PROTECTION-BASED FACTORS INFLUENCING BOY-CHILD PARTICIPATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN LOLGORIAN DIVISION, NAROK COUNTY

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DECLARATION

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

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This project report is dedicated to my husband Michael Kibet Chepkwony, my children, Shirleen Cherono and Shantell Cheptoo, for the support they gave me throughout the period of undertaking the course.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to register profound gratitude to my supervisors Dr. Caroline Ndirangu and Dr. Rosemary Imonje for their guidance, advice, correction, ideas and remarks for improving this research project proposal. I would like to extend my thanks to my lecturers Mary Tangelder, Dr. Loise Gichuhi, Dr. Kalai and Dr. Wanyoike for their various input during the course work that has enabled me to obtain knowledge and analytical skills that has culminated to the undertaking of this study and writing of this research project.

Furthermore, I thank the University of Nairobi for giving me this opportunity to study this unique and relevant course that has not only culminated to writing of this project report but has also helped in acquisition of knowledge that has helped me enormously to tackle my responsibilities at my working place. Thanks to the Teachers Service Commission for allowing me to study and in carry out the research in public primary schools in Lolgorian Division, Narok County.

Furthermore I would like to thank my husband, Michael for his encouragement, moral and financial, support that he gave during the study. I cannot forget my parents Mr. Vincent Mutai and Mrs. Selina Mutai and Nyagutels for their encouragement to further my studies and colleagues in St. Benedicts Secondary School Kapkimolwo led by the principal, Mr. Cornelius Sigei.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>Convention on the Rights of the Child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Information System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOK</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labor Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INEE</td>
<td>Inter agency Network for Education in Emergencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCPE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Primary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPDC</td>
<td>State Peace and Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nation Children Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water Sanitation and Hygiene</td>
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ABSTRACT

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the United Nations on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989) both state that all children have a right to education. This is underscored by the current Education for All (EFA) initiative which seeks to ensure that by 2015 “all children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to education of good quality”. The INEE states that education in emergencies and during chronic crises and early reconstruction, can be both life-saving and life-sustaining, providing physical, psychosocial and cognitive protection. The purpose of the study was to establish protection-based factors influencing boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. This study was guided by the following specific objectives. To establish the extent to which physical protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. The study found out that the boy child was attacked on his way to school and the school was not physically safe. The second objective was to assess the extent to which psychosocial protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. The study found out that the boy child suffered trauma during ethnic conflicts leading to low self esteem. Lastly, to determine the extent to which cognitive protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. The study found out that the content that was learnt in school was not relevant to the needs of the boy child. The teachers were ill trained in subjects such as lifeskills and human rights. The study therefore recommended that there was need to make schools to be safe by providing enough security. Boys also should be escorted to and from school. Play, art music and drama should be provided during and after conflicts so that the boy can be psychologically healed hence suffer less trauma. Teachers should be given refresher courses on how to effectively teach life skills and child rights. In conclusion, the boy child should be made safe the way their female counterparts are. More campaigns should be conducted to sensitize the communities on the importance of making boy child education more secure. The researcher employed descriptive design. Descriptive design sought to uncover the nature of factors involved in a given situation, the degree in which it existed and the relationship between them. The study population constituted 28 head teachers, 120 teachers and 800 school going boys. The study used simple random sampling technique to draw a sample from the study population. Data collection was from two main sources; primary and secondary. Secondary sources included relevant documents and reports. The semi-structured questionnaire and structured questionnaire were the main instrument of the study administered to the respondents. The study’s major conclusion was that boys, just like girls need to be protected by making them equally access education. They should be furnished with knowledge and information about child rights and defence mechanisms when they and their families are under attack during ethnic conflicts.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989) both state that all children have a right to education. This is underscored by the current Education for All (EFA) initiative, which seeks, by 2015, to ensure that “all children and children in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality. According to Sommers (2009), the issues of safety and access to education continues to be a particularly difficult challenge for war-affected children, and especially youth. On the receiving end are boys who in gender dynamics are considered more independent, believed to be less interested in education and have the potential to earn more money while working. This means that boys are more likely to leave school than girls, Levin (2012). Education has a preventive effect on recruitment, abduction and gender based violence, and thereby serves as an important protection tool’ (NRC et al, 1998).

The concept of protection encompasses all activities aimed at obtaining full respect for the rights of the individual in accordance with the letter of spirit of relevant bodies of law for example, human rights, and humanitarian and refugee law. Human rights and humanitarian actors should conduct these activities impartially and not on the basis of race, national or ethnic origin, language or gender (ICRC, 2001). Child protection therefore is the action to prevent or ad-
dress harm caused to children because their rights to security, survival or development are threatened—directly or indirectly—by the acts of third parties, including armed groups (Save The Children).

Physical protection of the boy child is concerned with meeting his survival needs during emergencies on issues like safety, health, and environment. During and after war, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, while boys were enrolled in school in large numbers, parents were quick to point out that there were several barriers that uniquely faced boys in accessing education, for example, several children said that boys were recruited into armed groups and that they loved money and did not like school Verhey (2001). Annan et al. (2006) observed that boys would be drawn to street life due to being lured by the fast urban life. Several mothers explained that schools were not set up for boys as their sons were ashamed of being beaten by teachers and would not put up with being sent home for school fees (Save the Children, 2010). In Northern Nigeria, ravaged by the Boko Haram, attendance rates for boys decreased from 19.6% in 2005/2006 to 15.4% in 2006-2007 and on average stood at 7.1% between 2007 and 2008. They feared going to school because they could be abducted on their way. Secondly, most of them were with families during constant migration (UNICEF, Federal Government of Nigeria, 2008).

According to the Education in Emergencies Situation Update by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology in Kenya, (February, 2014), At least 15 public primary schools were closed as a result of conflicts affecting more than 2661 pupils enrolled in 10 schools that have not been directly affected. Two schools in Marsabit were being used as rescue centers hosting more than 170
IDPs. Damage to school infrastructure and learning materials was experienced in 15 schools from Samburu, Mandera and Wajir Counties while 75 other schools were in need of WASH facilities and services. From these report findings, it is evident that physical protection is key to quality teaching and learning in school.

Psychosocial protection is also important to the boy-child. It is the process of assisting children faced with destruction and violence to live normal and healthy lives and hence avoid being passive, withdrawn or severely depressed. The Women Education Researchers of Kenya (2008) observed that during the 2007/2008 post election violence in Kisumu municipality in Kenya, school boys were said to be influenced by peer pressure and were more prone to truancy. The older boys were said to be ‘just concentrating outside for the noise so that they can go and steal (loot)’(pg 18). These boys were also reported to be more violent and played war-like games. They felt mature and did not want to be punished.

This was attributed to the fact that they had joined the youths in hooliganism and therefore felt they were “men” not “school boys”. Eventually, most of them were involved in drugs and criminal activities hence dropping out from school. Abere, (2012), in his study on the impact of post-election violence on pupils’ performance in K.C.P.E in Esisie division, Nyamira County, Kenya revealed that Post Election Violence had a negative impact on pupils’ enrolment which decreased gradually from 2535 in 2007 to 2179 in 2012. Further findings were that the violence had negative impact on the teaching staff with
68.8% being psychologically distressed, 93.8% having lost their property and 91.1% being traumatized. Further, there was a negative impact on pupils’ performance in K.C.P.E which saw a progressively declining index in 2008, 2009 and 2010 of 5.6, 3.8, and 1.4 respectively.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Primary school going boys in Lolgorian Division dropped out of school at a higher rate of 2.2% as compared to the girls at 1.6%, while girls’ survival rate was recorded at 88.9% compared with that of boys at 79.6% as per the Ministry of Education,(MoE) (2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Drop-out Rate (%)</th>
<th>Survival Rate(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1; Drop-out and survival rate per gender in 2007/2008 in Lolgorian Division.

The government of Kenya has identified gender equity and equality as key drivers of enhancing social cohesion within and through education and inclusion in all aspects of private and public life as outlined in the Sessional Paper Number 1 of 2005 the Kenyan Education Sector Support Programme-KESSP(GOK, 2005). Notably, gender research has often focused on the educational experiences and outcomes for girls without comparing with that of boys during emergencies like ethnic conflicts. In Nairobi, the boys dropout rate stood at 4.2% compared with 4.0% among the girls in 2007/2008 (Fatuma, Chege, 2009) Girls’ survival rate stood at 88.1% as compared to 85.2% for the boys. It is however
notable that girls have continued to lead in completing grade five as boys re-
tention rates decline.
In Lolgorian this situation of inequality was further catalyzed by ethnic con-
flicts in the area. The schools were no longer safe for the learners especially
boys during this time. In Nairobi, boys drop out especially those in the slums
to do odd jobs in order to supplement their families’ income. In Kenya there
has been a potential risk in the marginalization of boys meaning that the boys
are not considered in situations like safety as compared to the girls as gender
equality agenda tends to direct attention to empowerment of girls, for example
affirmative action. This study therefore seeks to establish protective factors that
influence the participation of the boy-child in primary education in Lolgorian
Division, Narok County.

1.3 Purpose of the study
The purpose of this study was to establish protective factors influencing boy-
child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County.
1.4 Research objectives

This study was guided by the following research objectives:

i. To establish the extent to which physical protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County.

ii. To assess the extent to which psychosocial protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County.

iii. To determine the extent to which cognitive protection influences boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions guided this research work:

i. To what extent does physical protection influence boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County?

ii. How does psychosocial protection influence boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County?

iii. To what extent does cognitive protection influence boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study seeks to show the plight of the boy child’s protection in primary education in the violence prone Lolgorian Division. The resultant findings were beneficial to the government, the education stakeholders and policy
makers should they need to review their policies so as to make the public primary schools in the said Division more boy-child friendly. The same findings may be beneficial to the head teachers, teachers and pupils if they need to know what child friendly schools for pupils in general and the boy child in particular, entails. The same findings may be beneficial to future researchers if they need to establish the influence of protective factors on the participation of the boy-child in primary education in Lolgorian Division.

