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Understanding Conflict, Security and Terrorism: A Multifaceted Analysis.

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Dr Bob Obwang'i Mbori

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The length of the article obviously depends on the topic being discussed but should not be more than 5000 words

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

All errors of judgment and omissions are solely the responsibility of the authors of the individual articles. The authors, individually and collectively (in case of co-authorship) take full responsibility for the facts and opinions provided in their papers.

EDITORIAL

This is the third issue of the Journal of Education and Social Sciences (JESS). The current issue is the result of an International Conference at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, Kenya with the theme: **New Paradigms in National and International Security: The Role of National and County Governance, Education, Science, Technology and the Media.** This Journal issue is the first volume from selected articles presented during the International Conference in June, 2015.

A number of the articles reflect the security happenings and events taking place globally at about the time of the Conference. It is our conviction that interrogating issues of security using a multidisciplinary approach will give insights into innovative ways of tackling emerging in security in the World today.

Dr Bob Mbori
Chief Editor
May, 2016

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Interrogating Issues of International (In) security and Education from a Multidisciplinary Prism

Bob Mbori

The current JESS Journal issue focuses on a wide range of issues that relate to international security and insecurity in the broadest multidisciplinary sense. The articles in the Journal interrogate the diverse perspectives of looking at global security. Secondly, the current volume comes against a backdrop of terrorist attacks by various terrorist groups in different parts of the world. Partly for this reason, a number of articles make mention of these specific attacks. A critical issue that is also discussed across the papers is the impact of insecurity within the education system.

The articles in this issue are clustered into three groups. The initial category has articles that discuss and relate education and security while the second category of articles considers security, the social-cultural context and society. The third category of articles discusses security and natural resource management.

The first article by Wanjala, Isoe and Kemuma discusses the role of holistic education in combating terrorism. The authors recommend that education should not just be practical but also include security studies in the syllabus. It is also suggested that education should put more emphasis on five key areas.

The article by Nganyi, Ndiku and Achoka discuss the educational approaches in mitigating security challenges in Kenya. The authors propose a paradigm shift in teaching so as to manage emerging security concerns not just in Kenya but at a wider regional scale.

Majanga, Kamoet and Achoka discuss the psycho-social influences of political conflict on primary school pupils in Nakuru County, Kenya. It is argued that the negative influences undermine the children is confidence and learning ability thereby affecting academic performance. The article proposes the need to introduce children to skills of negotiation, problem solving, critical thinking and communication in order to prepare them to solve differences in a non-violent manner.

An article by Nabie and Aurah also suggests integrating national and international security education into the school curriculum. The authors recognize security education as a critical factor for sustainable development and suggest that education can be used to reduce the impact of security.

In a study on peer counsellors and their personal characteristics, Bota, Nyamoma and Poipoi discuss the influence of these characteristics on academic performance as perceived by teachers and students. The authors specifically focus on the influence of these characteristics on school security in Kakamega South Sub-County, Kenya. They propose the innovative use of peer counselors who can identify insecure learners arguing that this can lead to a secure school environment which would in the final analysis have a positive effect on the learners' academic performance.

Shiundu and Aono in their article identify the role of the school curriculum in enhancing security. The authors propose an all-inclusive approach in fighting insecurity which would inter alia include enhanced security education, additional training in security for teachers and enhanced development of infrastructure to reflect the changing security concerns.

Mukabi, Were and Achoka in their article look at the 2007-2008 post election violence in Kenya and the

resultant woman's image. The study recommends the implementation of a raft of strategies that would aid the peace-binding process.

The article by Poipoi, Cheptumo and Mabele interrogate the incidence of street children in Mumias sub-county, Kenya – especially with regard to the extent that the occurrence of street children would influence (in) security. The article proposes that policy planners adopt approaches that would reduce the impact that the incidence of street children would have on security.

Bukhala, Odera and Ragor in their article on students' attitudes towards physical and health education discuss the implication of the attitudes on security in the primary teacher training colleges' context in Kenya. The authors recommend that teacher trainees need to develop a positive attitude in physical and health education (PHE) since a well structured PHE programme would assist in promoting security when the trainees finally get to serve as professional teachers in the field.

In the context of emerging radicalization in Africa, the article by Ndiku, Buhere and Omusula give a mosaic of the negative effects of militant groups. The authors also examine the historical and philosophical backgrounds of the militant groups in Africa. The article suggests the various strategies that would effectively counter radicalization of the youth and as a result improve educational access and equity in Africa.

Philothere in his article handles the issue of peace and conflict resolution in post-conflict settings. The article focuses on the Rwandan post-genocide society. Philothere recommends that stakeholders in peace building and conflict resolution should recognize the key role of the faith-based organs and how we can rely on these systems in any conflict resolution.

Kweyu and Bukhala through a comparative approach discuss the different ways of countering terrorism through sports and propose the need to train Kenyans on defensive reactions to terrorists' attacks. It is suggested that sports can be used preventively, before the terrorist attacks, during the attacks and indeed, even after the terrorist attack to enable people rise above diversity.

Obwoge and Obwang'i in their article explore the issue of language attitudes as these attitudes promote or demote peaceful co-existence among religious groups in Kenya. Through an analysis of how language attitudes affect various facets of society, the authors itemize the religious domain and suggest strategies that would be used through language to curb insecurity.

An article by Ongunya, Nabwire and Song'ok considers the community involvement in forest management for sustainable peace building in the Mau forest complex, Kenya. The article analyzes a range of literature and situates the communities' participation in forest practises management as being inevitable in the peace building process and in the management of natural resources.

Nguka, Okoth, Ouda and Achoka consider the role of food and nutrition security as ingredients to conflict resolution and national cohesion in Kenya. The authors argue that there is need to give priority to food security especially in terms of policy formulation. They present a comparative framework of diverse case studies that connects resilience, conflict and food security.

From the range of articles taken from a wide spectrum of disciplines, it can be argued that security and its opposing partner, insecurity both contribute to the very existence of the human being. It thus becomes

extremely important to consider all the possible angles when dealing with insecurity and security-related issues.

PART I: SECURITY AND EDUCATION
THE ROLE OF HOLISTIC EDUCATION IN COMBATING TERRORISM

Kemuma Caroline, Isoe K. Lydiah & Wanjala N. Lillian

Abstract

The rapid rise of terrorism has caused anxiety in the world. It is apparent that traditional forms of schooling are no longer adequate for combating terrorism. Holistic education raises the big ending debates on wider aims of education. There are arguments that schools are best organized to accomplish academic goals, while the other important areas of human development that we associate with the whole child, are left to other institutions such as the religious institutions. This paper is the result of a study carried out in Kakamega County in Western Kenya to ascertain how holistic education can be used to combat terrorism. The study was guided by Albert Bandura's Social Learning theory which states that learning is a cognitive process that takes place in a social context and this can occur largely through observation, imitation and modeling. To realize the purpose of the study, the researchers employed descriptive research design that involves description and analysis. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data. Using random sampling method, data was collected from 6 principals, 48 teachers, 6 school counselors and 10 parents from selected schools in Kakamega County. Reliability coefficient index was determined for research instruments which had a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.867. Content validity of the instruments was ascertained by experts from the Department of Educational Psychology of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, percentages and means. Findings in the first objective established that the existence of shortfalls in the curriculum that promote terrorism. In the second objective, the study established that there were several ways in which holistic education can be used to combat terrorism. It was concluded that the school curriculum tends to put more emphasis on the cognitive domain rather than the affective and psychomotor domains, and too, that the current curriculum does not enable learners to apply knowledge gained in real life situations effectively. It is recommended that education should not only be more practical oriented but also include security studies in syllabus while putting emphasis on five key areas: moral education, the affective domain and the psychomotor domains, embrace peace education and child friendly schools.

Key Words: Terrorism, Whole Child, Cognitive Domain, Affective Domain, Psychomotor Domain, Holistic Education

Introduction

Terrorism is a systematic attack designed to create fear among the public by non-state actors often to further political or religious or ideological agenda (Jenkins, 1980). Terrorism is a global problem affecting both the developed and developing world. United States of America first experienced a major terrorist attack in 2001 during the bombing of the twin towers of the World Trade Centre which left over 2,900 people dead and over 6,000 others maimed. It was envisaged that the last blow to the terrorist group was to be the killing of its leader Osama Bin Laden. However, even after Osama's death, the group was not fully vanquished since they regrouped and fled to Syria where they are creating an independent Islamic state that has continued to attract more sympathizers and new adherents through indoctrination (Botha & Abdile, 2014).

The African region has experienced significant levels of terrorist activities in the recent years where

radicalized groups have different names for different regions. For instance, in West Africa, the Boko Haram group that has been causing terror in Northern Nigeria is now extending its activities to Chad, Niger and Cameroon (Abimbola, 2010). In East Africa, the Al-Shabaab group with its base in Somalia is also causing mayhem in Somalia as well as in neighbouring countries of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (MoICNG, 2013). A common feature that cuts across terrorist activities world over is indoctrination and radicalization (Botha & Abdile, 2014). Terrorism tends to thrive in an environment where there is a weakness in the education system that does not provide wholesome training for personal as well as society development.

Holistic education can be viewed as a philosophy of education based on the premise that each person finds identity, meaning, and purpose in life through connections to the community, to the natural world, and to humanitarian values such as compassion and peace (Huitt, 2011; Iyer, 2015). According to available literature, holistic education is a fairly new movement that came to the fore in the 1980s in Northern America (Mahmoudi, Jafari, Nasrabadi, & Liaghatdar, 2012; Miller, 2004). The phrase originates from the Greek phrase, 'Holon' which postulates that the universe is made up of integrated wholes that cannot be reduced into parts (Mahmoudi, Jafari, Nasrabadi, & Liaghatdar, 2012; Lee 1997).

A number of researchers have tried to examine various aspects of holistic education and its applicability to various economies. Maria Montessori, for instance, used play to actively involve young learners. Having specific materials makes the Montessori approach to education more focused. The Montessori approach has been widely used in Europe, America and it is currently used worldwide. According to Mahmoudi, Jafari, Nasrabadi, & Liaghatdar, (2012), holistic education is an approach to pedagogy that can meet the needs of all types of learners, be a source of fulfillment and gratification for teachers, and prepares future citizens who will contribute a concern and mindfulness for others, for their communities, and for the planet. In the Kenyan context, holistic education may be interpreted to mean functional and an all-inclusive form of education which was introduced in the mid-1980s through the broad based curriculum commonly referred to as the 8-4-4 system. The system was intended to make education more relevant to the learners; making them more self-reliant and preparing each learner for the world of work (Ministry of Education, 2008). However, such a focus targets the physical wellbeing of individual learners and not the spiritual nor social fronts.

Holistic education has a number of pillars. Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2005) summarizes the four pillars of holistic education as follows: Learning to know which acknowledges that learners build their own knowledge daily, combining indigenous and 'external' elements and Learning to do which focuses on the practical application of what is learned. Learning to live together addresses the critical skills for a life free from discrimination, where all have equal opportunity to develop themselves, their families and their communities. Learning to be emphasizes the skills needed for individuals to develop their full potential.

