of education reconstruction.

The nature of postconflict reconstruction is complex. There are no easy or simple formulae to be applied across the board. Some lessons can however be learned from the accumulated experiences to suggest directions that those involved in supporting the post conflict reconstruction of education can investigate.

5.4 Areas of Further Research

There is need to carry out further studies with more random experiments on the instrumental variables to be used for correcting endogeneity. The bivariate model can also be estimated using other econometrics packages such as Limdep which can decompose the marginal effects into direct and indirect effects. Information on household displacements and the resultant effect on their children's education can be collected to estimate performance function. Furthermore, the performance study can be estimated using panel data to control for other factors that affect child's performance and also to have a broader implication of displacement on schooling of children and their performance on the national examinations relative to the years before the violence. In addition, there still exists a need for research in this area of linking violence, inequality and poverty for the whole country, Kenya.

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APPENDIX I

Introduction Letter to Respondent

Dear Respondent,

I am a postgraduate student at the University of Nairobi, carrying out research on the Impact and effect of post-election violence on education and educational systems.

The interview questions have been designed to help the researcher gather data with respect to this purpose. You have been identified as one of the respondents.

Kindly facilitate the data collection necessary by answering the questions asked therein as precisely and accurately as possible.

The information sought is purely for academic purposes and will be treated with strict confidentiality.

Yours Faithfully

Otieno D.S. Okinyi.

APPENDIX II

Students Questionnaire

1) a) Please indicate the following in the spaces provided:

Gender..... Age..... Class.....
Residence.....

b) Indicate the type of your school:

Day Boarding Boys
Girls Mixed

2) Are you a victim of the post-election violence?.....

3) Has this affected your learning in any way?.....

4) How.....
.....

5) Have any of your school mates dropped out due to this violence?
.....

6) Have you ever dropped out of school before? If yes, indicate why?
.....
.....
.....

7) In your view, why do you think people in you area fought?
.....
.....
.....

8) Does this affect your relationship with children from the other community(ies)?
Explain.....
.....
.....

9) a) Do you have a guiding and counselling teacher?.....
b) If Yes, do you see him or her when you have a problem?.....
.....

c) If NO, why?.....
10) Do you think people should be reconciled?

- 11) Would you forgive those whom you perceive to have committed atrocities towards either your family or community?
- 12) Give suggestions on how you think reconciliation should take place

- 13) a) Has anybody/group of persons educated you on peace building and Reconciliation?
 If yes, who and when?

- b) Do you think peace education should be introduced in schools?
- c) What would you want to be taught?.....

- 14) What do you think should be done to avoid recurrence of the Violence?

- 15) a) Did the violence affect your learning?
 b) How?

APPENDIX III

Teacher's Questionnaire

1) Please indicate the following on the spaces provided:

Gender..... Age..... Duration of Teaching

Highest Education Qualification

2) Indicate the present and former populations of your class.....

.....

3) Does the variations have anything to do with the post-election violence?

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4) In your opinion, how has this affected the old students who were not displaced?

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5) How are the students displaced from other places affected?.....

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6) How are you managing the situation?.....

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7) What measures has the school introduced to manage the situation, if any?

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8) What challenges do students who witnessed and experienced the violence face?

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9) How are you helping?

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- 10) a) Have any evictees returned, how many?.....
b) What actions have you taken as a class teacher to promote reconciliation and peace education in the classroom and within the school?.....
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.....
.....
- 11) Suggest steps which can be taken by the following groups of people to curb civil conflict?
a) Government.....
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b) Headteacher.....
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.....
.....
c) Parents.....
.....
.....
.....
d) Community.....
.....
.....
.....
e) Church.....
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.....
- 12) How has the violence affected student learning in your school?.....
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.....
- 13) How have you handled cases of alienation/open bias among the students, teachers, and non-teaching staff?
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APPENDIX IV

Headteacher's Questionnaire

- 1) How long have you served as headteacher in this particular school?...
..... yrs.
- 2) a) Have you received any internally displaced students in your school?
.....
b) If yes, how many?.....
- 3) What effect has this had on the other students?.....
.....
.....
- 4) Did you loose any students due to the violence?
- 5) In your opinion, how is the inter-ethnic student relation within your school?
.....
.....
.....
- 6) How do you handle who openly ridicule or alienate the others deemed to be
'outsiders'?.....
.....
.....
- 7) a) Do you have a guidance and counselling teacher?
- b) If yes, what does he/she do with regard to the effects of the violence on the
students and the learning process?
-
.....
.....
- 8) Did the school suffer any destruction directly associated with the violence?
.....
Explain
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.....
.....
- 9) Please enlist any new administrative challenges directly resulting from the effects
of the violence?
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- 10) What actions have you taken as the headteacher to promote reconciliation and
peace education in your school?
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11) If yes, are these efforts working? Explain

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12) Suggest steps which can be taken by the following groups of people to curb civil conflict?

a) Government.....

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b) Teachers.....

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c) Parents.....

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d) Community.....

.....

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e) Church.....

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13) In your view, what is the way forward?

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Any other contribution you would wish to make?

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APPENDIX V

Provincial Administrator's/Church Leaders Questionnaire

- 1) How long have you served as an administrator/Pastor in this particular location, division, district?..... yrs.
- 2) a) Have you received any internally displaced students in your area?.....
b) If yes, how many?.....
- 3) What effect has this had on the students?.....
.....
.....
.....
- 4) Did you loose any students due to the violence?.....
.....
.....
- 5) In your opinion, how is the inter-ethnic student relation within your area?.....
.....
.....
.....
- 6) How do you handle who openly ridicule or alienate the others deemed to be outsiders?.....
.....
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- 7) a) Do you have any guidance and counselling sessions?
b) If yes, what does he/she do with regard to the effects of the violence on the students and the learning process?
.....
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- 8) Did the schools in your area suffer any destruction directly associated with the violence?
Explain
.....
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.....
- 9) Please enlist any new administrative challenges directly resulting from the effects of the violence?
.....
.....
.....

10) What actions have you taken as an administrator to promote reconciliation and peace education in your school?

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11) If yes, are these efforts working? Explain

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12) Suggest steps which can be taken by the following groups of people to curb civil conflict?

f) Government.....

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g) Teachers.....

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h) Parents.....

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i) Community.....

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j) Church.....

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13) In your view, what is the way forward?

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14) Any other contribution you would wish to make?

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