1.7 Limitations to the study

This study was limited by the fact that data was collected using a self-assessment questionnaire which was subject to respondent bias. To overcome this, the researcher ensured reliability and validity of the questionnaire by conducting a pilot study on head teachers, teachers and students in one of the primary school in the area.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

This study was limited to public primary school head teachers, teachers and pupils excluding private schools, girls, parents, though it can be available to school managers like the Parent Teachers’ Association and education officials. Therefore the study findings could not be generalized to all primary schools.

1.9 Assumptions of the study

This study was guided by the following assumptions:

i. The participants in the study gave honest responses.
ii. The participants were aware of what cognitive, physical and cognitive protection entail.

iii. Boy child’s participation in public primary school was influenced by various ethnic violence related factors which could be measurable using questionnaires.

1.10 Definition of significant terms used in the study.

Protection encompasses all activities aimed at obtaining full respect for the rights of the individual in accordance with the spirit of relevant bodies of law for example, human rights, humanitarian and refugee law (ICRC, 2001) in Lolgorian Division.

Participation refers to the degree of regular attendance, retention and completion of the boy child in Lolgorian Division.

Physical protection refers to meeting the survival needs of the boy-child during emergencies for instance safety in Lolgorian Division.

Psychosocial protection refers to the process of assisting the boy-child faced with destruction and violence to live normal and healthy lives and hence avoid being passive, withdrawn or severely depressed in Lolgorian Division.

Cognitive protection refers to the process of meeting the boy-child’s literacy and numeracy skills in subjects like peace education, conflict resolution and social studies in Lolgorian Division.

Boy child refers to a male child.
Primary education refers to a systematic training and instruction especially for the young in schools. In Kenya, it approximately takes nine years.

Ethnic conflicts refer to political, social, and economic opposition, disagreement or fighting between one cultural group and the other.

1.11 Organization of the study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one comprises of the background information, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations to the study, assumptions, definition of operational terms and organization of the study. Chapter two comprises of the literature review which was discussed under sob topics, summary of literature review, conceptual and theoretical frameworks. Chapter three comprises of research methodology to be used, research design, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, research instruments, validity and reliability of research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Chapter four comprises of data analysis presentations and discussions while chapter five contains summary, conclusions and recommendation.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents reviewed literature on protective factors influencing boy-child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division. The participation is influenced by such protective factors as cognitive, physical and psychosocial within the school. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks are also discussed.

2.2 Overview on protection and Education

Protection is the provision of education in a safe and conducive environment for learning which in turn leads to the provision of life-saving and life-sustaining activities, which provides hope, dignity and a sense of purpose for the future to the boy-child. Participation is the rate of attendance, retention and completion of the boy-child in school. This can be influenced by factors like safety, distance, poverty, willingness and quality of teaching and learning in school. School destruction or closure, due to a location’s insecurity, has dramatically affected access and quality of education (UNOCHA, 2003) the geographical distance from the schools to the community influences participation of the boy-child. International Research on Working Children (IREWOC, 2007) also argued that due to distance, parents cannot check whether their child actually goes to school or changes his/her mind on the way. At primary-school-age, children are also required to help out at home, which affects their performance in school and often leads to dropout. To have both school and
home environments that are safe and conducive for learning is essential for a child to keep a positive attitude towards education. If the home environment does not stimulate school attendance and studying, then it is crucial that the school offers the boy-child an appealing and non-discriminatory environment that is more attractive compared to joining cattle rustling and drug gangs (Buckland, 2005). The more the boy-child is out of school, the more difficult it is for him to maintain its focus on education.

2.3 Physical protection and boy child participation

Physical protection in education involves the ability of educational institutions to provide safe and secure spaces that promote the well-being of learners and teachers (UNHCR, Education Strategy, 2012-2016). Reviewed literature is indicative of the fact that this kind of protection is far from being achieved in most institutions of learning. Boys especially those affected by conflict are at a distinct disadvantage: at the individual level, they may have had their education disrupted or missed part of all of their primary education. This may have been due to the frequent absenteeism of teachers, loss of materials, and loss of physical infrastructure (damaged, destroyed or subsumed by warring functions). Alternatively it may have been due to inability of the boy child to attend school due to migration of their families or due to insecurity that physically prevented them from attending school.

In conflict situations, men and young boys may be at greater risk of recruitment into fighting forces and into potentially lethal active combat (UNESCO, 2006). Armed conflict affects all aspects of young boys’ development, physi-
cal, mental and emotional (UNICEF, 1996). Buckland (2006) notes that most of those children in primary schools affected in war torn areas are boys. In fact the primary enrolment gender gap in Kisumu Municipality in Kenya actually showed disparities during 2007/2008 post poll chaos, for instance, in standard 7, enrollment for boys was at 45.96% to 54.04% for girls, 49.87% to 50% in standard 6 and 48.53% to 51.47% in standard 5. In addition, 45% of the pupils perceived that there are more boys who should be in school but are not in school (WERK, 2008). When boys drop out of school or engage in the labor force, the burden of domestic chores and responsibility significantly increase for girls and women which in turn impacts their access to the quality of their education too (UNICEF, EAPRO, 2009).

According to Kibris (2013), in Brazil local violence by drug gangs has a large negative impact on school resources for example, turnover of principals, teacher absenteeism and school closures. This is a threat to the physical protection of students who risk being hurt or lose their lives as well as drop out of school. In Somali, O’Malley (2010) observes that boys are used as combatants and girls are used to cook and clean. A study conducted in Somali by Bekalo et al. (2003) established that 30% of primary schools in Somali had no toilets, about 90% had no running water in the school compound and basic facilities like desks, chairs and latrines were lacking. This results in to poor or no enrolment by pupils as well as their teachers in such schools because physical protection is completely lacking.
2.4 Psychosocial protection and boy child participation.

Psychosocial protection is a scale of care and support which influences both the individual and the social environment in which people live and it ranges from care and support offered by caregivers, family members, friends, neighbors, teachers, health workers, and community members on a daily basis but also extends to care and support offered by specialized psychological and social services. Experiencing difficult or disturbing events can significantly impact the social and emotional wellbeing of a boy child. Exposure to violence, separation from family members and friends, deterioration in living conditions and lack of access to services can all have immediate as well as long term consequences for the boy child.

Psychosocial interventions are built upon a boy child’s natural resilience and family, school and community support mechanisms, examine possible risks and protective factors and attempt to provide additional experiences that will promote coping and positive development, despite adversities experienced (Benzies, Mychasiuk, 2008). A large body of literature indicates that exposure to economic shocks in early childhood can have a negative effects and a long lasting impact on the health and educational attainment of individuals in turn affecting their long term earnings and well-being in adulthood (Mayra, et al., 2011). Sometimes teachers and peers are the perpetrators of violence on pupils causing them untold emotional torture. In Uganda, a survey by UNICEF (2009) in conjunction with the Ministry of Education revealed that 46% of the children in primary schools in the sample reported experiencing emotional abuse by a teacher, 50% were boys while 43% were girls. Emotional abuse
was more common in primary schools at 56% than in secondary schools at 41%. Children lacked awareness on child rights in schools which inhibited them from reporting the violence they experienced. 56% of the children lived in acute fear that their schools may catch fire one day because school authorities did not consider fire mitigation a priority. The findings also revealed that boys felt corporal punishment in particular made them hate school to the extent of dropping out of school to look for alternative routes as casual laborers.

From the focus group discussion boys indicate that when they see their peers being humiliated emotionally and physically abused, they hate school, drop out and fear to return. Brofenbrenner, 1979, indicates that these negative emotional experiences on boys result to trauma within them. This denies them the psychosocial protection they require so as to remain in and complete school. The idea of a traumatized boy-child having the ability to reconstruct their lives is at first difficult to understand when the effect of trauma is considered. Trauma arises from victimization. Herman (1997) observes that the ability of conflict to impact the lives of boys is so great that even limited exposure can have a lasting effect. Garbarino et al., (1997) note that only a few moments of war experience can produce images of such power in a boy child that they reverberate over weeks, months, years over a life time. In Kenya, the 2007/2008 post-election violence had very devastating consequences on the boy child. Onsongo (2008) confirms that this violence had psychological effects on pupils since a majority suffered from such post traumatic disorders such as withdrawal, isolation anger, nightmares revenge, aggression and rebellion, poor
concentration in school depression and a feeling of hopelessness about the future.

Apfel and Simon (1996) observe that from Colombia to Sierra Leone to Sri Lanka, children lie at warfare’s core. Boy child actors in and survivors of such wars are commonly blanketed by loss (including of their childhood) and burdened by severe traumatic distress. For them school can become an essential form of psychosocial intervention, a critically important step on the road to recovery and a bulwark against what can be severe and profoundly destructive behavior.