In terms of levels, wholeness rests on the premise that everything in the universe is interconnected to everything else and any change in one thing affects everything else. Five levels of wholeness have been identified by various researchers (Nava, 2001; Miller, 2000; Rudge, 2008). Whole in person acknowledges six elements i.e. physical, emotional, intellectual, social, aesthetic, and spiritual while Whole in a community appreciates that once individuals are whole in person they will establish appropriate human relationships where education is a facilitator. Wholeness in communities (regions and localities) will create Wholeness in societies (countries) due to individual and community consciousness because it will overcome greed that leads to exploitation, competition and control. Societies will be open to unlimited economic growth

as people root for sustainable consumption. Wholeness in societies (countries) will result in Whole planet due to the harmony in the lower wholes. Whole planet will lead to holistic cosmos which brings meaning to the being, ideally, the spiritual dimension of human existence. From the foregoing worldviews of holistic education, levels of wholeness and ultimacy, extremism, radicalization and indoctrination indicate a failure of viewing humans as whole individuals within themselves, in relation with one another, in relation to the community as well as in relation to societies and the planet. This mistake can be traced into earlier life of an individual when the long lasting impressions can be made. Various studies indicate that the effective use of education can address terrorism through the use of soft skills. According to the Australian Aid (2003), the use of compulsory curriculum and teaching of religious education on anti-bias and tolerance as civic education acts as a catalyst on divergent view tolerance

In the modern societies, schools are primarily organized to accomplish academic goals. The schools tend to pay less attention to other important areas that are associated with the wholesome learning such as physical, social, emotional, moral, spiritual and aesthetic development. It is assumed that other institutions like religion, families and society at large ought to address this gap. Unfortunately, these other institutions have also been preoccupied by materialistic glorification where, for instance, religion is perceived as stepping stone to riches. In addition, there is an absence of essential uniformity of doctrine due to divergent interpretation of the religious materials. As a result, indoctrination and radicalization of the youths tends to thrive within this context (Botha & Abdile, 2014).

In the family set-up, materialism and economic pressures do not allow parents to spend sufficient time with their children at home. The parents send the children early to residential learning institutions conveniently abdicating their parental roles. The emergent push-factors from the home environment would therefore include; early school enrollment, lack of adequate parental supervision and this would lead to suppression of emotions. On the other hand, the pull factors which entice innocent minds into indoctrination include: early exposure to weapons and violence, action movies where instilling of pain is seen as heroism and **the use of social media to lure youths into undesirable acts**. This reinforcement is supported by Albert Bandura's social learning theory which heavily relies on modeling which takes place through live modeling, verbal instruction and symbolic imitations.

Kakamega County like other counties in Kenya has felt the impact of terrorism in the recent past either through losing officers who hail from the area or through losing students as happened in the 2015 Garissa University college attack which left over 148 students dead. In addition, Kakamega is an urban area where parents are always busy trying to provide for their families, children are always sent to school earlier and parents do not have enough interaction time with them in a home environment so as to crosscheck the information they may have been exposed to while at school or religious gatherings. However, little research has been carried out on how the education system can be used to reduce the effects of terrorism.

A study carried out in Nyamira County Kenya found out that holistic education can produce socially, morally and mentally developed persons (Nyabwari, Katola and Muindi, 2013). While reviewing the education systems between the Eastern and Western divide, Iyer, (2015) observes that the positive viewpoints from the two sides of the divide can be blended to improve the educational system so that learners are moulded into well-rounded citizens that make them to be problem solvers and not problem creators. In this regard, the present study set out to establish gaps that exist within the Kenyan education curriculum that has become a breeding ground for terrorism and propose ways of addressing the gap

using Kakamega Municipality as the study area.

Research Methodology

To realize the purpose of the study, the researchers employed a descriptive research design. Descriptive research involves the process of collecting data in order to answer questions concerning the status of the subjects in form behaviour, attitudes, values and characteristics in a study. Descriptive research is recommended in studies concerned with predictions, narration of facts and characteristics concerning a situation. The research sought information from randomly sampled 70 respondents including 6 principals, 48 teachers, 6 counselors and 10 parents by asking the existing gaps in the current educational syllabus and how best these gaps can be addressed. Quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used where structured questionnaires were developed to collect quantitative data. On the other hand, interviews using interview checklists were used to elicit in-depth information from school principals on the subject matter.

To ensure validity of the study findings, the researchers employed content validity where the data collection instruments were submitted for peer review and comments incorporated. In terms of reliability, the researchers used the Cronbach Alpha coefficient method in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer programme to test the reliability of the instrument. The alpha coefficient of correlation was found to be 0.7, which was acceptable as reliable and internally consistent as per the social science standards. Measures of central tendency under descriptive statistics of frequent counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used. The collected data was cleaned, coded and summarized as per the study objectives. Data from the interviews were transcribed and put into various categories according to emergent themes. These gave rise to a summary report on major classifications and relationships between them.

Discussion of Results

The central theme of the research was to establish what shortfall in curriculum promotes terrorism and what appropriate ways education can use in combating terrorism. To achieve the results, the study adopted the use of descriptive statistics. This included the use of mean and standard deviation. Further, the testing was done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences at 0.05 % significance level, with 95% confidence interval. In the first objective in identifying the shortfall within the curriculum that promotes terrorism, several questions were asked. Mean and standard deviation were computed and the results are shown in the table below:

Table 1: Mean and standard deviation of shortfalls
Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation
i. Currently schools are organized mainly to accomplish academic goals (cognitive domain only)	4.1875	0.11457
ii. More emphasis should also be place in areas such as physical, social, emotional, moral, aesthetic and spiritual development of learners	4.3333	0.12445
iii. The current education system enable learners to apply knowledge gained on real life situations	3.8125	0.13901
iv. Schools provide learners with pleasant learning environment. (Each student is treated as special and trustworthy)	4.2708	0.70679
Overall mean and standard deviation	**4.15103**	**0.27121**

Source: Research data, 2015

The questions were put on a five-point Likert scale: strongly agree= 5; Agree= 4; undecided=3; Disagree=2 and strongly disagree=1. The respondents were asked to score the questions depending on their levels of agreement. The scores and the results are given below.

The theme, 'schools are organized mainly to accomplish academic goals' (i.e the cognitive domain only) had a mean of 4.1875 and standard deviation of 0.11457; 'more emphasis should also be placed in areas such as physical, social, emotional, moral, aesthetic and spiritual development of learners, had a mean of 4.3333 and standard deviation of 0.12445; 'the current education system enables learners to apply knowledge gained on real life situations' had a mean of 3.8125 and standard deviation 0.13901 while the last question regarding schools providing learners with pleasant learning environment (that is, each student being treated as special and trustworthy) had a mean of 4.2708 and standard deviation of 0.70679. The overall mean of the study was 4.15103 while the overall standard deviation was 0.27121. The overall mean was between 4 and 5 i.e. 4. 15103. The respondents were of the opinion that some of the shortfalls in the curriculum which promote terrorism were the emphasis of cognitive domain only. In addition, more emphasis should be put in areas such as physical, social, emotional, moral, aesthetic and spiritual development of learners. It was also established that the current curriculum does not enable learners to apply knowledge gained on real life situations. Lastly, it was observed that schools do not provide learners with a pleasant learning environment where students are treated as special and trustworthy.

In the second objective to establish appropriate ways education can use in combating terrorism, various questions were asked and the responses obtained were as shown in the table below.

Table 2: Appropriate ways education can use

	Mean	Std. Deviation
i. Schools should devise ways of generating a spirit of co-operation among members of the learning communities	4.3125	0.16242
ii. Learners should be encouraged to apply knowledge in real life rather than just using it as a means of career advancement.	4.5208	0.10485
iii. Learning process should be based on concrete life experiences (and not only on abstract concepts) and on the modern means of acquiring information.	4.4792	0.23011
Overall mean and standard deviation	**4.4375**	**0.16579**

Source: Research data, 2015

'Schools devising ways of generating a spirit of co-operation among members of the learning communities' had a mean of 4.3125 with standard deviation of 0.1624; *'learners being encouraged to apply knowledge in real life rather than just using it as a means of career advancement'* had a mean of 4.5208 with standard deviation of 0.10485 while the question regarding learning process being based on concrete life experiences (and not only on abstract concepts) and on the modern means of acquiring information had a mean of 4.4792 with standard deviation of 0.16579. The overall mean of the respondents was 4.4375 while the standard deviation was 0.16579. This implies that the respondents were in agreement with the several ways that education can be used to combat terrorism. The suggested ways included; schools should devise ways of generating a spirit of co-operation among members of the learning communities, learners should be encouraged to apply knowledge in real life rather than just using it as a means of career advancement and learning process should be based on concrete life experiences (and not only on abstract concepts) and on the modern means of acquiring information.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the study findings, we can conclude that the existing school curriculum has a number of gaps that provide a fertile ground that tends to encourage terrorism. The gaps include much emphasis being made on academic goals (cognitive domain) while there is less emphasis on moral, physical, social, emotional, aesthetic and spiritual development. In addition, using a number of approaches, the education system can be improved to counter terrorism.

Based on the study findings, the following recommendations were made:

i)   There is need devise ways of generating a spirit of co-operation among members of the learning communities

ii)   Learners should be encouraged to apply knowledge in real life rather than just using it as a means of career advancement

iii) The learning process should be based on concrete life experiences (and not only on abstract concepts) and on the modern means of acquiring information

iv)   Emphasis should be put on moral education or studies. Subjects that teach morals like social studies and ethics should be returned in the syllabus to supplement what religious studies are teaching.

v)   Through the school system learners should be sensitized in terms of morality and patriotism from an early age.

vi)   The school curriculum should espouse in-service programmes for counselors and trainings for peer counselors on how to handle emerging issues for instance security

vii) Finally, schools at all levels (both public and private) should fully embrace peace education and child-friendly schools, an initiative by the Ministry. This will go a long way in ensuring child safety and tranquility in our institutions of learning from Early Childhood Development (ECD) to the highest level.

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SITTING ON A LIFE TIME BOMB: (IN)SECURITY OF STREET CHILDREN IN MUMIAS SUB- COUNTY, KENYA

Nanyama E. Mabele, Komen F. Cheptumo & Wesangula. M. Poipoi

Abstract

The study examined the insecurity challenge of street children in Mumias Sub-County, Kenya. It adopted a descriptive survey cross-sectional research design. The objectives were: to establish the extent to which street children influence security in Mumias Sub County and, to find out the extent to which the society offers security to street children in Mumias Sub-County. The study made use of both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. The study population comprised 823 street children, 5 small-scale business men and one informant from Western Education Advocacy and Empowerment Programmes (WEAEP). Snowball sampling and purposive sampling were used. Document analysis guide, observations and in-depth interviews were used to collect data. The findings revealed that Mumias Sub -County had 823 street children. About 21.2% of the children attended school with the help of WEAEP while 78% did some casual labour for their daily bread. Most of the parents of these children lived in poverty characterized with broken homes and abandonment, absence of parents and a tendency to encourage children to obtain employment. Reasons identified for being on the streets included: to earn money, search for food and push factors of domestic violence. Insecurity practices observed included: substance abuse, early pregnancy, uncontrolled street population growth, environmental pollution and health problems, pick pocketing, violence which could sometimes lead to death. Majority of the street children had knowledge of various organizations that offer services to street children which may offer rehabilitation services. The findings from the study may shed light to policy planners to adopt approaches to make an impact on security in the lives of street children in Kenya.

Key words: Insecurity, Security, Street children

Introduction

United Nations International Children Fund (UNICEF, 2012) as quoted in Mexico Child Link Trust has outlined three groups of street children: street-living children; children who ran away from their families and live alone on the streets; street working children, that is, children who spend most of their time on the streets, fending for themselves, but returning home on a regular basis and finally children from street families namely, children who live on the streets with their families.

Muchini (1994), quoted by UNICEF (2002) in a study on street children in Zimbabwe, observed that even though the distinction between children on the street and children of the street is useful, some overlaps and grey areas still exist given that from the definitions given, the same children can fit into 2 categories. Opoku (1996) as quoted by Project Concern International Zambia (2002) categorized street children into 3 economic groups: children on the street, children of the street, and abandoned children. According to him, children on the street are those engaged in some kind of economic activities and go home at the end of the day and contribute part of their earning for economic survival of the family unit. They may be attending school and retain a sense of belonging to a family or household. Because of the economic fragility of their families, these children may eventually opt for a permanent life on the streets. According to same author, the children of the street actually lived on the street. Family ties may exist but are tenuous

and maintained only casually or occasionally. Most of these children had no permanent residence and moved from place to place and from town to town. He defined the abandoned children as those that were entirely without a home and had no contact whatsoever with their families. Some of these were children abandoned at a very early age who had little or no knowledge of their families. Therefore, there was no successful way of reintegrating them into their original home environment.