Despite the horrors wrecked by war, some children nonetheless manage to become “healthy, vibrant contributing adults”. A growing body of research suggests that it might be possible to foster resiliency in war affected children (Blum, 2002). A survey carried out by Save the Children (1995) in South Sudan, revealed that a large group of unaccompanied boys, trained from an early age to adjust to and survive in harsh conditions in a nomadic cattle camp away from home arrived in Ethiopia after a harrowing journey on foot and with very few exceptions were able to recuperate quickly. Salama (2001) asserts that education is an important tool to overcome violence and improve respect for human rights. Pirisi (2001) demonstrates how psychological interventions in educational settings improve the lives and education potential of boys affected by wars. Boys affected by war and violence should not have their suffering compounded by lack of food and shelter. Full stomachs make them feel proud and happy. To ensure that basic needs are met is itself psychosocial
assistance. It lets the children know that life will in fact go on despite the terrible events that are occurring or occurred. Programs such as feeding programs in school attempt to restore the normal routines of life such as school, work and play so that children are not stuck in one moment in development. Trauma healing takes place through cultural activities such as music, dance, storytelling and community theater (Gilligan, 2000). Experience shows that the boy child can bounce back to life from war trauma.

2.5 Cognitive protection and boy-child participation

At its core, formal education usually involves teaching, reading, writing and numeracy/arithmetic. Education in its widest sense describes “activities that impart knowledge or skill.” It is the foundation for human development and the life long process of acquiring the knowledge and skills required by people to be able to survive, to develop one’s full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning.” (UNESCO, 2000).

Literacy and numeracy are often considered the keys to education. Being functionally literate and numerate can open up an entire world of possibilities, enabling the boy-child to access sources of knowledge through books and printed materials (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003). More than just the core around which most educational programmes are built, numeracy and literacy can also be considered survival skills. Being able to read a label or a sign can save his life. Functional literacy and numeracy can also be seen as gateways to a better future and as such are a source of hope (Jackson et al, 2000). Cognitive protec-
tion includes the following benefits: schools help children to “develop and retain the academic skills of basic education,” furnish children with knowledge of human rights and skills for citizenship and living in times of peace,” and encourage children “to analyze information, express opinions, and take action on chosen issues.” (Sommers, 2009). Cognitive protection is provided when the content of education meets the needs of the children and provides important health and safety messages relevant to the context (UNESCO, 2006). For optimum cognitive protection, male youth affected by crises need to learn about reproductive health and have access to information, support and skills, particularly on how to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS. Young fathers, need to be supported in their new roles with information on baby care, health and nutrition, as well as about how to look after themselves. The emphasis, however, is that probably bedifferent for each, and single-sex groupings with male teachers may be the most appropriate means of providing such information (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003).

In circumstances of crisis, academic learning is not a luxury. Knowing how to read, write and do basic math is essential for boys in protecting themselves. Reading skills enable them to gather information about their environment – whether from signs, newspapers, health brochures or medicine bottles. Writing skills enable them to sign for services and write letters seeking assistance. They may need basic mathematical skills to manage their household’s flow of money. (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003).
2.6 Summary of literature review

Reviewed literature shows that the boy child’s participation in primary school education in war ravaged areas is under threat physically, psychosocially and cognitively. Machel (1996) did a study on the impact of conflict on children. The study expounds broadly on how the girls are killed, married off early, exposed to sex slavery and hence poor education back ground thereafter in life. The youths are used as combatants, potters and terrorists. Machel’s study concurs with this study in that the boys in Lolgorian Division are attacked and kidnapped on their way to school by cattle rustling gangs or drug peddlers.

According to Kibris (2013), in Brazil local violence by drug gangs has a large negative impact on school resources for instance turnover of school principals, teacher absenteeism and school closures. Kibris’ study concurs with this study in that in Lolgorian Division, the teachers said that they keep transferring to schools near their homes for fear of being attacked.

Sommers, 2009, says that schools help children to develop and retain academic skills of basic education, furnish them with knowledge of human rights and skills for citizenship and living in times of peace. This information differs with this study in that in Lolgorian Division, the teachers reported to be ill trained on life skills, citizenship, human rights and self protection. They don’t have refresher courses to equip them on the content and teaching methodology.
2.7 Theoretical framework

This study was informed by Brofenbrenner’s (1979) and Garbano (1982) SocialEcological theory. This ecological approach provides a framework for addressing the multiple dimensions of post-conflict learning. The theory looks at nested layers of actors and relationships moving from the child’s immediate family and environment to community influences on the family to attitudes and values at the societal level. The ecological model affirms the value of interventions aimed at different social layers because they all have influence on the boy child. The quality interaction with teachers in school; the way in which teachers understand and address the consequences of trauma; the extent to which community leaders have a voice in shaping the development initiative; the degree to which political leaders engage in a type of governance that fosters security and trust rather than re-traumatization and renewed violence. All of these influence the wellbeing of children, and all influence how children outgrow the violence that threatens to disable them.

Human development is a consequence of an individual’s attributes, for example, cognitive, emotional and behavioral characteristics and the environments or context in which in which an individual lives. It is recognized that boys in conflict affected areas will succeed in school by identifying “risk factors” and minimizing them and identifying “protective factors” and optimizing them (Rutter, 1997). Risk factors are processes in the boy child’s environment for example the risk of being abducted, being recruited into a combatant, being injured during the conflict, lack of classrooms, toilets, running water, food and shelter, sexual violence, canning as well as lack of enough and qualified
teachers in schools that contribute to reduced resiliency and poor participation in primary education. Protective factors are processes in the boy child, for example, quality teaching and learning, play, music, games, painting and drama, availability of enough toilets, running water, food and classrooms, that contribute to increased resiliency as well as participation in primary school education. Bronfenbrenner therefore conceives of learning and development as a complex reciprocal interaction between an active individual and the immediate environment.

2.8 Conceptual framework

A conceptual framework is a presentation that shows the coherence through variable empirical research of how the independent variables impact upon the dependent variables of the research and illustrates the outcome. The interrelationship between the variables are as shown in figure 2.1 below.
In Figure 2.1 the independent variable includes physical protection, psychosocial protection and cognitive protection. The dependent variable is increased boy child participation levels in primary education. The increased participation of the boy child in primary schools depends on the independent variable. These factors are assumed to be the input that determines the partici-
participation of the boy child which is the output. The process involves access, enrollment, retention and completion. The output yields increased participation of the boy child.

The school should be child friendly in such a way that the boy child feels safe and secure. It should also be equipped with basic WASH facilities. The learning environment should equip the boy child with human and particularly rights of the child. He should be allowed to play, be creative and explore his environment fully.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the various methods that was used by the researcher in carrying out the study. It contains research design, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, validity and reliability of research instruments, to be used and data collection procedures.

3.2 Research design

This study employed descriptive survey research design. The design seeks to uncover the nature of factors involved in a given situation. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a survey is an attempt to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of the population with respect to one or more variables. Descriptive research is hence a self-report which requires the collection of quantifiable information from a sample thereby providing accurate description of the independent variables.

3.3 Target population

The population of interest in this study are the head teachers, teachers and primary school-going boys in the target area. Target population is 1000 comprising of 850 boys, 120 teachers and 30 head teachers.
3.4 Sample size and sampling techniques

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) define sampling as the procedure of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represent the large group from which they were selected. This study used purposive sampling and random sampling. Purposive sampling was used in selecting class 7 and 8 students who can easily respond to the questionnaire items when guided. Simple random sampling was used to ensure that a majority of teachers and head teachers had equal chances of participation. According to Mugenda et al., (2003), a representative sample should be at least 30% of the total population should be considered for a small population.

Table 3.1 Adopted sample size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Target size</th>
<th>sample percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head teachers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school boys</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1000</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 Research instruments

Research instruments comprised of questionnaires and interview schedules. The questionnaire was divided into four parts. Section A sought demographic information. Section B comprised of physical protection. Section C comprised of cognitive protection while section D comprised of psychosocial protection. Mugenda et al., (2003) asserts that questionnaires allow a researcher to measure for or against a particular view point and emphasizes that a
questionnaire has the ability to collect a large amount of data within a short period of time. The interview schedules were used to fill gaps for purposes of clarity.

3.6 Validity of research instruments

Validity refers to the process of ascertaining the degree to which the test measures what it purports to be measuring. Validity was determined by giving two experts to evaluate the relevance of each item in the instrument to the objectives and rate each item on the scale of very relevant (4), quite relevant (3), somewhat relevant (2) and not relevant (1).

3.7 Instrument reliability

Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) defined reliability as a measure of the degree to which research instruments yield same result on repeated trials. To test consistency in producing a reliable result (reliability), this study used the Alpha coefficient (Cronbach alpha) method. It requires three types of information: the number of items in the test, the mean and the standard deviation. The researcher administered the questionnaire to the pilot group after one week. Correlation of scores were computed using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient as shown in the formula below.

\[
KR_{20} = \frac{(K)(S^2 - \Sigma s^2)}{(S^2)(K-1)}
\]

Where: \(KR_{20}\) = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

\(K\) = Number of items used to measure the concept
\[ S^2 = \text{Variance of all scores} \]
\[ s^2 = \text{Variance of individual items} \]

3.8 Pilot testing of the instruments

A pilot study is usually carried out on members of the relevant population, but not on those who formed part of the final sample. This is because it may influence the later behavior of research subjects if they have already been involved in the research (Haralambos and Holborn 2000). The researcher employed convenient sampling technique at Kapkimolwo Primary school, south of Narok County, a total of 20 respondents were employed to test the data collection tools that were adopted, namely questionnaires.

3.9 Data collection procedures

To conduct this study, the researcher obtained authority from the National Council for Science and Technology. Further, the researcher sought permission from the area County Commissioner and the head teachers of the various public primary schools before commencing data collection. The study required data that was sensitive to the boy child, teachers and head teachers in public primary schools. As such, to conceal the information from the mentioned groups, the researcher collected information from the ensuring that anonymity prevails all through. Self-administered questionnaires were presented to head teachers, teachers and boy students during organized visits during which the questionnaires were filled and collected. In case the boys didn’t understand the items in the questionnaire, the researcher interpreted for them by giving the guidance on how to fill them.
3.10 Data analysis techniques

Data was collected both qualitatively and quantitatively. Quantitative data was analyzed by use of descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution and percentages with the aid of computer software (SPSS). Qualitative data was analyzed by use of content analysis which involves categorizing and indexing of responses and other field notes into common themes as per the objectives. Frequency and percentage tables were used to present.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Seeking authority from various authorities was undertaken, more importantly the head teachers of the primary schools and also willingness of respondents. The study ensured that the information from the respondent was kept confidential. Lastly, the researcher ensured that the research was purely for academic purposes.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. The study was to establish influence of ethnic conflict on boys’ participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok Kenya. The analysis of data collected and its interpretation was in relation to the objectives and research questions of the study. Data presented include demographic information about the respondents as well as factors of ethnic conflict and boys’ participation in education in public primary schools, in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. The responses were compiled into frequencies and percentages and presented in cross tabulations.

4.2 Questionnaire return rate

The researcher targeted 30 public primary school head teachers, 125 teachers and 850 school going boys. Therefore, 1005 questionnaires were administered.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire return rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sampled respondents</th>
<th>Questionnaires Administered</th>
<th>Questionnaires Returned</th>
<th>Return rate %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head teachers</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>96.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>94.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A total of 948 questionnaires, representing 94.3 percent, were returned. 93.3 percent of the head teachers, 96 percent teachers and 94 boys returned the questionnaires. The high return rates of well filled questionnaires indicated that the topic under study was relevant to a great extent to a large number of the respondents. This response was considered satisfactory for the purpose of the study. The researcher established that questionnaires returned unanswered because the respondents were not available to participate in the research.

4.3 Demographic Information

The study sought to know the respondents personal data that comprised of gender, age bracket, educational level and qualification and the teaching experience. This information was only to give an insight of the respondents’ characteristics in relation to the study objectives. The researcher sought to identify respondents’ gender and their responses were as shown on table 4.2

Table 4.2 Respondents by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (f)</td>
<td>percent %</td>
<td>Frequency (f)</td>
<td>percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The study findings in table 4.3.1 indicates that, 92.8 percent of head teachers in public primary schools in Lolgorian when this research was carried out are male, 7.2 % are female. 100 % of the pupils taking part are boys since they are the ones targeted by the study.

During the focused group discussion, respondents expressed that the higher number of males in administration is as a result of cultural factors because lesser girls are educated and that the female teachers shy away from administrative duties arguing that it is too involving and may not take care of their families as they are wanted to by the society.

To find out respondents’ highest professional qualification and their relation to boys’ participation, respondents were requested to indicate their highest level of professional qualification. The head teachers’ and teachers’ responses were shown in table 4.3.

**Table 4.3: Respondents’ highest professional qualifications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Head Teachers</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency(f)</td>
<td>Percent%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. Ed</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.3 shows that majority of the head teachers, are P1 and B.Ed holders at 35.7 percent. This was an indication that majority of the head teachers had acquired professional qualification through experience in the profession and were in a position to handle matters regarding insecurity that would hinder boys participation, while majority of the teachers, 79.2 percent were P1 certificate holders.

During focused group discussion, most of the head teachers sited age and time, saying that they are too old and busy to study to the masters level. Teachers said that they lacked finances to go further their studies. Further the study sought to know the respondents age brackets, the findings were tabulated in table 4.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of years</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency(f)</td>
<td>Percent %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 30 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 - 40 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 50 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 50 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.4 the research findings show that majority of the head teachers, 53.6 percent were over 41 years old while majority of the teachers, 57.5 percent were aged between 31 to 40 years. This was an indication that majority of the
school heads were older and mature than most of the teachers placing them in a better position to handling school matters. Further, the study sought to find out the teaching experience of the respondents, the findings were presented in table 4.5.

**Table 4.5 Head teachers’ and teachers’ teaching experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of years</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency (f)</td>
<td>Percent %</td>
<td>Frequency (f)</td>
<td>Percent %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 10 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- 20 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years and above</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 shows that majority of the head teachers, 60.7 percent, had over 10 years of teaching experience. 45 percent of the teachers had taught for less than 5 years. These findings reveal that majority of the head teachers had been teaching for a long duration placing them in a position to tackle the challenges faced by boys that would hinder their participation in school in the area.

It was confirmed in an informal interview with a head teacher that most teachers have served in stations near their homes for over 10 years; this could be attributed to the fact that most teachers seek transfers to their home vicinities when they are victims of inter-ethnic conflict. Some of the head teachers
stated that their schools have suffered shortage of teachers for a considerable period since the onset of the recurrent ethnic conflict since most of the teachers who come from far especially another tribe have sought external transfers due to insecurity in the area.

The researcher sought to find out the duration head teachers had been in their current station and presented their findings in Table 4.6.

### Table 4.6: Head teachers’ duration in their current station

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of years</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 10 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 15 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study findings in table 4.6 show that 39.2% of the head teachers have been in headship for 5-10 years. These findings implied that they were in a better position to give accurate information on the impact of ethnic conflict on the participation of the boy child. Pupils’ ages were also sought and presented in table 4.7.
Table 4.7 Age of the boy child in years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>89.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 and above</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For purpose of clarity in this study, in table 4.7 boys of at least 11 years at 89.1% were interviewed because they are in a better position to understand the topic with much ease as compared to their younger counterparts.

During focused group discussions, boys of at least 11 years of age could argue themselves out with much ease and with very detailed information as compared to the young ones. Table 4.8 shows boys’ class distribution.

Table 4.8: Boys’ class distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class 6</td>
<td>306</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class 7</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class 8</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study involved pupils from classes 6, 7 and 8 to participate in the study.

Table 4.8 shows that majority of the boys who participated in the study were in class 6 at 38.3% and 31.9% are in class 7. It is clear that the enrollment of the boy child declines in classes 7 and 8.
During focused group discussions the boys attributed this to their drop out as a result of lack of will for education among them, displacement and destruction during ethnic conflicts and child labor.

**4.4 Influence of physical protection on boy-child participation**

As indicated in the literature review, physical protection in education involves the ability of educational institutions to provide safe and secure spaces that promote the wellbeing of learners and teachers (UNHCR, 2012-2016). However, in Lolgorian Division this is not the case to most of the boys in public primary schools in the area. Insecurity in the area shows that the boys are the most affected during ethnic conflict due to their vulnerability because instead of going to school to learn they take care of the livestock which is the major source of livelihoods for their families. The findings are in line with INEE (2004) that states that pastoralists in over 21 countries across the African continent are affected by conflicts. Water points and grazing grounds have turned out to be battle fields for the Maasai and Kalenjin communities in the area. In Table 4.4.1, it clearly shows head teachers and teachers response on how the boy child is affected directly by this type of insecurity in Table 4.9.
Table 4.9: Head teachers’ and teachers’ responses on the extent to which acts of violence influence boys’ participation in education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency (f)</td>
<td>Percent  %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very high extent</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the study findings in table 4.9, majority of the head teachers, 46.4 percent, and 75.8 percent of teachers indicated that acts of violence influence boys’ participation in education to a very high extent.

During focused group discussions, the respondents argued that the conflicts with a span of a decade in the area have had a negative impact on the participation of the boy child. In the literature review, WERK, 2008, points out that during the post election violence in Kenya in 2007/8 there were more boys who stayed at home instead of going to school. Their schooling was affected very much. This was an indication that boys are discontinued, not enrolled or absented from school due to insecurity related issues. During tribal conflicts, the schools are destroyed and so the school administration seeks alternatives structures to conduct learning as shown in table 4.10.
Table 4.10: Head teachers’ responses on where classes are held after destruction of school facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency(f)</th>
<th>Percent%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Makeshift structures</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under tree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No classes held</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>53.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research findings in table 4.10 revealed that in majority cases, schooling stops after destruction of schools’ facilities. In Lolgorian division, 53.6% of the head teachers said that no classes are held during ethnic conflicts as structures are destroyed or the children fear to go to school. 25% and 21.4% of the head teachers argued that they alternatively use makeshift structures or teach under trees respectively incase new structures had not been constructed. These findings imply that destruction of school facilities and displacement comes in hand in hand. When schools are destroyed, and children have to travel long and possibly dangerous distances to attend the nearest functioning facility many boys are more likely to stay at home (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2009).

During an interview, one of the head teacher said that when classes were conducted under trees, it only attracted the students from the lower classes. They could have some feelings of fun under the tree while their older counterparts felt that they are too mature to be taught under a tree and therefore would not go to school at all. He also argued that, while under a tree, the pupils would rarely have some academic skills as most of them are engaged with play. They as-
associate a classroom structure with learning and not under a tree. The nature of insecurity that faces the boy child is indicated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Head Teachers’ and teachers’ response on nature of insecurity facing the boy child in Lolgorian Division

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Insecurity</th>
<th>Head Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abduction to and from school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment into cattle rustling gangs</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug abuse</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4.11, 64.3 % of the head teachers sites that most of the boys in public primary school are recruited into cattle rustling gangs while 58.3 % of the teachers agrees that drug abuse have made education to be unpalatable to most of the boys in public primary schools. 7.1 % and 8.3 % of head teachers and teachers respectively argued that boys are also abducted on their way to school.
During focused group discussion, both the head teachers and teachers stated that boys are recruited into cattle rustling gangs to carry out revenge missions for the community. This is done by the boys voluntarily to show their manhood or forcefully by older men when they are on their way to or from school. In addition, peer pressure lures boys to drugs for instance alcohol and smoking. Distance from boys’ home to school is also a great challenge. Long distances to school pose serious risks as shown in table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Responses on approximate distance from boys’ homes to their various schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>500M-1KM</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2KM</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2KM-3KM</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4KM and more</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4.12, 39.6% of the boys travel very long distances of 2-3 kilometres to school, 14.8% travel more than 4 kilometres to school daily.