EDMH (2009) classified street children into 2 categories: street-working children and street-living children. These 2 categories of children were then analyzed separately. Zuberi (2005) in a study conducted in Eastern and Southern Africa in 65 towns and cities revealed that 87% of street children work on the streets during the day and return to their home at night; just over 8% of the children work and live on the streets. The current study also looked at street children under 3 categories as; street-living children who ran away from their families and live alone on the streets; street-working children who spend most of their time on the streets, fending for themselves and their family members, but returning home on a regular basis and finally, children from street families who live on the streets with their families.

The recent decades have witnessed the growing concern for the rights and welfare of children. These concerns were marked by the adoption of the Convention of the Rights of the Child by the UN in November 1989. There is a real need for increased vigilance given the constant rise in the number of street children across the world, especially given their increased exposure to other hazards like HIV/AIDS, substance abuse, child labor, early pregnancy, pollution, health issues. Street children are considered to be among the MARPs (Most at Risk Populations) for the HIV/AIDS disease given their sexual behavior and their vulnerability to various forms of abuse including sexual abuse and injection drug use among others (UNICEF, 2002). All of these are major predisposing factors to HIV infections or other STIs. Dube (1997) found out that both street girls and boys have risky sexual activities that make them vulnerable to HIV infection. This is a life time bomb since later in live they may infect others in the society. There is thus a need to focus on how to curb the street children phenomenon to fight against HIV/AIDS because of their hard to reach nature coupled with their increased vulnerability.

The street children phenomenon has multiple and interdependent causes: economic, social and political. The inherent dangers of being in the street situation such as economic deprivation, lack of adult protection, inadequate socialization and lack of proper schooling poor and sanitation make the street children more vulnerable. When pushed into the difficult street situations, the children develop survival mechanisms to protect themselves from such aggressions. The children mostly come to the limelight only when such survival mechanisms, such as pick-pocketing, prostitution, drug abuse, teenage pregnancy, communicable diseases are noticed. That is when they become a nuisance to the general public (UNICEF, 2002). Unfortunately, these symptoms of the phenomenon are often confounded with the root problem which is the problem that made them escape from responsible adult control and support. The most common reaction is repression and further exclusion in the name of putting them into special reformatory institutions. The poor conditions of some of these institutions and poorly adapted programs only lead to further isolation, stigmatization and deprivation. A vicious circle is quickly formed as these lead to further poverty. Most authorities are quick to index poverty as being the main cause of the phenomenon, which is often wrongly tagged as a problem of the poor. Poverty is evidently not the only reason behind the problem. After all, not all street children are from poor families and many children from poor families are not in the street situation (UNICEF, 2002).

The phenomenon of street children is fast becoming a problem worldwide and Kenya is not an exception. Unfortunately, many stakeholders remain in a state of denial as to the existence of street children. The problem stems from the lack of consensus on the definition of street children. The most common definition of a street child is "any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street (in the broadest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland, Culverts, ditches, shop verandas) has become her or his habitual abode and/or sources of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adult (Inter-NGO, 1885). However, many stakeholders reduce the definition to just one aspect of the problem and fail to recognize that the term is a fluid concept with multiple faces and that the causes of the phenomenon overlap with each other such that it is difficult to pin point one aspect of the phenomenon. It is even less relevant to isolate a single cause which could globally explain life on the streets. However, the phenomenon is related to the broader socio-economic and cultural reality of a country and must therefore be interpreted in light of the specific local context (UNICEF, 2002).

Study Objectives

The general objective of this study is to define and quantify the street children phenomenon in Mumias Sub-county in view of finding appropriate solutions to the problem. Specifically, the study sought to one, establish the extent to which street children influence security in Mumias Sub County and two, find out the extent to which society offers rehabilitation services to street children in Mumias Sub County.

Methodology

Five sites were purposively selected for the study namely; Mumias town, Matungu, Ekero, Mayoni and Shibale. Data collection was done by the researchers. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Descriptive survey and cross sectional research design was used . The research framework in the present study allowed for flexible research design and a sociologically significant data from respondent's voices was heard. The approach also allowed capturing multiple realities rather than monolithic view of the social world. The designs enabled the researcher to triangular the findings from different respondents.

The research used multiple methods of data collection in order to get both primary and secondary data. Among the methods used were; documents analysis, both published and unpublished literature, and survey using a semi-structured questionnaire administered to street children who volunteered to give detailed information about themselves in all the 5 sites. A total of 27 survey questionnaires were completed. Interviewers used interview guides to generate data from 5 adults working next to sites where street children were found and 3 taking care of minor street children. One key informant from WEAP was also used. Essays written by some beneficiaries from WEAP and researchers reflecting their fieldwork experience were all used.

Data Collection Procedures

After ascertaining that the instruments for data collection were reliable and valid, the researcher obtained

the necessary permission from the Sub-County commissioner's office and made other important preparations for data collection. A brief explanation about the study was given to the respondents. The researcher/research assistants gave a self-administered semi-structured questionnaire to respondents in the study sample. The respondents were given two weeks to complete the questionnaire and submit it. Secondary data was collected from past WEAP activities to give an insight on past rehabilitative activities offered to street children .The response rate was 97.21 percent. The data collection process took two weeks. The respondents were taken through interview questions by the researcher who noted down their responses per every item. Some 7 street children participated in focus group discussions and their views were recoded.

Conceptualization of the Research Population

For the purpose of the study, the research population was perceived to be children living and working on the streets. The definition was deliberately edited to include all groups of children, who whether on a full-time or part-time basis regard the streets of Mumias as a place where they get their subsistence. Some of these children, it recognizes from the outset would be school going and have homes and families that they go back to on daily basis. Others have no homes to go back to and therefore would be residing full time on the streets .The street children are found in garbage dump sites, Abandoned vehicles and houses, hotels & bars, scrap selling points, WEAP drop in centre, fuel stations, car parks, Bus stops, Mosques and Churches, cinema/ video halls, Street junctions and Public toilets. In the current study, most of the above locations were visited within the various sites to count the street children.

The definition of "children" agreed upon in the Convention on the Rights of Child (CRC) refer to those people below the age of eighteen. This definition was used in the study. Individuals between the ages 0-18 as perceived by the research respondents themselves or, in the case of under –five age groups estimated by their caretakers were studied. In the present context, "street" was taken to refer to not only the main thoroughfares and side roads within the research locales, but always the alleyways whether tarmacked or otherwise.

Findings of the Study

From the results of this study, it was estimated that there are about 823 children in of the following criteria.

i.   Criteria 1: Child above 15 years old, not going to school and not working
ii.   Criteria 2: Child below 16 years old and is working for economic reasons even if going to school
iii.   Criteria 3: Attending school but chronically absent from school for unjustified reasons to offer cheap labor in town
iv.   Criteria 4: Both parents absent in the lives of the child

These criteria are meant to be warning signs of life time bomb or a security threat where many school going children may drop out of school and become a liability to the society in future. The findings of this study suggest that the likelihood of children in one or more of these situations encountering street life and its related hazards is particularly high.

Mumias town alone recorded 372 street children. Majority of these street children in Mumias identified themselves as Luhya (73%) and Luo (13%) while the rest (13%) were Kikuyu. 1% were other tribes from Kenya and Uganda. About 21.2% of the children attended school with the help of Western Education Advocacy and Empowerment Programmes (WEAEP) while others 78.8% did some casual labour for their daily bread. Most of the parents of these children lived in poverty characterized with broken homes and abandonment, absence of parents and a tendency to encourage children to obtain employment by any means in order to supplement the family income. About 73% of the children had been on the streets either on a part time or full time for up to 7 years.

Concerning reasons why these children are on streets, majority of the street children gave the following reasons: to earn money, search for food, domestic violence and pull factors in urban centers. Parental absence emerges as a major push factor while the increase in divorce as documented by CSO (2009) and the number of parents mostly men moving out in search of jobs also represent a cause for concern that lead to children moving to streets. Concerning sexual matters, most of the boys reported sexual sensation as enjoyment while girls reported it as a commercial business or a way to secure belonging and protection by boyfriends. Both genders were aware of health issues with unprotected sex. Majority of the children had knowledge on various organizations that offer services to street children such as Western Education Advocacy and Empowerment Programmes (WEAEP).

Activities Engaged in by Street Children

It was observed that street children engaged in both positive and negative activities. Among the positive activities noted were scavenging for waste materials for sale; guarding and directing cars; assisting shoppers and cleaning the environment. The negative activities engaged in by the street children were begging, drug abuse, stealing, unsafe sex, violent fights and acting as spies for thieves. Additional activities included hawking, washing cars, selling groundnuts and fruits, and the sale of drugs and carrying luggage for people at a fee. For girls, prostitution and begging appear to be the two most common income earning activities regardless of the reason for coming to the streets.

Findings from the Street Children who Participated in Focus Group Discussions

Through the FGD of data was collected under various headings. It was revealed that the street children face many problems and these are presented according to themes below:

Socio-educational Problems

The street children reported that the street is an unprotected environment where street children are frequently exploited. In some places, street children may even face the possibility of physical injuries or death from violence. Common sources of violence are: the police, gangs, drug syndicates, those who operate commercial sex businesses, death squads, other street children, families and sexual partners. Other problems include Trafficking which consists of all acts of recruitment or transportation of persons within or across borders, involving deception, coercion or force, debt bondage or fraud, for the purpose of placing persons in situations of abuse or exploitation, such as forced prostitution, slavery, battering or extreme cruelty, sweatshop labour or exploitative domestic service.

In addition, the street children lack a basic resource to sustain a healthy living. The children usually have no financial means to buy suitable clothing which may be necessary in cold places. They also have no money to buy food, which is essential for their development. They noted that in the street, they may become prostitutes in order to survive so as to meet their addictions. A great deal of the exploitation remains clandestine. It occurs through contacts in nightclubs / bars or through high-end escort services where the abuse takes place in privately rented apartments. The total number of girls who already had sexual intercourse in the sample was 97. Out of them, 28, of those who ever had sexual intercourse had been pregnant. It is worth noting that many of those who got pregnant ended up with an induced abortion while some carried their pregnancy to term delivery. 2 female respondents, who were 12 years and 14 years of age, were still pregnant at the time of the interview.

Even though some street children can usually get enough to eat, they do not have nutritious diets. This leads to vitamin deficiencies, malnutrition and anemia. Injuries may be caused intentionally including injuring self while intoxicated or when depressed .

Common sexual and reproductive health problems included sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/ AIDS, unwanted pregnancies and unsafe abortions. Constant physical and mental strain and living in environment least protected against health hazards makes street children highly prone to infectious diseases.

Figure 1: Unsafe environment for street children in Mumias County, Kenya

Street children noted that they develop a number of psychological problems due to insecurity, continued anxiety, violation and maladjustive behaviour throughout their lives. After migrating to the street, children have to face police, the employer, the local criminals, and overall exploitation.

Interventions by WEAP Organization

WEAP Organization focuses on various initiatives that provide basic and vocational education to street children. Such initiatives appear to have been stigmatized as alternatives that are designed specifically for the poor, hence the street child stands the risk of further marginalization. The drop-in centre often lacks necessary infrastructure, qualified teachers, teaching and learning equipment, and certification of those taught, a risk of offering very low education. Skills training which is offered in the drop-with in centre is meant to assist the children to become independent and self-reliant. Findings however reveal that this training has become too monotonous and is not to the liking of most street children. The challenge now is for such skills training to be more diversified and be made more market/demand oriented in terms of

income generation for real effect.

There are of course exceptions. An interesting intervention recorded in the findings point to a success story. The WEAEP has made significant progress in supporting disadvantaged children to enroll or continue their primary education in the three districts of Western Kenya. The number of children supported was approximately 1,320 and this enabled many children to benefit from free primary education. Project staff and volunteers conducted community awareness meetings to reduce stigma of children living with disabilities and their families and encouraged enrolment of those children in primary school education.

To enhance vulnerable girls' participation in primary education, 315 girls were provided with sanitary towels, each girl receiving two packets of sanitary towels. The provision of sanitary towels enabled girls to actively participate in group activities and reduced absenteeism, thus improving class attendance and retention in six schools supported. Joina, aged 14, a beneficiary at Ekambara Primary School said that:

> "*I had suffered a lot during my menstruation days because my grandmother could not afford sanitary towels; I stayed away from school five days each month, which affected my class performance. Whenever I resumed school, corporal punishment was the order of the day and no teacher understood my problems. I thank God for WEAEP; I can now attend school without fear and stigma and my performance has drastically improved".*

Two former street children who are supported by WEAEP, sat for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education in November 2009 and scored 322 marks out of 500. WEAEP secured two full secondary school scholarships to pay their fees from Form 1–4. The cases studies below highlight the children's progress.

Chiumbo

> *Chiumbo is 14 years old. Following the death of his father in 2003, Chiumbo and his five siblings were left in the care of their mother who is a casual labourer. His two sisters and three brothers were forced to drop out of school and either get married or become bicycle taxi drivers (bodaboda). His mother could not support the family on her own, therefore Chiumbo was forced to work on farms and beg on the streets so that his mother could buy enough food for the whole family. Chiumbo's performance in school continued to decline and eventually he dropped out after completing standard seven. In 2006, he moved to the streets of Mumias where he joined a gang.*

In November 2008, a WEAP social worker encouraged Chiumbo to visit the Mumias Drop-in Centre. Here, Chiumbo was provided with shelter, food, clothing, and educational support. WEAEP also helped to trace his family, which restored his confidence and self-belief. He was enrolled in a primary school where he worked extremely hard. Having been registered for the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education in 2009, he scored 324 out of 500. WEAEP secured sponsorship for his secondary school education and he is now pursuing his secondary education at Chebuyusi Boys High School. He now dreams of becoming a teacher one day and says;

> "*I had given up hope in life to pursue my education after dropping out of school but now I am happy that I have rediscovered myself and I have the potential to fulfill my ambitions, hopes and dreams in life. WEAEP staff are understanding, caring, encouraging and loving. I know that my life will change because they have offered me an opportunity to further my education which is a key to a better life.'*

'

Without WEAEP's support, Chiumbo thinks that he would have turned to a life of crime. He has been reunited with his family and now receives assistance from the project as he continues with his secondary school education.

Kilo

Kilo is 15 years old. His father was the sole bread winner for the family up until he died in 2005. Since then Kilo's mother who is physically disabled has struggled to support the family on her own. Kilo's sisters were forced to drop out of school to get married and Kilo also dropped out of school to start work in a hotel. Not long after, Kilo moved to the streets when life at home became too unbearable. In March 2009, Kilo visited the Mumias Drop-in Centre where he was given temporary shelter and the support he needed to get his life 'back on track'. After attending remedial classes at the centre for a number of weeks, he was enrolled in a Muslim primary school. Kilo now wants to become a doctor. He says;

> *"I had lost all hope in life and all my dreams were shattered while leading a street life. I knew that I was going to die through mob justice because of pick-pocketing people on the streets. WEAEP gave me hope and I am optimistic that life would never be the same because I have an opportunity to go to school."*

Without the support from WEAEP's dedicated team, Kilo thinks that he would now be dead or in prison. He has been reunited with his family and receives ongoing support as he continues with his secondary education.

Conclusion

Street children are a major concern in the Kenyan society across all cultures, ages and geographical location and Mumias Sub-County is not an exception. The family context emerges as a strong determinant of street children vulnerability to being pushed into the street, and must therefore also be seen as one of the most important factors to be addressed as a means to the child's reintegration. Parents need to be given skills to be able to play this role for the children. Further, the findings clearly indicate a life time bomb that the society is sitting on which in due course might be a serious insecurity issue to the society. To offer security to this vulnerable population, the children need to get education and other basic needs. Collective measures from the government, NGO's and community based organizations are required. For example, the case of WEAP has saved some street children in Mumias Sub-County, Kenya.

Recommendations

A number of recommendations can be made in view of the above. One, policy makers must be sensitized on the issue of children in street situations and the societal hazards to which the children are exposed; two, reintegration and rehabilitation programs for street children must be put in place by the larger society; three, there is a need to sensitize the children on the availability of the child support services available and on the rights of the child. Finally, since one question remained unanswered regarding an emerging syndicate to insecurity "where have the older aged street children gone?", more research has to be done.

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PSYCHO-SOCIAL INFLUENCE OF POLITICAL CONFLICTS ON PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS IN NAKURU COUNTY, KENYA.

Majanga, Eunice K, J. S. Achoka & A. Kamoet

ABSTRACT

The Education Policy Session Paper (2005 No.1) indicates that Kenya's children in conflict prone areas are unable to take advantage of the universal education policy in place in Kenya because of open conflict, population displacement and destruction of school facilities. Studies identify the psycho - social influences of the conflicts on pupils as most severe together with teaching and learning environment which in turn affects academic adjustments. This paper highlights a descriptive survey research study on political conflicts and its influence on pupils in primary schools within Nakuru County, with specific attention to the 2007 general elections. The study stratified schools in Nakuru county into urban, peri-urban and settlement schools in both public and private schools to give a comparison of the psycho-social influence of the 2007/2008 post election violence (PEV) on primary school pupils. The findings reveal that children who experienced violence during conflict suffered psycho-social effects such as; low class concentration, memory impairment on short term basis and behavioral influence in some children such as ; flashback images, negative memories and associated emotions in the form of dreams, aggressiveness , hate and revenge type of behaviour. These challenges undermine children's confidence and learning ability and consequently severely affected their academic performance. These findings are significant not only to the schools stakeholders but also the entire society in understanding the innate and hidden the psycho-social influence of conflicts on school-going children. The study also provides baseline information to education curriculum planners and policy makers to enhance a guidance and counseling policy in primary schools. This includes psycho-social protection to the children by making them have a sense of self-worth. It also incorporates the children's need to learn the skills of negotiation, problem solving, critical thinking and communication that will enable them to resolve their differences without resorting to violence.

Key Words: Education Policy; Universal Education; Political Conflicts; Psycho -social Influence

Background

Ethnicity has been used in many parts of the African continent in terms of mobilization by political leaders lacking a tangible agenda for their countries and for seeking economic power (Lonsdale, 2008). As a result, ethnic conflicts and political instability seem to work in tandem and arise when an ethnic group believes that they have been marginalized on some national matters within the state (Klopp at el, 2008). The victimized people develop communal resentment and prejudice which culminate in political unrest (ibid). The tragic Rwandan genocide in 1994, for instance will forever remain one of the darkest pages in African history. Ethnicity in Rwanda that resulted in genocide was a long conspiracy process marked by a series of successive violence, acute hatred between the ethnic Hutus and Tutsis (Mbori, 2008; Mugabe, 2007). Unfortunately, in such incidences of ethnopolitical conflicts the world over, women and children become targets

While Kenya has remained fairly stable and peaceful during most of its post-independence period, violence between ethnic groups has tended to erupt around national election periods since the

introduction of competitive multiparty politics in December 1991 (Oucho, 2010). Achoka and Njeru (2009), indicate in their study that violent conflicts witnessed over years in Kenya are due to issues related to territorial ethnic identity, resources, food, religion and ideology. According to Kamungi (2001), most ethnic conflicts in Kenya take place in the Rift Valley and Eastern Regions. For instance, Onsongo (2008) posits that Nakuru County experienced several ethnic conflicts between 1992 and 2007. NCCK (2008) reports show that during the 2007/2008 post election violence, the county was the epicenter of the ethnic conflicts. The tribes in the County including the Kikuyu, Kalenjin, Luo and Kisii who had previously co-existed peacefully turned against each other. MoEST (2008) reports indicate that a number of learners of primary school going level were displaced in various districts affected by 2007/2008 Post Election Violence (PEV). The Rift Valley region had the highest number of displaced learners. This huge number of displaced pupils and teachers had a negative impact on education.

Issues relating to conflict and education are discussed in many international instruments. For instance, Article 28 assures the child's right to education, specifying that primary education is compulsory and should be available free to all (UN Convention on the Child's Rights, 1989). Signatories to this Act are obliged to take measures to encourage regular attendance of children at schools and reduction of drop-out rates. Article 39 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child states that State Parties shall take all appropriate measures to promote physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration of a child victim of any form of neglect, exploitation, or abuse; torture or any other form of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment or armed conflicts. Such recovery and reintegration shall take place in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect and dignity of the child.

Studies done have demonstrated negative effects of conflicts in educational achievement of children (Swee 2009; Shemyakina 2006). These studies posit that, even when children are able to continue attending school, the children's ability to learn may seriously be impaired by psychosocial distress or poor physical health which may have an effect on brain development and it can negatively affect the child's academic performance. Nicolai, (2003) identified psycho-social symptoms of distress by assessing different age groups reactions to stressful experiences after conflicts. Table 1 shows Nicolai (2003) Psychosocial symptoms of distress on pupils.

Table 1: Psychosocial symptoms of distress on pupils (Nicolai, 2003)

AGE GROUP	POSSIBLE SYMPTOMS
Very young children (0-5 years) Are not able to rationalize what is happening around them. Are not able to understand the concept of death, equating it to separation.	• Are anxious clinging to caretakers • Temper tantrums • Fear of going to sleep • Nightmares and night terrors • Excessive fear of real or imagined things e.g. thunder, monsters.
Young children (6-12yrs) Can recall and rationalize events in more logical ways. They will often use fantasy to deal with stressful events eg. Enacting or imagining a different outcome. They are more prone to feelings of guilt that they have prevented bad things from happening.	• Poor concentration, restlessness or bad behaviour in school. • Anxious behaviour including hyper activity and stuttering eating problems • Psychosomatic complaints e.g. headaches and stomach pains. • Behavioural change, fear, becoming aggressive or withdrawn and passive. • Sleeping problems • Regressive – acting like a younger children.
Adolescents (13-16 yrs) Have a good understanding of what has happened and also what consequences might be. They are dealing with events and experiences related to the emergencies.	• Self destruction and rebellious eg, drug taking and stealing. Withdraw, cautious and fearful of the future. Anxiety, nervousness, • Psychosomatic and complaints.

Methodology

The study conducted a descriptive survey design in Nakuru County because of two reasons: first, Nakuru is a cosmopolitan area with many of the all ethnic communities in Kenya; second, it has experienced political conflicts and animosities repeatedly since 1992, 1997, 2002, and 2007/2008.

The study population comprised 203 schools from both the public and private schools categories in Nakuru County. The study used stratified sampling to categorize schools as Urban, Peri-urban and Settlement schools. The number of schools were randomly sampled. Each school category contributed 18 schools, making a total of thirty (36) six schools. Purposive sampling was used to identify and include the 360 pupils who had experienced the 2007/2008 PEV.

The data collected from the respondents brought a wide range of views, opinions, attitudes and values, from which similarities were extracted and comparisons made. Data was collected by use of questionnaires and interview schedules. Secondary data was obtained from literature review, which comprised documentary sources on similar studies and policy documents from National and internationally sources. Questionnaires were administered to pupil in order to collect data on the social and psychological influence of 2007/2008 PEV. Interviews were conducted to class teachers and Head teachers. Data collected was analyzed qualitatively by use of descriptive statistics.