During focused group discussions, the boys who travel very long distance to school face a lot of challenges, for instance they are worn out and fatigued, they are more exposed to gangs and drug peddlers on the way thus making them stand a greater risk of being recruited into tribal fighting forces. Most of them would have no alternative but to stay at home and eventually
engage in child labor. According to INEE Minimum Standards (2004), the
distance from home to school should be in a diameter of 1 Kilometer. In the
literature review it shows that in Sierra Leone long ravaged by conflicts, the
primary schools were made accessible to the public by applying the 1
use a variety of means to get to school. In Lolgorian Division, school going
boys are not left behind as shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Means that boys use to get to school in Lolgorian Division

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By foot</td>
<td>711</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By motor bike/bodaboda</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By bicycle</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By a vehicle</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>800</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13 clearly indicates that 88.9% of boys go to school by foot. 4.1% and
56% use motorbike and bicycle respectively.

During informal interviews, boys sited that they go to school by foot because
their parents cannot afford to pay for them to board a motorbike or a bus. As a result they have to wake up very early to run to school. In an informal interview, the teachers argued that the bodaboda riders have had a negative impact on the boys because they lure them to this cheap transport business hence dropping out of school. The riders are also potential drug peddlers for
instance alcohol. Ideally, where distance is a challenge, children should be provided with safe transportation, for instance an organized school bus service or fare exempt travel by public buses that go past the school. In remote locations like Lolgorian where they live long distances from schools or face risks in their school journey, such as crossing streams or rivers or risking physical attacks such services are like fairy tales to all of them. In tribal clashes prone areas, parents and school should participate and organize for students to travel together since there is safety in numbers or be accompanied by responsible adults (escort pooling) (Branneli, Owomoyeka, 2009) as shown in table 4.14 shows the rate at which they get escort to school during ethnic conflicts.

Table 4.14: Boys’ response on whether they get escort to school by their guardians or involved in escort pooling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>734</td>
<td>91.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4.14, 91.8% of the boys say that they have never been escorted to and from school by their guardians or teachers. 7.1% said that they are irregularly escorted to school. 1.1% of the boys said they are always escorted.
During focused group discussions it was clearly evident that the boy child is exposed to a lot of danger in Lolgorian Division during ethnic conflicts. Without proper supervision by an adult, boys may be attacked on their way to school, recruited into gangs, lured to illicit brew and drop out of school eventually. Expansive schoolyards with large buildings or unprotected areas will pose danger to the boy child, security measures like secured fence and a main gate are necessary. Asked why they are not escorting their sons to school, the parents argue that the boys are considered brave as compared to their female counterparts. The older boys argued that they didn’t want to be escorted because they are “men”. The physical environment of a school or learning space include adequate fencing and availability of guards as shown in table 4.15.

### Table 4.15: Level of safety in public primary schools in the area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of security in primary schools</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presence of fulltime watchmen</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of a night-time only watchman</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issuance of permission sheets to the boys when getting out of the school before the right time</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4.15 above, issues of security in Lolgorian primary schools is wanting. As shown in all the sampled primary schools don’t hire a full
time watchman, 100% of primary schools hire a night time watchman. All the sampled schools do not issue leave out passes to their pupils.

During the focused group discussions with the head teachers, most of them argue that they don’t have adequate finance to hire fulltime guards. Some of them think that full time guards are preserve for boarding primary schools and secondary schools. On the issue of permits, most head teachers said that teachers on duty issue oral permissions to students during school hours since the schools doesn’t have financial vote heads to purchase printing machines and papers. Due to the above factors, most boys sneak out of school without teachers notice and proper permission. The boy child therefore lacks protection by presence. The guards are only there at night to take care of the school property and not the pupil. In the literature review, Machel, 1996, states that security and safety inside the school compound is of high importance, ethnic conflicts leads to attacks on education infrastructure, personnel and pupils including damaging or destruction of school by arson, threats to teachers and administration. Schools should be safe spaces to learn and play. This therefore calls for the intensification of security in and around learning institutions. To ensure this, fences should be built to protect them from harmful outside influences such as drug peddling or physical violence (Bird, 2003). Head teachers response on the convenience of the fences and gates in their stations as indicated in table 4.16.
Table 4.16: Head teachers’ response on the convenience of the type of the school fence and gate to the boy child’s security

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very efficient</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less efficient</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intable4.16, 75% of the head teachers clearly indicated that their schools’ fences and gates are less efficient. 7.1% of the teachers indicated that their fences and gates were very efficient.

During focused group discussions, most of the headteachers argued that the community and the government are more concerned about construction of classrooms, offices and toilets and less attention is paid on the fences and gates. It was observed that most fences were poorly maintained for instance the barbed wires were hanging loosely, live fences were not neatly slashed and notable was the availability of numerous pathways that pupils can use to get out school compound. Most gates were poorly maintained too, they were temporary and unlockable. As a result boys would easily sneak in and out of school without being noticed by the school administration and teachers.

Further the researcher sought to find out pupils attendance during and after inter ethnic conflict and teachers were requested to indicate on absenteeism in their classes during ethnic conflicts. The findings were tabulated in table 4.17.
Table 4.17: Teachers’ responses on pupils’ attendance during conflicts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absent during conflicts</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>97.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present during conflicts</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the study findings as shown in table 4.17 an overwhelming majority of the teachers, 97.5 percent, indicated that pupils (mostly grown up boys) are usually absent from school during conflict. Only 2.5% of the teachers said that pupils could attend school during conflicts. During informal interviews, there was a clear indication that participation is hindered by conflict since absenteeism lowers participation in education. Absenteeism is caused by displacement during conflicts or unsecure way to school. The teachers said that they could also be attacked while on their way to school and due to their absenteeism the pupils will fear coming to school without the teachers. The few students who would make it to school are those living near school. In the literature review teachers being attacked is always common in fragile states like the Congo where teachers were forced by combatants to flee classrooms while teaching. The teachers would therefore fear to return. Table 4.18 further shows the rate of attendance of the boy child.
Table 4.18: Teachers’ response on the rate of attendance of the boy child in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worst</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.18 shows that the rate of attendance of the boy child is fair as agreed by 47.5% of the teachers. 17.5% and 10.8% said that their attendance was very good and worst respectively.

During focused group discussion, the teachers argued that the boys were attending school as required only when there was peace. During conflicts the attendance would be very minimal because they fear being abducted on their way to school, fighting for their community or have moved with their family to an unknown location for security. Other boys may be involved in profit making activities. During this time their academic performance is compromised and lag behind in class.
4.5 Influence of psychosocial protection on the participation of the boy-child

Certain aspects of education can inherently protect children: the sense of self-worth that comes from being identified as a student and a learner; the growth and development of social networks; the provision of adult supervision and access to a structured, ordered schedule (Nicholai and Triplehorn, 2003). Quality education during conflicts ensures that the classroom is a place of security through which normalcy, curiosity and play can be promoted (IRC, 2004). The psychological effects of the murder, disappearance and torture of students, teachers and other staff are much harder to measure during ethnic conflicts. They can include trauma, fear, insecurity, demotivation and despondency among students, parents and teachers. This will make the boy child to be very vulnerable as shown in table 4.19 below.

Table 4.19: Head teachers’ response on the effects of attacks on the boy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drop out</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low academic performance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowered self esteem</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Killed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 4.19, 35.7% of the head teachers said that ethnic conflicts affects the boy child making him vulnerable hence dropping out of school and having very low self esteem. Other consequences include poor academic performance at 17.9% and even death.

During focused group discussions, the head teachers pointed out that security threatened area prohibits easy access for pupils to school because with conflict, pupils are not retained in schools for long since they shift from the conflict affected areas to safety. Conflicts disrupt livelihoods among young pastoralist turning them into key participants in conflicts and also destroying the limited welfare facilities, leaving children with no access to educational services. In the literature review, Bronfenbrenner, 1979, indicates that these negative emotional experiences on boys result to trauma within them. This denies them the psychosocial protection they require so as to remain in and complete school. The idea of a traumatized boy-child having the ability to reconstruct their lives is at first difficult to understand when the effect of trauma is considered. Trauma arises from victimization. Table 4.20 shows the frequency of the families’ displacement.
Table 4.20: Pupils responses on the frequency of their families being displaced after conflict

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.20 shows that majority of the pupils, 85.9 percent, indicated that their families are always displaced during conflict. This was an indication that many families are forced to move due to conflict related issues. This concurs with Sommers (2002) who states that during ethnic conflicts, hundreds of thousands of children are displaced, schools are closed, and teachers are extorted, killed and humiliated.

During focused group discussions, boys were quick to point out that, frequent displacement makes them totally uncomfortable because they may be separated with some of the family members leading to trauma. Some of them may be left with distant relatives who may not be in a position to provide basic needs and hence cannot attend to their schooling. The boys will poorly concentrate in class because they miss their original home and displaced relatives. Psychosocial interventions are build upon a boy child’s family, school and community support (Benzies & Mychasiuk, 2008). Table 4.21 clearly shows the school involvement in community conflict resolution.
Table 4.21: Head teachers’ response on the involvement of the school in community conflict resolution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 28 100.0

Intable 4.21, 60.7 % of the head teachers said that their schools have never been involved in community conflict resolution process while 3.5 % of them said that they are always involved.