Findings

The results on the social and psychological influence of 2007/2008 PEV on pupils in primary schools in Nakuru County, Kenya are presented in Table 2 and show the social influence of 2007/2008 PEV on Primary School Pupils in Nakuru County.

Table 2: Social influence of 2007/2008 PEV on Primary School Pupils. (n = 360)

Social Effect	Frequencies (F)					Weighted Mean
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree	
Lost all books, birth certificate	84	12	0	120	216	4.63
Lost best friend after PEV	12	84	0	48	216	4.03
House was burnt during PEV	12	96	0	60	192	3.90
Transferred	0	84	0	216	60	3.70
Lost one of the parents/relatives	48	48	0	216	60	3.63
Orphaned and stays with guardian/ grandmother	36	72	0	192	60	3.47
Family Property was destroyed/burnt down	84	12	0	240	24	3.30

From Table 2, pupil respondents (weighted mean of 4.63) indicated that they lost all books and their birth certificates. The books may have been lost through burning of houses and classrooms during the PEV. This is evidenced by the weighted mean of 3.98 of the pupils who agreed that their houses were burnt and a weighted mean of 3.30 of pupils who agreed that family properties were destroyed/burnt down during the 2007/2008PEV. The class teachers sampled also reported to the study that such pupils who did not have official documents in their new schools were meant to repeat their classes. One boy was heard lamented:

> *'I hate school because I am the oldest in my class. I was forced to repeat because I did not have my birth certificate, report cards and my books to show in my new school'.*

The findings confirm earlier studies done in Liberia by Save Children Alliance, (2004) that observed that after 14 years of conflict, an estimated 60% of primary school pupils were over age in the new classes because of staying out of school for 14 years. This discourages families from sending their young children to access school especially girls if they are over age hence affecting pupil participation (Ogenga, 2010). In addition, the pupils agreed that their houses were burnt down during the 2007/2008 conflicts while other pupils (weighted mean of 3.63) also agreed that they lost one of the parents/ relatives in the conflicts. This is evidenced by a weighted mean of 3.47 of the pupils who indicated that they are orphans as a result of the conflicts. Class teachers who were sampled reported that pupils who have experienced the death

of their parents and their relatives and also saw their houses and property burn always have nightmares and day dream during class lessons.Table 3: Psychological influence of 2007/2008 PEV on Primary School Pupils. (n = 360)

Psychological Effect	Never		Sometimes		Frequently		Always		Weighted Mean
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Remember of how our house/ school were burnt	108	30.0	30	23.3	24	6.7	144	40.0	2.27
Dream about parents/ relatives who were killed	12	6.7	84	23.3	96	26.7	156	43.3	3.03
Hate school because of losing best friends during conflicts	12	3.3	96	26.7	156	43.3	96	26.7	2.93
Developed a lot of fear after PEV	60	16.7	48	13.3	84	23.3	168	46.7	3.00
Easily develop anger/ irritation when provoked by anybody	0	0.0	96	26.7	180	50.0	84	23.3	2.97
Always nervous that the war will start again	48	13.3	72	20.0	84	23.3	156	43.3	2.97
Always feel hungry in school	0	0.0	60	16.7	60	16.7	240	66.7	3.50
Are IDP because of PEV	12	3.3	72	20.0	192	53.3	84	23.3	2.97
Always have memories of dead people	24	6.7	84	23.3	252	70.0	0	0.0	2.63

From Table 3, it can be noted that the 40% of the pupil respondents (weighted mean of 2.27), indicated that they frequently remembered of how their house/ school were burnt. This shows that pupils were traumatized with the burning of their houses.

Majority of the sampled class teachers from Urban , Peri-urban and settlement schools reported that pupils get still traumatized by what they experienced and saw during the 2007/2008 PEV. The teachers expressed bitterly that pupils who experienced the conflicts day dream in class and still have feelings of detachment. According to the teachers, the pupils are not attentive in class and will always give wrong answers whenever they are asked questions. These results agree with Shemyakina (2006) who observed that even if children in conflict communities are able to continue attending school, their ability to learn may be seriously impaired by psychosocial distress of remembering what they experienced or poor physical health and this can have an effect on brain development hence can negatively affect the child's academic performance. 43.3% of the pupils (weighted mean of 3.03) reported that they frequently dreamt about their parents/ relatives who were killed during the ethnic conflicts. 26.7 % pupils (weighted mean of 2.93) responded that they hate their new school because they lost their best friends who transferred to other schools during the conflicts. 43% of the pupil (weighted mean of 3.00) respondents indicated that they have frequently developed a lot of fear after the 2007/2008 PEV. Pupils are afraid that war can

break out again and fear that they may end up losing their relatives and friends again. Sampled class teachers responses indicate that the anxiety created by the events of the post election violence continues to hinder pupils' full participation in school.

Pupils from the peri-urban and settlement schools indicated a high percentage of fear because majority of these schools are located either in the slums and settlement farms. In addition, 43.3% of the pupils (weighted mean of 2.97) reported that they were frequently nervous that the war will start again. 43.3% (weighted mean of 2.97) of the pupil respondents indicated that they are easily angered /irritated when provoked by anybody.

Head teachers from urban and peri-urban schools reported that their schools have a lot of indiscipline cases to settle particularly with pupils who have experienced conflicts. The interviewed Head teachers in urban schools reported that pupils transferred to their schools because of community violence are very aggressive to get what they want. Sometimes they have to threaten others including prefects to get what they want. The class teacher respondents pointed out higher levels of school bullying amongst boys and lowest among the girls. They fight so that others won't think they are cowards. The Head teachers lamented that these pupils have developed a spirit of: (You play me; you pay me) (This indicates a spirit of revenge if they feel mocked), according to the head teachers..

These findings agree with a study by Torrente and Kanayet (2007) that observed higher levels of aggression among children and adolescents living in municipalities with high levels of violent conflict and homicides. 66.7% (weighted mean of 3.50) of pupil respondents indicated that they always feel hungry in school. Sampled class teachers from peri-urban schools pointed out that children from conflict communities come to school hungry and hardly concentrate in class. It is also worth noting that these same pupils clearly indicated (weighted mean of 2.97), that they were internally displaced persons (IDP) due to the 2007/ 2008 ethnic conflicts while at the same time, others indicated (weighted mean of 2.63) that they frequently had memories of dead people. This may imply that the pupils may have seen the killings being executed or may have seen so many bodies of dead people that made them have such memories.

Head teachers reported that the internally displaced children have brought new challenges that the schools are forced to deal with. For instance, schools enrolled children without requiring the parents to bring a desk; learners had no uniforms (making them conspicuous in school) and some had no shoes or came to school in slippers and often lacked full concentration both in class and extra curricula activities. The teachers on the other hand, are forced to guide and sometimes counsel these children despite some of the teachers not being trained as counsellors. There are also few male guidance and counseling teachers despite the relative parity of the girls and boys who had been displaced.

Conclusion

The findings indicate that pupils are still traumatized by what they experienced and saw during the 2007/2008 PEV. The class teachers observed that pupils who experienced the conflicts day-dream in class and still have feelings of detachment. In addition, the pupils have developed a lot of fear and are easily angered/irritated when provoked. They are also always nervous, fearing that war can start again. The Government and the MoEST should carry out a curriculum review *in order to assess whether the learning content, teaching methods, structure and progression meet the needs of learners from conflict communities*

and whether the curriculum ensures the overall development and psychosocial protection of these learners. Government should address the needs and rights of all learners and their changing environments. The curriculum should eliminate biases, conflict-inciting materials, and ideologically-loaded content in addition to integrating key thematic issues, such as life skills, health promotion, psycho-social support, conflict resolution and environmental awareness.

The Ministry of Education and partner agencies must ensure that contingency plans systematically enhance the operational capacity in the education sector not only to respond to but also to prevent and mitigate the impacts of disasters. Such contingency plans should put health and nutrition, psychosocial well-being and education as priority components of humanitarian assistance in order to ensure children's physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration.

The Education policy makers should look at the existing policies and incorporate issues relating to internally displaced children such issues include emerging challenges after the post election violence: separated families, orphans and change of environment/conditions. A guidance and counseling policy should be put in place to incorporate the need for children to learn the skills of negotiation, problem solving, critical thinking and communication that will enable them to resolve conflicts without resorting to violence. The policy should include psychosocial protection to the children by intensifying peace education campaigns that will make them have a sense of self-worth and sense of belonging .

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INTEGRATING NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL SECURITY EDUCATION INTO THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM, WESTERN REGION

Nabie Alice & Aurah Catherine

Abstract

Security of life and property are the primary conditions for progress and development of any society. The security sector's vision of "society free from danger and fear" aims at providing an enabling environment for development in all sectors. Kenya's national security is ranked among the worst in Africa according to the latest Ibrahim index of African Governance report released in London 2013. The country has had repeated terrorist attacks that have not spared learning institutions and even churches previously believed to be safe grounds. In this paper, security education was recognized as a critical factor for sustainable development especially in a country prone to conflict and insecurity. Its objectives included; identification of insecurity drivers, determination of security related deaths and development of possible guidelines on security education integration in school curriculum. The study was carried out in Western region of Kenya among randomly selected security officials, education leaders and private organizations. A survey design was employed in the study and data collected using interview schedules. Data was analyzed descriptively. The study revealed that ignorance, corruption, and poor working conditions and terms of service for the police force were key drivers of insecurity. The study also revealed that several people have lost their lives due to insecurity and that integration of security education required combined effort by the education sector, security sector and government. The study therefore brings out the untapped influence of the education sector to revert the otherwise depreciating security status nationally and internationally.

Key words: Integrating, Security, National security, Education, Peace, Development

Introduction

Security is the condition of being protected physically, emotionally, psychologically as well as from other harm, attack, terror. Edem (2010) defined security as assurance of the future wellbeing and freedom from threat. Security therefore involves the protection of national values and absence of insecurity, promoting the core values of a state that would enhance the protection of lives and property of the citizenry. National security is a collection of precautions, resources and institutions built to secure a sovereign state. Mandel (1994) note that national security entails the pursuit of psychological and physical safety, which is the responsibility of national government in order to prevent direct threats endanger citizenry or their way of life. Every individual or nation aspires to have security (Nwogu & Nnorom, 2013). The importance attached to security is also revealed in Maslow's hierarchy of human needs. The theory identified security as one of the basic needs of man. Security can be described as any positive measure taken to keep an individual, state, organization, country, or resources safe from danger. It is a protection against physical, psychological, emotional, socio-economic or even cultural harm. Atoyebi (2003), states that national security is the absence of threats to the core values and the prevention of public disorder. This disorder affects the individual and hence the society. When the individual is threatened, the society witnesses insecurity which embraces the act of and fear of all tendencies towards the corporate existence of the nation. Security therefore includes the preservation, protection and guarantee of lives, property, health and national sovereignty of the individual and society.

Kenya has witnessed an upsurge in cases of insecurity over the last 4 years. The cases of insecurity have been manifested in various ways that range from crime activities, civil unrest, hazards and terrorism targeting both private and public facilities, civilians and security personnel in all parts of the country. These impart negatively on investments and development. Hazards range from human based to natural hazards that have caused fear among Kenyans. They include road accidents, collapse of buildings, landslides and even floods, most of which result in death of individuals and damage of property. Civil unrest involves demonstrations due to political differences that witness high levels of death and property destruction. Terrorist attacks are currently a major threat to security in the country. Kenya has been the scene of various attacks attributed to terrorist elements. The most recent attacks on Westgate Mall and the Garrisa University College send chills not only to Kenyans but to the whole world as innocent Kenyans were brutally killed (Atoyebi,2003).