During focused group discussions, most of the head teachers argue that the community do not care much about the impact of conflict on the participation of the boy child. They tend to look for solutions without seeking any input by stake holders like schools hence reaching at unviable conclusions.

In an interview the head teachers argued that the community leaders will use school fields and under trees to hold barazas but rarely discuss the impact of conflict on education especially security in and outside school. According to INEE Minimum Standardson community participation, all the stake holders including school should be involved in the provision of security for instance community policing. During ethnic conflicts the community should map out possible ways to make learning in school accessible to all. The findings also
revealed that boys felt corporal punishment in particular made them hate school to the extent of dropping out and look for employment as casual labourers. UNICEF, 2009, clearly indicates that boys are likely to suffer from corporal punishment, as compared to their female counterparts. Table 4.22 analyses teacher’s response on the ways they use to correct boys mistakes in school.

Table 4.22: Teachers’ response on the means they use to correct boy child’s mistakes in class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporal punishment</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calling of bad names</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidance and counseling</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving the boy’s guardians</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.22 clearly indicates that, 55.8 % boys the teachers use corporal punishment while 15.8 % and 18.3 % use cancelling and involving the boys’ guardians respectively in order to correct mistakes. From the focus group discussions, boys reported that when they see their peers being humiliated emotionally and physically abused, they hate school, drop out and fear to return. They also argued that guidance and cancelling departments were very dormant in their schools. It was in a rare situation that the teachers would sit down and listen to their life challenges. Instead they would be punished for being late or absent from school. These negative emotional experiences on the boy child results to trauma within them. This denies them the psychosocial protection
they require so as to remain and complete school. Table 4.23 analyses teachers’ responses on the causes of trauma among the boys in school.

### Table 4.23: Teachers’ response on the causes of trauma that faces boy child in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Separation from family members</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate support by the caregivers</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporal punishment</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child labor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.23 clearly shows that 51.7% of the teachers said that the major cause of trauma among the boys in school is separation from family members. 22.5% and 17.5% indicated that corporal punishment and inadequate support by the caregivers caused trauma respectively.

During the focused group discussions, teachers argued that when they are separated from their family members they cannot attend school and feel that they miss out. Moments of ethnic conflicts and subsequent destruction can produce images of such power in a boy child that they reverberate over weeks, months or years over time. In the literature review Onsongo, 2008, confirms that when the boy child is traumatized, he suffers from disorders like withdrawal, isolation, anger, nightmares, revenge, aggression and rebellion, poor concentration in school, depression and a feeling of hopelessness about the future. Table
4.24 analyses teachers response on the common signs of atraumatized boy in school.

**Table 4.24: Teachers’ response on the common signs of a vulnerable and traumatized boy child in class**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawed</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revengeful</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restless</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self esteem</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.24 shows that 36.7% of the teachers said that most boys are revengeful when traumatized. 23.3% and 20.8% of the teachers sited that boys feel withdrawn and have low self esteem.

During focused group discussion, teachers said that as a result of being revengeful, many boys play war like games while chanting demeaning statements to rival community. Some may end up fighting hence increasing the level of trauma. They also highlighted that some of the boys become restless in class. They poorly raise up their hands to answer a question because of low self esteem. They believe that other pupils may laugh at them if they give wrong answers. Teachers, however were asked to state the way that they use to eliminate and reduce cases of trauma among the boys in school. Pirisi, 2001, clearly states that during trauma, educational and emotional needs should be integrated by using storytelling, drawing, drama, writing, music.
and games. He also highlights the importance of early intervention so as to enhance the chances of recovery. Activities like art constitute vehicles for boys to tell their stories and be heard and acknowledge thus solving and easement of their burden. Table 4.25 analyses the tools used by the teachers in Lolgorian to heal and reduce trauma among the boys.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self expression or testimonies</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**: 120 100.0

Table 4.25 shows that 91.7% of teachers do nothing to assist the boy child heal and reduce trauma during and after conflicts. 8.3% of the teachers involve the boys with play. Music, drawing, and self-expression are never use in all public primary schools under study.

During focused group discussion, the teachers argued that very little has been done to help the boy child to heal during post traumatic period. This is because they have no professional qualifications to do so. Their stations lack tools and equipment too. They also said that boys fear to come up and narrate their ordeal to their teachers and fellow pupils for fear of victimization and stigmati-
Post traumatic stress has a lot of negative impact on the participation of the boy child in class. Trauma arises from victimization and the boy child’s level of concentration in class will be affected. Table 4.26 shows the boys response on the effect of trauma on the concentration of the boy child in their studies.

**Table 4.26: Boys’ response on the effect of trauma on the concentration in their studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can’t concentrate at all</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly concentrate</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full concentration</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.26 shows that 71.3% of the boys do not concentrate fully when they are traumatized 21.1% and 4.4% said that they can fairly concentrate and concentrate fully respectfully.

During focused group discussion, most of the boys argued that there is no way that they would concentrate in class when they could not have proper support from their parents, teachers and other peers. Their minds would wander in class to sample the challenges they were going through in their young life like ethnic conflicts which have led to the destruction of their homes, schools and livelihood. As shown, a few of the boys said that they would fully concentrate because they could cope with the traumatic situations that they were found
in. They could also be too young to comprehend what was going on around them. Boys affected by ethnic conflicts need guardians’ and caregivers’ support, so that they can carry on with their lives, they include teachers, other community members and parents. To ensure that basic needs are provided is itself a psychosocial assistance. Boys affected by ethnic conflicts should not have their suffering compounded by lack of food and shelter. Full stomachs make them proud and happy (Pirisi, 2001). Table 4.27 analyses boys response on the level of caregivers support in their daily lives.

Table 4.27: Boys’ response on level of guardians’ and caregivers’ support in their daily lives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very supportive</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly supportive</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>44.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No support at all</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.27 shows that 44.3% of the boys said that they are fairly supported by their caregivers 26.1% and 12.6% said that their guardians are very supportive and not supportive respectively.

From the focused group discussions, boys said that their upkeep at home is still a challenge. They are left by parents to fend for themselves which results to child labor hence may not take education seriously. They also said that they are emotionally abused by distant relatives who are left to be in charge.
To establish whether there are any coping measures put in place, the researcher sought to find out whether there are any ways to foster resilience in boys that would increase their participation in school. It is promising however to note that, during and after the conflicts, the boys develop some coping mechanism and consequently become resilient. It was noted that by having a considerable number of female teachers in the school, it will enable the boy child to cope and boost his resiliency. This is in line with Anastasia & Teklemariam (2011), who state that when a school lacks female teachers, usually because female teachers are the first to flee in conflict situations, parents feel that their boys lack protective figures from their male counterparts and even the male teachers. Table 4.28 shows respondents’ responses on whether female teachers would increase boys’ coping mechanism and resilience.

Table 4.28: Influence of female teachers on boys coping and resiliency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>800</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study findings in table 4.28 show that 89% of the teachers and 69.3% boys felt that the presence of female teachers has an influence on boys’ coping and resilience in education.

During focused group discussion, the boys said that when they see female teachers in their school they see mother-figures who would counsel them in
any dangerous situation as compared to the male teachers who would often remain disciplinarians.

**4.6 Influence of cognitive protection on the participation of the boy-child**

Children and youth may need very specific lessons in order to ensure their own survival and well-being and that of their families, especially younger siblings, for example on avoiding or resisting recruitment into fighting forces. Lifeskills education, including reproductive health and HIV/AIDS may also provide vital protection to students whose vulnerability to sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS is often high (Winthrop, Kirk, 2005). Nicholai and Triplehorn, 2003, argues that in school, a child acquires cognitive protection which is beyond academic subjects, a range of knowledge, attitudes, and skills that children can learn in school that will help them live better and safer lives. These abilities include, for example, citizenship skills, health and security knowledge, and evaluation skills to help them process and respond to diverse sources of information, including propaganda. When there is safety in school, boys participation consequently will be high and hence will learn more. Provision of boarding and mobile learning facilities will enable the boy child to acquire the necessary academic and protective skills.

Cognitive protection is provided when the content of education meets the needs of the boy child and provides important health and safety messages relevant to the context (UNESCO, 2006). For optimum cognitive protection, male youth affected by crises need to learn about reproductive health and have information on how to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS. Sommers, 2009, says
that education furnish children with knowledge of human rights and skills of citizenship and living in times of peace. Table 4.29 shows the head teachers’ response on the life skills information available in their school.

**Table 4.29: Head teachers’ and teachers’ response on the life skills taught in their school**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Head teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self protection</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human and Child Rights</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>17.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>120</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 4.29, lifeskills are rarely taught in schools. 17.9% and 8.3% headteachers and teachers respectively are also passively involved in teaching HIV/AIDS.

During the focused group discussion, both the head teachers and teachers sited lack of professional training on lifeskills dissemination, lack of materials and given the fact that lifeskills is itself not an examinable subject during national examinations, most of its content is ignored. The boy child is thus left with very minimal information on how to protect himself and survive during conflicts.

Literacy and numeracy are often considered the keys to education. It enables one to access sources of knowledge through books and printed materials. It can
also be considered survival skills during dangerous moments. (Nicolai and Triplehorn, 2003). Schools help the boy child to develop and retain academic skills for basic education (Sommers, 2009). Boys in Lolgorian face a lot of challenges academically. Table 4.30 shows teachers’ comparison of academic performance of the boys to that of girls.

### Table 4.30: Teachers’ response on the academic performance of the boy child as compared to that of the girl child

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Better than girls</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have the same performance</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poorer than girls</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>120</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.30 shows that boys perform better than the girls academically at 50.7%. 17.5% of the teachers said that boys perform poorer than the girls in their stations.

During focused group discussions, teachers said that the high performance of boys to that of girls is that the females are challenged with inferiority complex that they cannot do well like the boys academically. Girls are also faced with the challenges of early and forced marriage as well as female genital information which is still practiced in the area. The teachers who said that the boys perform poorer than the girls are those who are chronic absentees from school.
as a result of spending a lot of time in pastoral activities at the expense of school.

In school, teachers should engage the students in group work in any activity especially classwork. This will result in fostering teamwork and friendship, and better understanding of the concept. In ethnic polarized communities, group work helps the boys in school to bond with those from another community promoting healing and learning. Table 4.31 shows boys response on the rate at which they are involved in groups by their teachers while studying.

**Table 4.31: Boys’ response on their involvement in groupwork in class by their teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>boys</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regularly</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>800</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4.31, it clearly shows that 72.3% of the boys under study have never been involved in groupwork in their daily classroom activities. 20.4% of the boys claim that they are rarely grouped by their teachers.

During focused group discussion, the boys cited their teachers reluctance to put them in groups claiming that it takes a lot of time teaching a particular concept when this method is used. The boys are also too many to be grouped due to
influx of pupils after the government declared primary education free in Kenya in 2002. It was also found out that teachers liked involving class eight pupils in group discussion so as to effectively prepare for their national exams.

The study sought to find out whether presence of female teachers would serve in fostering the resilience of boys in primary school education. This is one of the coping mechanism that the researcher felt could have an influence. The study findings also revealed that boys could be enrolled in other schools after displacement, as a result not all the boys would be willing to attend the new school. This has detrimental effects on the participation in primary school education especially during ethnic conflicts. There is need to sensitize the local communities on the participation of the boy child during and after conflicts as shown in table 4.32 below:

**Table 4.32: Teachers’ suggestions on solutions to increase boys’ participation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobile schools</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding schools</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community sensitization</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                    | 120           | 100.0     |

From the study findings in table 4.32 majority of the teachers suggested that boys are safer in school. Construction of boarding schools was highly recom-
mended by 55.9% of teachers, since pupils will remain in the secure enclosure of the school thus protecting them from insecurity as they commute to and from home. The community also needs to be sensitized on the need to educate and protect the boy child the same way they protect the girl child due to their vulnerability. This will enable them to go to schools without fear of attacks. 14.2% of the teachers indicated that mobile schools should be set up in order for learning to continue all the time. These findings are in line with Shemyakina (2011) who found out that most boys in conflict torn communities who continue attending school feel safer within the precincts of the school. Table 4.33 shows the measures of improving boys’ participation.

Table 4.33 Measures for promoting boys’ participation in education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community mobilization and sensitization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child rights policies</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensifying of security</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding facilities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>28</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.33 shows that all the head teachers believe that there are probable measures that could be put in place to increase boys’ participation in school. Training them on defense skills scored highest of 35.7% though 32.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that the area community administration should
intensify security measures. This is an indication that more needs to be done to increase boys’ participation. Training on defence skills will enable the boy child to always fit to the volatile environment he is in. He will protect himself if he is attacked on his way to school. Boychild rate of attending school influences his academic performance. Inter tribal conflicts will lead to disruption of learning through chronic absenteeism in school resulting to low academic grades.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations generated from the research findings of the study. The chapter also presents suggestions for further study.

5.2 Summary of the study

The following are the summaries of the findings based on the three objectives that guided the study. The results are also cross referenced with the findings of other scholars in related environments that have got a supportive element of the current study. The first objective sought to establish the extent to which physical protection influences the boy child participation in public primary schools in Lolgorian Division, Narok County, Kenya. Brostrom (2000) suggested that negative experience of participation is often due to problems associated with the school rather than the child. The teachers under this study were also required to give school related factors that affect transition. The teachers felt that insensitive school environment affects boy’s transition. It was revealed that the long distance from home to school was a problem. In most instances parents would prefer girls to go to boarding school while the boys go attend day schools. Boys agreed that displacement, during and after inter-ethnic conflicts in the area, is rife. Thus displacement affects the participation of boys in primary education negatively as schooling especially on boys.
Majority of both boys and girls were absent from school from time to time, though the percentage count for boys absenteeism was higher than that of girls. Therefore boys were more prone to absenteeism during and after displacement as compared girls because they are held for longer so as to provide security in their homesteads thus reducing their participation in education.

The boys also find it difficult to attend school after ethnic conflicts because the schools are consequently converted to be a rescue centre for victims, looted, burnt or taken over by rebels. The boys also may be attacked and abducted on their way to school.

The second objective sought to assess the extent to which psychosocial protection influences boy child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County. Boys reported fleeing from their homes with their parents, many of which live in camps and makeshift shelters. They compete with the local populations for resources and jobs, which sometimes stimulates feelings of resentment against the IDP’S refugees. In these conditions, boys continue to feel unsafe and lack a sense of belonging. They have little privacy and fear physical or emotional abuse. They are often living in areas with poor hygiene and high risk of disease, with limited access to clean water.

A lack of everyday routine, access to education and recreation is also a serious problem. Displaced parents are under overwhelming pressure. According to the boy child, their parents’ feelings of frustration and helplessness sometimes manifest in physical and emotional abuse. Education is an essential aspect of the healthy development of children. They learn to socialize, to develop skills
and to enjoy despite from the stress of their daily lives. The lack of spaces and means for play causes children to become more isolated and tense, and is associated with an increase in the level of violence among children affected by the ethnic conflict. It can also have serious long-term effects on the mental health of children, manifested in social isolation, self-harm, aggression and depression. Boys are more likely to display aggressive behavior including the desire to join armed forces and armed groups. Their main sources of stress are the deteriorated security and also access to basic needs (food, electricity, water, and livelihoods), children’s safety and access to healthcare.

Providing opportunities for the boy child to interact socially with their peers and adults and to develop their education and skills are critical aspects of ensuring and promoting children’s psychosocial well-being. Psychosocial support activities in a safe environment provide children and young people with a sense of normalcy, enhancing their ability to cope with the situation and fostering their long-term emotional and social wellbeing, which can mitigate long lasting psychological damage. Just as protecting the boy child from conflict violence and other risks associated with ethnic conflict are essential aspects of ensuring the well-being of children, there is a close relationship between effective and child-focused education and increased psychosocial well-being. Education activities during emergencies provide children with a safe space to begin the trauma healing process, and to learn skills and values needed for a more peaceful future and better governance at local and national levels.
The third objective determined the extent to which cognitive protection influences boy child participation in primary education in Lolgorian Division, Narok County, Kenya. A child’s right to education is enshrined in a number of declarations and conventions. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 outlines the right to free, compulsory elementary education, and states that education should work to strengthen respect for human rights and promote peace. Parents have the right to choose the kind of education provided to their children. Education serves the primary and interrelated functions of protection and cognitive and social development. The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INNE, 2009) argues that education in emergencies, and during chronic crises and early reconstruction efforts, can be both life-saving and life-sustaining. It provides the boy child with literacy and numeracy information that’s basic to his survival. According to Nicholai and Triplehorn, cognitive protection includes the following benefits: schools help children to develop and retain the academic skills of basic education, furnish children with knowledge of human rights and skills for citizenship and living in times of peace, and encourage children to analyze information, express opinions, and take action on chosen issues. Buckland, 2003, notes that in most cases, the primary enrollment gender gap actually declines during conflict, usually as more boys are drawn into conflict. Children’s reduced enrolment and attendance at schools is another potential measure of conflict’s impact on education.
5.3 Conclusion

Despite the education challenges discussed above, the right to protection in education is expressed in terms of legal and legislative framework providing for free expression, access and development of individuals within education system. Ethnic conflicts affect the participation of boys in primary education negatively as schooling schedules are interrupted when families move to safety. Majority of the pupils indicated that their families are often displaced during conflict. The study findings revealed that most boys are enrolled to other schools after displacement. It is, however, noteworthy that some of them do not attend school as a result of displacement. This has detrimental effects on the enrollment, attendance, retention and transition of the boy child in primary school education. Boys were more prone to absenteeism during and after displacement as compared to the girls. The teachers suggested that boys are safer in school thus construction of boarding schools was highly recommended by majority of teachers, since they will remain in the secure enclosure of the school thus protecting them from insecurity as they commute to and from home.

Most school structures are destroyed during conflict distracting learning. Majority of the schools in Lolgorian, have been used, in one time or another, to house the victims of inter-ethnic conflict, therefore learning is at times interrupted. All the heads of the schools indicated that their schools have been affected, in one way or the other during the inter-ethnic conflicts by suffering losses as classes are burnt, school supplies looted or books destroyed. When
school facilities and resources are destroyed, learning during and after conflict is disrupted thus participation is lowered. Destruction of school facilities and displacement comes in hand in hand since schools structures are worst destroyed by combatants and schools are not capable of repairing destroyed structures, thus learning is crippled.

Lack of proper schooling during and after conflict will make the boy child to be psychologically disturbed and traumatized when they see their families emotionally tortured or when they are punished in school. Education therefore gives them a sense of belonging enabling them to cope and be resilient. Guidance and counseling is offered to pupils after conflict to help them cope with the trauma experienced and also they are taught basic self-defense skills to help them defend themselves at events of attacks.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

From the study, it was recommended that, the government should put in place measures to intensify security in Lolgorian Division and its environs especially through disarmament of illegal weapons, and also put up police posts to fight the rising security threats. Sensitization of the public on the importance of community unity policing in the grass root levels would reduce inter-tribal conflict since the communities will regard members of other ethnic tribes as fellow citizens.