Due to these challenges, the government's reaction has been to defer a number of internal policing functions to the military. There is an increasing manifestation of the increasing sense of the siege mentality that permeated the country as was evident from the various counties that we visited. For example, in most urban centers—the most prominent being the City of Nairobi—both public and private facilities have been cordoned off, leaving only small passage-ways for access. The number of security officers deployed to guard public installations has significantly increased. Increasingly, the country is adopting a 'seal-off and screen down' approach to security, which has seen an enhancement of security both in public and private spaces. There is also an increased presence of police with some deployed as sentries to guard public and private investments as well as the installation of metal detectors aimed at detecting dangerous weapons from would be criminals. The state has taken militarization a notch higher by the arbitrary, and often times unconstitutional, deployment of the military to respond to threats to Kenya's internal security.

Although the responsibility to provide security for citizens and the ability to keep them safe from both internal and external threats is an important hallmark of what effective state sovereignty entails, it is unfortunate that the concept of state security remains both fuzzy and problematic, and more so in Africa given the historical diversity of states as political units with a considerable proportion of them derogating from the Westphalian benchmark. As a result, there exist multiple and competing networks of state and non-state actors vying to control and deploy the instruments of violence within and beyond the geo-spatial state boundaries in many African countries. Education, the world over serves as an instrument for solving societal problems and development. Education continue to be highly rated in the national development plans because education is the most important instrument of change; any fundamental change in the intellectual and social outlook of any society has to be preceded by an educational revolution.

Okowa (2011:75) supported this idea when he stated that "...education is central to human existence and development. It is through education that values are transmitted across generations. Education enables society to create and domesticate knowledge". This implies that any society that fails to harness the benefits of education endangers its future and therefore faces security challenges.

Peace and security education is therefore a critical factor for sustainable national development especially in a country prone to conflict and insecurity. Education, training and awareness-raising are cross-cutting

elements that strengthen all aspects of security management at all levels. Through the education sector, a movement of peace activists would help create a culture of peace based on universal values of respect for life, liberty, justice, solidarity, tolerance, human rights and equality between men and women.

Education is vital to the task of acquiring the capacity to live together peacefully. Through education, individuals from different backgrounds learn to live together, acquire knowledge, values, skills and attitude for dialogue, corporation and peace. Education is also a powerful tool to develop the capacity to respect differences and diversities as well as to build social tolerance by providing awareness of causes, consequences. Through education instructors highlight socio, cultural and economic impact and suffering caused by insecurity as learners develop the capacity of critical thinking and problem solving to create a world free of injustice, discrimination and prejudice. Education can also be called upon to rebuild a more sustainable society after violent conflict. This paper investigated into the role of education in security.

Statement of the problem

With the promulgation of a new Constitution on 27th August 2010, which provides a robust framework for the promotion and protection of human rights, Kenyans had a legitimate expectation that they would live in a Country where their safety and security are assured and guaranteed under the law. However, going by the recent spate of violence in different parts of the country, Kenyans cannot say that they live in a safe and secure country. Kenya has witnessed a sharp increase in the number of insecurity incidences over the last four years in all its counties, Vihiga being one of them. Kenya's national security is ranked among the worst in Africa according to the latest Ibrahim Index of African Governance report 2013. The country has had repeated terrorist attacks that have not spared learning institutions and even churches previously believed to be safe grounds. The high level of insecurity constrains growth in all sectors as it imposes extra expenditure by investors and creates the fear to invest attitude. Kenya Vision 2030 aspired to reduce crime level by 46% in 2012, a level that seems too far from being attained by 2015. The vision for the security sector, "free from danger and fear" aims at achieving and sustaining the economic growth rate anticipated in the Kenya Vision 2030. Living in an environment of peace and security is fundamental to human dignity and development. Security provides an enabling environment for individuals and businesses to thrive. It is a key incentive for attracting investment both from within and outside the country. This is deterred by the increased level of insecurity that ranges from crime to terrorism. Government interventions through increased security personnel, judiciary enforcement seem not to have had a positive outcome. This study investigates possibilities of incorporating security education in school curriculum to address the security concerns in the country.

Purpose of the Study

This study was carried out to investigate the possibilities of integrating security education in the school curriculum to address the security issues at national and international levels.

Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

1.   To identify the key drivers of insecurity in the country.
2.   To determine the number of security related deaths in the country.
3.   To establish possible security education implementation guidelines in the
      school curriculum.

Significance of the Study

The results of the study are hoped to bring about security awareness among a majority of citizens, address security issues in the country with the purpose of reducing insecurity for sustainable development.

Materials and Methods

The information in this article was gathered in a period of two months commencing 1st April to 30th May 2015 in western region, Kenya. During the field research, interviews were conducted at the county level, and these targeted senior officers in the Criminal Investigations Department (CID), senior members of the Police Service and the national government. The interviews were carried out with the Officers Commanding Police Divisions (OCPD), Officers Commanding Police Stations (OCS), County Commissioners, Assistant County Commissioners, area Chiefs and Assistant Chiefs.

Interviews were also conducted with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) and Community Based Organizations (CBO) operating within the county. Further, individual interviews and focused group discussions were carried out with people representing different sectors of the society. Interviews were also conducted with county education officers, quality assurance officers, principals of tertiary colleges and secondary schools as well as heads of primary schools in both primary private and public institutions. Several documents that provided secondary data for the report were also reviewed. These documents included judicial and police records, published and unpublished research by the KNCHR, United Nations Agencies, the Reports of the National Task Forces on Police and Judicial Reforms, several reports from local NGOs on various issues touching on insecurity and reports from international organizations that addressed themselves to the security situation in the Country during the period under review. The key issues in the interview included the possible drivers of insecurity in the country, possible ways of infusing security education in the education sector and possible modalities of implementation of the security education.

Results and Discussion

There has been an increase in the incidence, gravity and intensity of insecurity since 2010, including persistent terror attacks, inter-community conflicts and violence targeting all parts of the country indiscriminately.

Drivers of Insecurity
Table 1: Organized Criminal Gangs in Kenya

Name of Criminal Gang	Principal area of Operation	Main type of activities (including Criminal activities)
Mungiki	Central region, Nairobi	Extortion, illegal levies, violence, hire for revenge, executions, illegal oathing.
SunguSungu	Kisii, Nyamira	Expulsion of offenders, hire for revenge, Body guards, security, settlement of Disputes, executions, illegal detention.
42 Brothers	Emuhaya, Ebukasami,	Burglary, drugs, theft, violence, murder, hire as body guards, extortion
Haki La Kuishi	Khwisero	Burglary, theft
Land Lord	Khwisero	Burglary, theft
Mafia	Luanda, Emuhaya	Drug trafficking, theft
Down Town	Luanda, Emusire, Kombewa	Stealing motorcycles, power saw, engines

Some key drivers of insecurity identified included massive youth unemployment. 89% view of the persons interviewed pointed out that unemployment is a driver of insecurity. 10% objected that unemployment is key to insecurity. Unemployment was also found to have resulted in formation of criminal gangs that engage in terror activities in different parts of the country. The research findings revealed a number of criminal gangs operating in different parts of the country with western region hosting a good number as tabulated below:

Poor working conditions and terms of service for the Police were also identified as drivers of insecurity. 95% of persons interviewed agreed that the working conditions and terms of service for the police force were poor. However this did not apply to officers of high ranks whose role in security was of minimal consequence. If citizens expect the police to put their best foot forward in securing their safety and security, then they must strive to ensure that the men and women who risk their lives daily so that they may be safe and secure are not reduced to the rat race of daily survival. However, the study have revealed that the reforms anticipated in the security sector, particularly in the National Police Service, are either proceeding at a very slow pace or have altogether stalled. As a result, the police have not been equipped with the necessary tools, knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them discharge their security functions effectively. This has led to the increased militarization of internal security functions with the military, who are deemed to be better equipped, being increasingly deployed to carry out (sometimes without the necessary legal authorization as was the case in Kapedo, Kenya) the internal policing functions of maintaining law and order.

Endemic Culture of Corruption within the Security Agencies
Corruption within the security sector has been found to be the greatest impediment to the government's effort to both address and redress the rising levels of insecurity in the country. Available evidence shows that there are an increasing number of cases of collusion between law enforcement officers and criminals. For example in the course of its field work, KNCHR interviewed both State and non-State actors

who admitted that indeed there were some "rogue security enforcement officers" who were working in concert with criminals to defeat efforts to address and redress insecurity.

Ignorance among individuals ranked highest. 97% of the persons intervened blamed ignorance for the adverse effects of insecurity effects. There was enough evidence of lack of knowledge on security issues for individuals of all categories. The issues of insecurity get little attention if any and people only experience its effects after an occurrence. Lack of awareness was a key factor. This therefore calls for security education to create awareness to address the security issues.

Insecurity related deaths in Kenya

A total number of 3060 Kenyans (both civilian and law enforcement officers) lost their lives due to insecurity in the period (2010 to 2014). This surpasses the psychological watershed mark of the 1133 Kenyans who died during the country's worst internal conflict following the 2007-08 post-election violence. The study therefore revealed that security in the country was low as seen in the number of cases of insecurity reported in the country between the years 2010 to 2014.

Table 2: Some Cases of Insecurity Related Deaths as Reported between 2010-2014

Area of security concern	No. of cases reported
gunshots	1894
ethnic clashes	574
armed robberies	260
terror attacks	214
police killed	91
Total no.	3060

These cases demonstrate the fact that insecurity continue to grow in intensity and magnitude even in areas that were initially considered as "safe".

Security Education in School Curriculum

It is true that the education sector is most the efficient in communicating information and that it enjoys trust from its recipients. A slight variation was witnessed between persons affiliated to education and those affiliated to security in terms of integration of security education in the school curriculum. 96% of the educators interviewed agreed that security issues could be well addressed in the learning institutions while 75% of those in police force gave consent. 20% of those in police force indicated that security is an affair whose activities were not meant for public consumption. However, they agreed that the implementation be should made with reservations. This would challenge the dominant paradigm where discussions are monopolized by the state and its institutions such as the arms industry, security agencies and politicians, create a movement of peace activists that will help to create a culture of peace based on the universal values of respect for life, liberty, justice, solidarity, tolerance, human rights and equality between men and women. The values of peace which include among other things: respect for life, sharing with others, and rejection of violence, sense of justice, listening ability and solidarity were pointed out as necessary components of the security education curriculum. Security education should therefore address security risk identification, security risk information, security preparedness, and planning for

recovery. Such information need to reach all individuals to be effectively implemented.

Conclusion

Insecurity may not be completely eradicated. It can only be reduced to levels that cannot affect development. Security education can make a lot of contribution not just to avoiding insecurity but in producing a culture of peace characterized by respect for the dignity of the human person, respect for life, justice, solidarity, tolerance, human rights and equality between men and women. It is therefore incontrovertible that security education is a critical factor for sustainable peace and development. Education is our saving grace, our best chance and our one shot to bring security and development to all humanity.

Recommendations

There is need to integrate security education into the school curriculum. This requires addressing knowledge and skills acquisition to create security awareness, preparedness and response in the primary school curriculum, secondary school curriculum and tertiary institutions.

There is need to develop extra curriculum activities for students to complement security education. This would demand for capacity building of teacher-trainees and other resource personnel and the development of guidelines for such a curriculum.

A task force comprising individuals from the education and security sectors be established. The task force needs to be judged with the designing and provision of;

Development of guidelines for integration of security education into the school curriculum.

This involves identifying objectives for the security education and determining the modalities of implementation of the set objectives. Teachers in service involvement would be a key aspect to ensure that teachers participate in the design of the implementation strategies and that they also receive training necessary to carry out implementation in schools.

Development of training modules for training institutions.