Community participation should be encouraged in school programmes, for instance involvement in recreation activities, environmental conservation ac-
tivities and developmental activities. The exercises will also help to conserve the school-community relations. Through there is the community will be sensitized against negative social cultural practices and encourage them to re-enroll boys who had dropped out of school due to ethnic conflicts.

Guidance and Counseling in schools be enhanced. Teachers of both genders to be actively involved in the department. Proper knowledge of the challenges facing the boys in school should be clearly stated and possible solutions spelt out. There is need to identify and recognize successful professional men within the District who can act as role models or mentors to the boys.

There is urgent need to implement affirmative action on bursaries and support infrastructure improvement, particularly for boys’ in school. A series of gender sensitization and awareness campaign workshops and seminars are needed to improve boy child access and participation in education. There is need to reinforce legal support for affirmative action program to eliminate discriminatory practices and also ensure that positive steps are taken to increase the number of boys enrolment and retention in both primary and secondary school.

In addition there is need to ensure gender balance in School Management Committees (SMC), Board of Management (BOM) and Parents Teachers Associations (PTA). Finally the teachers/society and stakeholders at large should shield boy child from harmful practices such as drug abuse, alcohol and other deviant behaviors like engaging in unprotected sex.
5.5 Contribution to knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Contribution to knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To establish the extent to which physical protection influences boy child participation.</td>
<td>Boys in difficult situation during ethnic conflicts need safe spaces to learn. Schools should be safe from destruction and the boy child should be protected from being attacked on his way to school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assess the extent to which psychosocial protection influences the boy child participation</td>
<td>Schools in fragile areas should provide psychological healing to boys affected and traumatized by ethnic conflicts which helps them to cope and be resilient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To determine the extent to which cognitive protection influences boy child participation.</td>
<td>Boys living in ethnic polarized areas should access information that is life saving and sustaining. Information on child rights and defense mechanisms should be taught in school.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.6 Areas for further research

According to the study, it is clearly evident that the boy child in areas affected by conflict is going through untold suffering as far as education is concerned. Schools should be safe in order to provide a conducive environment for him to learn. The following suggestions are recommended for future researchers.

I. In this study only rural community was considered to develop analysis and findings. It is very important for the future researchers to consider studies on the boy child living in urban setting too.

II. Future researchers should further investigate other factors than can en-
hance resiliency among the boys in primary school.

REFERENCES


UNHCR (UN High Commissioner for Refugees) and Save the Children. 2002. *Note for Implementing and Operational Partners on Sexual Violence and Exploitation: The Experience of Refugee Children in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone*. Geneva: UNHCR
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LETTER OF REMITTANCE

Dear respondents, I am Sharon Chepkeno, a student of The University of Nairobi. As part of my academic requirements to the award of Master Degree in Education Administration and Planning, I am administering this questionnaire to collect information on the protective factors influencing boy-child participation in primary education. Kindly respond to the question as candidly as possible. Your honesty and co-operation in responding to these questions will be appreciated with confidentiality.
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE HEAD TEACHER

SECTION A: RESPONDENT'S BACKGROUND

1.1 Gender (Male) (Female)

1.2 Education background (Certificate) (Diploma) (Degree) (Masters) (PhD)

1.3 Job experience (years) (1-5) (6-10) (11-15) (16-20) (20 and above)

SECTION B: Physical protection and boy child participation.

1. Have you ever had cases of insecurity of the boy child on his way to and from your school?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. If Yes, what was the nature of the insecurity?
   a. Forceful abduction
   b. Recruitment into gangs
   c. Drug abuse
   d. Other

3. How did you take action in (2) above?

   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Do you have security personnel in your school?
   a. Yes
   b. No

5. If No, why?

   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
6. Is your school properly secured by a fence?
   a. Yes
   b. No

7. If No, why?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

8. Are the classes safe from outside interventions?
   a. Yes
   b. No

9. If No, why?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

10. Do your students share the same latrines?
    a. Yes
    b. No

11. If Yes, why?
    ……………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION C: Psychosocial protection and boy child participation.

1. Have you witnessed cases of trauma of the boy-child in your school?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. If Yes, what were they?
   a. Peer pressure
   b. Drug abuse
   c. Truancy
   d. Teenage parenting
   e. Unprotected sex
   f. Cattle rustling

3. Which action did you take to help the boy-child?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
SECTION D: Cognitive protection and boy child participation.

1. What are some of the life skills information given to the boy-child in your school?

   a. Human and child rights
   
   b. Conflict resolution
   
   c. Citizenship
   
   d. HIV/AIDS
   
   e. Other

2. How is the performance of boys as compared to that of the girls in your school?

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Do you involve the community in conflict resolution process?

   a. Yes
   
   b. No

4. If No, why?

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHER

SECTION A: RESPONDENT’S BACKGROUND

1.1 Gender Male  Female

1.2 Education background (Certificate) (Diploma) (Degree) (Masters) (PhD)

1.3 Job experience (years) (1-5) (6-10) (11-15) (16-20) (20 and above)

SECTION B: Physical protection and boy child participation.

1. What are some of the safety measures that you have put in place in your class?

............................................................

2. How do you correct the boy-child’s mistakes in class?

   a. Corporal punishment

   b. Calling bad names

   c. Guidance and counseling

   d. Other

3. What is the rate of attendance of the boy-child in school?

   a. Very good

   b. Good

   c. Fair
4. What makes the boy-child not to attend school regularly?

a. Distance

b. Fear of abduction

c. Willingness

d. Child labor

e. Other

SECTION C: Psychosocial protection and boy child participation.

1. What are the causes of trauma to the boy-child?

a. Separation from family members

b. Inadequate support by the caregivers

c. Corporal punishment

d. Child labor

e. Other
2. What are the common signs of a vulnerable and traumatized boy-child in your class?
   a. Withdrawned
   b. Revengeful
   c. Restless
   d. Calm
   e. Other

3. Which assistance do you give to the vulnerable and traumatized boy-child?

   .......................................................... ..........................

4. What are the activities that you use to help the boy-child to be psychologically healed?
   a. Music   b. Play   c. Art   d. Other

SECTION D: Cognitive protection and boy child participation.

1. Do you use group work in your class while teaching?
   .......................................................... ..........................

2. What are the life skills that you engage the boy-child in your class?
   .......................................................... ..........................

3. Do you engage the boy-child in learning about his human and child rights?
   a. Yes
   b. No
APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE BOY-CHILD

SECTION A: RESPONDENT’S BACKGROUND

1.1 Age: (5-10) (11-15) (16-20)

1.2 Class (Pre-School-2) (3-4) (5-6) (7-8)

SECTION B: PHYSICAL PROTECTION AND BOY CHILD PARTICIPATION.

1. What is the distance from your home to school?
   a. 1 KM
   b. 2 KM
   c. 3 KM
   d. More than 3 KM

2. Do you get escort to school?
   Yes
   No

3. What means do you use to go to school?
   a. By foot
   b. By vehicle
   c. By motorbike
   d. Other

4. Which type of punishment do most of your teachers use?
   a. Canning
   b. Guidance and counseling
   c. Calling of bad names
   d. Other
SECTION C: Psychosocial protection and boy child participation.

1. Do you have care and support from your family members?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. If No, explain

   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
   ……..

3. Have you lost any family member as a result of conflict?
   a. Yes
   b. No

4. If Yes, how did he react?
   a. Withdrawn
   b. Revengeful
   c. Poor concentration in class
   d. Hopeless
   e. Forgiving

5. How often does your teacher involve you in groupwork?
   a. Regularly
   b. Rarely
   c. Not at all

6. What makes you to like coming to school?
   a. Studies
   b. Games
   c. Art
   d. Drama
   e. Any other

7. Do you know of a boy who has worked or engaged in an income generating activity?
   a. Yes
8. If Yes, explain.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION D: Cognitive protection and boy child participation

1. Do you think what you are learning in school is useful to you in your daily life?
   a. Yes
   b. No

2. If No, explain.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Have you ever been informed of child rights?
   a. Yes
   b. No

4. Do your teachers engage you with conflict resolution skills?
   a. Yes
   b. No
APPENDIX E: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>AVAILABLE</th>
<th>NOT AVAILABLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fence</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Guard</td>
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<tr>
<td>Permanent Gate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leave-out-sheet</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vandalized Classrooms</td>
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</tbody>
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APPENDIX F: RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS:

1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two (2) hard copies and one (1) soft copy of your final report.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice.

This is to certify that:

MS. SHARON CHEPONGENO CHEPKWONY
of UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI, 0-20400
LONGISSA, has been permitted to conduct research in Narok County on the topic: PROTECTION-BASED FACTORS INFLUENCING BOY-CHILD PARTICIPATION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN LOLGORIAN DI-VISION, NAROK COUNTY for the period ending: 12th November, 2018

Applicant's Signature

National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation

Serial No: A

NACOSTI/P/15/94380/8743

Date of Issue: 12th November, 2015

Fee Received: Ksh 1000

Republic of Kenya

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

Director General
APPENDIX G: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471, 2241349, 310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: secretary@nacostl.go.ke
Website: www.nacostl.go.ke
When replying please quote:

Ref: No. NACOSTI/P/15/94380/8743

Date: 12th November, 2015

Sharon Chepkengetich Chepkwony
University of Nairobi
P.O. Box 30197-00100
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Protection-Based factors influencing boy-child participation in primary education in Luffiyan Division, Narok County,” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Narok County for a period ending 12th November, 2016.

You are advised to report to the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Narok County before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf of the research report/thesis to our office.

Said Hussein
For: Director General/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Narok County.

The County Director of Education
Narok County.