This would involve development of packages for the tertiary institutions to infuse security reduction education in all courses to ensure all individuals in such institutions get access to security education.

Development of guidelines for assessment of insecurity based on identified aspects.

This would involve identifying standards against which insecurity would be measured based on set objectives at each level.

Development of in-service training to implement the security education

curriculum.

 A workforce of peace loving Kenyans be constituted to develop the curriculum, design modules and assessment guidelines to evaluate its effectiveness. Team needs to be constituted and trained to reach out to the public to provide awareness on security risks, awareness, and preparedness.

Fast-tracking security sector reforms: The National Police Service, the National Police Service Commission and the Independent Policing Oversight Authority should be adequately financed and resourced so that they can effectively deliver on the stalled or slowed down security sector reforms as per their respective mandates and in the line with the Constitution of Kenya.

Addressing corruption: The Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission should work closely with both state and non-state actors in their efforts to stamp out the scourge of corruption within the National Police Service.

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THE INFLUENCE OF PEER COUNSELORS' CHARACTERISTICS ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AS PERCEIVED BY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS: IMPLICATIONS ON SCHOOL SECURITY IN KAKAMEGA SOUTH SUB -COUNTY KENYA

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Abstract

In the current education system, academic-based peer counseling (PC) is increasingly becoming more critical in areas to do with school security. Its success depends on the perception of teachers and students on the influence of peer counselors' characteristics on academic performance. However so far, academic performance of secondary schools in the study area is far below expectation. The factors responsible for this situation are not yet clear, though it is known that PC personnel characteristics can influence academic performance and school security. The purpose of the study therefore was to establish the influence of peer counseling services on academic performance and school security as perceived by teachers and students in Kakamega Sub-county Kenya. The study was based on the fifth stage of Erickson's theory of psychosocial development. A descriptive survey research design was adopted. The study population comprised 23 principals, 349 teachers and 7160 students. A questionnaire and interview guide were used to collect data. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages. Qualitative data was received in verbatim, transcribed and organized according to themes. The study concluded that confidentiality, respect, honesty and discipline are PC characteristics that are perceived by teachers and students as having very strong effect on the students' academic performance. The study findings recommends that during the selection of student peer counselors, school principals and teacher counselors should base on characteristics perceived to have both strong and moderate effect on students' academic performance. The study concluded that schools should be sensitive to the reality that schools can sometimes be unfamiliar and bewildering to students. Teachers can detect any child who may be experiencing a sense of insecurity and reassure them. Peer counselors particularly with strong characteristics can identify these learners at their own level and create a secure environment which has a direct and positive effect on the learners' academic performance.

Key words: Academic performance, Counseling services, perception, peer counseling.

Introduction

In the perspective of Kenyan secondary schools, academic performance of a school is looked at in terms of the proportion of its students who attain the minimum university entry marks (MOEST, 2003). In addition, Egan (1996) established that provision of direction and encouragement of peers are key guiding principles for effective academic performance of fellow students. It is against this background that peer counseling practices can influence academic performance of secondary schools and by extension security.

Deutsch and Swartz (2002) define peer counseling as formal training of a people or youths to educate and influence their peers (not necessarily same age) under the mentorship of a qualified adult. McIntyre, Thomas and Borgen (1982) define PC as a process where students are trained in helping skills to offer under supervision, listening, support and alternatives to other students. The definition of PC in this study was adopted from McIntyre, Thomas and Borgen (1982). Arudo (2006) found that excess work pressure on the teacher counselors in a world where parents are spending less and less time with their children,

leave children in the hands of their peers and if not learners will find it difficult settling down in school. This results to increased need for PC services among Kenyan high school students.

Muro and Kottman (1991) found that in America, when students are in middle school and beginning to gain freedom from their parents, it may be difficult for them to look for their parents for advice or confide in them over some issues. At this point in time, peer counseling is the critical focus because peer-based advice is potentially one of the earliest interventions outside the students' family. At the same time the success of PC services depends a lot on the characteristics of peer counselors. American school counseling Association (2005), established that in American school systems, it is important to establish and attempt to improve the students` and teachers` perception of PC because they are the ones who stand to gain most. In Kenya, Ndichu (2005) established that the current socio-technological changes and educational demands call for continuous counseling for in–school youths. He also observes that peer counselors are students appointed by their colleagues or the school administration in an effort to open greater link between individual students. When supported they may become the best group to reach out to the needy students in classes, dormitory and playing ground.

Gacutha (2003) observes that the criteria for selecting peer counselors need to be developed with full involvement of the learner's community. According to M'nkanata (2009), implementation of the PC programme is easy when it is clear on who will be involved in the programme. According to M'nkanata (2009), a preliminary step to the selection process is recruiting candidates from the population to be served. Whatever method is chosen to advertise for recruits vary from one school to another. Selection of peer counselors is based on specific qualifications of peer counselors. Not all individuals can be peer counselors. In addition, he identifies specific qualities of a peer counselor as follows: one should be committed to helping others and have the ability to interact with a variety of people; willingness to accept standards of ethical conduct such as confidentiality of information; willingness and ability to work within the philosophy and goals of the programmes; one should also have facilitative skills of empathy, genuineness and respect for ethics among others.

There are times when teacher counselors are not able to run effective programs because they find themselves overworked and too busy with other administrative duties to adequately perform their job unless it involves a crisis situation (Guifridda, 2002). This calls for PC. Teachers' perception of the influence of PC on academic performance will either make it succeed or not succeed. However, as a result of the continued call for increased accountability in education by stakeholders, there is renewed focus and interest in both school counselor education and comprehensive developmental guidance models designed to maximize school counseling services (Baker and Gerler, 2004). The activities of PC can flourish in settings where there is an already established system for working together in cooperation with one another and where people support the values of caring about others. It works where there is a concern for and a belief in relationships that is based on hierarchies. It can take root or be sustained over time if the pioneering individuals in the organization are committed to its development. Such individuals must have characteristics of having interest in innovation or changes in human systems. In a school situation, these peer counselor may be able to assist their colleagues enjoy enhanced self-definition, reduce anxiety and stress, have confidence and improve academic performance.

A study conducted to Illinois high school seniors established that though the profession of counseling exist, students are not comfortable with it. Findings showed that the strongest response from the students as to why they did not pursue professional counseling was because they did not feel comfortable talking

certain things to a stranger. The second response was that counselors would pass this information to other people (Kayser and West, 1991). Peer counseling is therefore preferred to professional counseling by some students. This means peers are freer to one another and that is why the study conducted on students in Illinois school reveals that the students do not appreciate the program offered by the teacher counselors.

According to Gladding (2004), effective application of PC is a foundation for team building among teachers and students. This encourages teachers to have common goals and direct the student peer counselors towards their achievement. Issues of security in our schools are real and critical. When we talk of security in our schools it is not the kind of physical injurious Al - shabaab activities we witness in the country. It is mainly to do with the psychological challenges schools face which impact negatively on the academic performance of students (Gichaga,.et al., 2005). For that matter team building that is easily realized in PC process can be made use of in security matters in the school.

 When peer counselors are supported and developed, they may become the best group to reach out to the needy students (Ndichu, 2005). Such natural helpers when provided with counseling skills may be of greatest assistance where authority and professional services may be inadequate or not readily available .According to Arudo (2006), it is for this reason that students are likely to contact fellow students when they experience problems and concerns before they approach their teachers especially on matters they consider embarrassing such as rape or STIs.

Peer mentoring process benefits all participants. In a study at the University of Western Sydney, Watts and Thomas, (1997), a review of strategies for student learning support for all students revealed that amongst these is the use of mentoring. The study revealed that members valued a gain in confidence, improvement in the ability to communicate ideas and enhanced understanding of the subject(Marloney,2003).

According to Mutie and Ndambuki (2002),new admissions in some of our schools have become a threat to school security. Students come from different backgrounds and experiences. Some of these backgrounds(for example a culture of depending on drugs) have proved to be a source of insecurity in other schools and if not managed well, it can take toll on the entire operations of the school as well as students adjustments. The school should therefore organize for orientation immediately after form one admission. New admissions from other classes should also be orientated irrespective of their admission period. The rules and regulation should clearly be explained to students. Class teachers should make a follow up of the same, helping students to adjust in their new environment. Students whose background is wanting should be identified for further assistance. If the background affects the smooth running of the school then their parents, PTA (parents and teachers association and BOM (Board of Management) should be involved. Gichaga .et al., (2005) suggest peer counselors can effectively be made use of as in the situation above.

Most children find school unfamiliar and bewildering when students transit from one class to another. During, transition the pupils meet new teachers in their new environment. It is worse for those students who are naturally fearful of both teachers and other learners particularly if there is some bullying, however subtle(FAWE, 2003). The school administration and the individual teachers need to be very sensitive to this reality so as to detect any children who may be experiencing a sense of insecurity and go out of their way to reassure students. They should adopt an attitude of unconditional warmth, acceptance and respect for every child (Corey, 2007). Peer counselors should be brought on board and advised to do the

same.

Schools today experience inadequacy of physical facilities. This situation is so critical in boarding schools. It is common to find students in boarding schools sharing beds due to inadequacy of the same. In the event of such a scenario certainly students will not be assured of their security (FAWE, 2003). The school administration should reassure students by providing adequate accommodation even if it means stretching its finances for it is a matter of urgency.

An increasing number of children are abandoned in schools. Once the children are admitted especially in boarding schools, there is no follow up from home. They are not even visited during open or visiting days. Such students bring damaged self-images and pose a big challenge to schools (Gichaga, et al., 2005). The children should be helped by loving and caring teachers. They can restore the sense of self-worth through regular interaction with teachers as well as peer counselors.

KESSP (2005), reported that self-discipline among the students can contribute a lot to the improvement of a secure school environment and by extension the students' academic performance. Similarly, ASCA (2005) noted that in America, self-discipline is best developed and fruitful in schools where peer counseling services are optimum. According to MOEST(2010) report Kakamega South Sub-county schools provide guidance and counseling with particular emphasis on peer counseling to enhance academic performance and provide a secure environment. However KCSE analysis report MOEST (2010), indicated that on average 20% of the secondary school students who sit for KCSE in Kakamega sub-county manage to attain the minimum university entry grades. Therefore, the study is to establish students' and teachers' perception of the influence of peer counseling on academic performance and school security.

Methodology

The study was carried out in secondary schools of Kakamega South Sub-County in Kakamega County, Kenya. The study focused on the influence of PC on students` academic performance as perceived by teachers and students. Five randomly selected secondary schools were used in the study. Teachers, principals and students were the study subjects. In this study, a descriptive survey design was adopted. This design was vital to this study since it sought to establish the current perception of teachers and students on the influence of PC on students' academic performance and by extension school security in secondary schools of Kakamega south district.

This study was modeled on the fifth stage of Erickson`s theory of psychosocial development. According to this theory, human beings develop their personalities by moving through a series of stages. There are eight stages of development each focusing on a different conflict that needs to be resolved in order to develop successfully into the next stage of one's life. If this is not resolved at each stage the ability to deal with the consecutive stages is impaired and the failure will return to a person at some point later in life. The fifth stage of this theory was applied in this study because it addressed linkage between self-identity and the challenges of role confusion within the age bracket of 11-18 years (it makes the young ones be so insecure), which is also the age bracket of most secondary school students in Kenya. This point at the fact that according to this theory, most secondary school age students who are also adolescents are locked in a struggle for self-identity in a world or environment that is full of confusing roles for one's choice such as, subject choice, career choice among others. Those seeking identity easily turn to their fellow peers in

trying to solve their problem.

The Sub-county had a total of 23 secondary schools with an enrolment of 7160 students, out of which 4662 were boys and 2554 were girls. Of the 23 secondary schools, there was one boys' school, three girls' schools, eleven mixed day and boarding schools and eight mixed day schools. The teacher population was 349 in the district. The accessible population for the study consisted of school principals, teacher counselors and students from five randomly selected schools in the study area. The sample size consisted of 180 students, 30 teacher counselors and 5 school principals. In this study, multistage sampling was applied. Purposive sampling technique was applied so as to choose each of the two administrative divisions which were treated as a cluster in the study. On this basis all secondary schools in each division were classified into one cluster. All the schools in each cluster were purposively divided into smaller clusters comprising boy schools, girl schools and mixed schools to ensure fair representation of all types of secondary schools in the study area. From each smaller cluster, simple random sampling was applied to select one school to be included in the study. This led to the choice of five schools made up of boy schools, girl schools and mixed schools that were included in the study. However, the sub-county only had one boys' school. Therefore, five schools were randomly picked for the study. Among the selected schools, purposive sampling was applied in the allocation of equal chances of students to each school.

In this study, the researcher applied a split-half method of estimating reliability. The data was analyzed to determine the appropriateness of the instruments. The instruments were duly scaled up in line with recommendations of the School of Graduate Studies of MMUST as advised by the supervisors. The Spearman Rank order formula was employed to compute the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient. The coefficient was found to be strongly positive with a correlation coefficient of 0.78 for teachers and 0.70 for students.

Content validity was established by giving the instruments to experts in the Department of Educational Psychology, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. Each supervisor examined the research instruments individually and their comments on the format, content and other related issues were incorporated to enrich the instruments and obtain the relevant data.

After collection, the data collected was sorted, edited, coded, classified and then entered into a computer and analysed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 16 in accordance with the objectives of the study. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics while qualitative data was received in verbatim, transcribed and organized into themes and sub-themes. Descriptive statistics particularly frequency counts and percentages were applied during analysis. The results were organized in a variety of presentation styles which included tables and graph

Results and Discussion

This section established Peer counselors' characteristics that affect academic performance as perceived by teachers and students. The proportion of students and teachers who agreed that each of the characteristics of PC's influences academic performance was treated as an effect indicator score. The different effect indicator scores were then used to analyze and report the findings of this aspect of study.

Table 1: Peer counselors' Characteristics that Influence Academic Performance as Perceived by Teachers and Students

PC'S Characteristics	Effect Indicator Score		
	Students%	Teachers%	Average %
Confidentiality	82.50	92.30	90.90
Respectful	90.20	88.20	89.20
Trustworthy	65.50	82.80	80.70
Honesty	63.10	84.60	73.85
Disciplined	65.50	76.40	71.00
Genuineness	55.20	80.30	67.80
Openness	59.30	70.10	64.70
Cooperative	60.50	66.30	63.40
Good listening skills	54.00	7 0 . 0 0	62.00
Understanding	65.30	64.00	61.50
Empathetic	53.30	57.70	58.90
Tolerance	53.80	62.00	57.90
Humility	49.90	60.00	55.00
Gender	60.50	49.90	51.40

Source: Field data

To facilitate effective assessment of the extent to which the selected characteristics of PCs personnel influence academic performance, the effect indicator scores were classified under four levels namely: very strong effect (greater than 70), moderately strong effect(60-69), weak effect (50-59) and very weak (< 50)

Peer counselors' Characteristics with Very Strong Effect

According to the findings as revealed in Table 1, on average confidentiality is the characteristic that had the strongest effect (90.9%) on students' academic performance. Findings of the study also show that more teachers (92.3%) than students (82.5%) felt that confidentiality as a characteristic of PC had a very strong effect on students' academic performance. This could be due to the fact that effective counseling is only achievable when the counselor has access to confidential facts about the counselee. This is only possible if the counselee confides in the counselor to an extent of sharing confidential information that could be the foundation of the counseling services. It is highly likely that this perception is due to the fact that most of the factors that influence students' academic performance are highly confidential in nature. This is similar to the findings of Visser (2003) study on implementation of peer supporters' activities. Confidentiality was needed to develop a trusting relationship. Respect, is next with a very strong effect on students' academic performance as justified by an average effect indicator score of 89.2%. Influence

of respect as PC's characteristic on students' academic performance is a virtue that secures to be more appreciated by the students (90.2%) than teachers (88.2%). This could be because majority of teachers felt it was the responsibility of students to respect each other as peers and respect them as teachers. This is consistent with a peer helping model of Richard, Miller, and Lee (2004) that focus on developing in students a high degree of self-respect, respect for each other and respect for school environment.

The third PCs characteristic with very strong effect on students' academic performance in Table 1 is trustworthiness with an average effect indicator score of 80.7%. According to the findings, trust as PCs characteristic, is more valued by teachers (82.8 %) than students (65.5%).This could be because the teachers' perception is more skewed to experience while the students' perception could be majorly based on imaginations since, PC is a new concept. This is consistent with Sanai (1998) observation that peer counseling groups are a new major in counseling and include using counselors that choose students among themselves and are educated for this purpose, trusting the peer counselor is of the important characteristics of peer counseling. Next Ps characteristic in rank with a very strong effect on students' academic performance is honesty, with an indicator score of 73.85%. According to findings, honesty as a PCs characteristic is more appreciated by teachers (84.6%) than students (63.1%) Teachers felt PC's need to exercise honesty so as to directly deal with counselee's problems while students score way below teachers due to lack of honesty among themselves. This could be because when peer counselors honestly respond to the issues of the counselee, the latter is helped to find solutions to problems in question, even where confrontation would be eminent.

Peer Counselors 'Characteristics with Moderate Strong Effect

Further assessment on the PCs characteristics with moderately strong effect (as shown in Table 1) indicates that genuineness as PCs characteristic has a moderately strong effect on students' academic performance as justified by an effect indicator score of 67.8%. The findings reveal that teachers value this characteristic (80.3%) more than students (55.2 %). This could be because successful counseling is only achieved when the counselor is genuine both in words and action. This also means the counselee must be willing to share feelings or concerns with the counselor who should in turn genuinely listen and respond appropriately. This situation may be due to the fact that teachers have better understanding of the basic principles of PC, genuineness inclusive. They are aware of the fact that their inner experience and outer expression should match while counseling client. This is consistent with Corey (2007) who observed that counseling will be inhibited if the counselor feels one way about the client but acts in a different way. This can be a source of insecurity especially when students are not match what you say with your action.

Findings in Table 1 further revealed that openness as PCs characteristic has a moderately strong effect on students' academic performance having an effect indicator score of 64.70. According to results, teachers perceive openness as having greater effect (70.1%) when compared to students (59.3%). According to results teachers perceive openness as having greater effect (70.1%) when compared to students (59.3%). This could be because teachers are more experienced in PC and academic affairs than students. They are also aware that openness is a prerequisite of successful counseling. High handedness of administration, insensitivity to students welfare are a recipe to chaos in schools hence openness is a tool in such matters (FAWE,2003).The third PCs characteristic with a moderate effect on academic performance is co-operation between peer counselors and counselees (63.4). This characteristic is more appreciated by teachers (66.3%) than the students (60.5%) as indicated by the difference in the effect indicator scores. It could be

that for counseling program to be truly effective, all stake holders must work together with a common goal which is academic performance. This is close to the findings of Gibson (1990) who observed that counselors have a clear perception of their functions but those perceptions may be very different from that of teachers, as well as administrators and students. For truly effective and comprehensive developmental counseling to take place, cohesion and cooperation amongst everyone in a school system must exist.

According to findings in Table 1, possession of good listening skills is also an essential characteristic of PCs that moderately influences students' academic performance as supported by an effect indicator score of 62.0%. This characteristic is more pronounced among teachers (70.0%) than students (54.0%) as indicated by the difference in the effect indicator score. This could be because teachers have greater (70.0%) understanding of the fact that success of counseling process depends a lot on effective communication process. This means that enhancement of communication through good listening skills can improve PC services and by extension academic performance. This is close to the findings of Ndichu (2006) that PC is a philosophy based on the important principle that people are capable of solving most of their problems if given a chance. It is a process of sharing that enables two peers; the counselor and counselee enter into a relationship that makes possible the clarification of a problem at hand through good listening skills.

Assessment of the findings (as presented in Table 1) also indicates that in counseling, the ability of PC's to understand peers and their needs, problems and aspirations had a moderate influence on students' academic performance with an average effect indicator score of 61.5%. According to findings, students' appreciation of the concept of understanding is greater 65.3% than that of teachers' (64.0%). This is because the counselee's status and environment tend to influence their behavior and perception. This is possibly because the students seem to feel that they are not adequately understood during counseling process while teachers could be assuming that they understand the students thoroughly which may not be the case. This is close to Arudo (2006) who observed that it is easier for student peers to notice problems of students hidden from teachers because of their closeness to their colleagues. This can in turn address security issues affecting self and the school at large if teachers support peer counselors.

Peer Counselors' Characteristics with Weak Effect

According to findings in Table 1, empathy as a characteristic of PCs was perceived to have a weak effect on students' academic performance with an effect indicator score of 58.9%. The findings indicate that teachers have greater appreciation of this characteristic (57.7%) than students (53.3%). This is due to differences in counseling experiences, age and exposure between teachers and students. Teachers do understand it better than students and therefore practice it meaningfully. This is close to Arudo (2006) who pointed out that a good counselor is a person who can show empathy towards other people's problems. Similarly, tolerance as a characteristic of PC's had a weak effect on students' academic performance. This was expressed through an average effect indicator score of 57.9. Further assessment of the findings indicates that more teachers (62.0%) than students (53.8%) view tolerance as a characteristic with a weak effect %). This could be because of differences in maturity and experience between the students and teachers.

Additionally assessment of the findings in Table 1 revealed that humility is also an essential characteristic of PC's though it had minimal influence on students' academic performance. This was indicated by an effect indicator score of 55.0%. The appreciation of humility was more pronounced among teachers (60.0

%) than students (49.9%). This is because humility facilitates understanding of the counselee's opinion and circumstances which are utilized as the foundation for subsequent PC activities). This also could possibly be attributed to difference in experience and maturity levels between students and teachers. Next PC characteristic is gender with 51.4% as an effect indicator score. Findings further indicated that more students (60.5 %) than teachers (49.9%) appreciated this characteristic. This is because students perceived gender as an essential characteristic of peer counselors which was attributed to the aspect of adolescence among students.

Conclusion and Recommendations

With regard to the findings of the study, it was concluded that there are notable differences in the way characteristics of peer counselors affect students' academic performance and by extension, security. Confidentiality, respect, honesty and discipline are perceived as having very strong effect, genuineness, openness, co-operation, good listening skills and understanding have moderately strong effect, while empathy, tolerance, humbleness and gender are perceived as having weak effect. Therefore the findings recommend that during the selection of student peer counselors, school principals and teacher counselors should base on characteristics like confidentiality, respect, honesty and discipline which are perceived as having very strong effect plus genuineness, openness, co-operation, good listening skills and understanding which have moderately strong effect on students' academic performance. This will go a long way in establishing a secure environment for learners.

The study recommended that the school administration and the individual teachers need to be sensitive to the reality that most children find school unfamiliar and bewildering and be ready to address and the teacher counselors should detect any child who may be experiencing a sense of insecurity and reassure them by adopting an air of unconditional warmth, acceptance and respect. This can be facilitated quite well by involving selected peer counselors in providing this environment .It is easier for peer counselors particularly with strong characteristics to identify these learners at their own level than teachers and be able to create a secure environment which has a direct and positive effect on the learners' academic performance.

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STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION AND ITS IMPLICATION ON SECURITY IN PRIMARY TEACHERS TRAINING COLLEGES

Geoffrey Ragor, Peter Odera and Peter Bukhala

Abstract

Attempts to combat insecurity in Kenya in the recent past have not been very successful. A paradigm shift in the way of combating insecurity has been considered opportune. This study investigated students' attitudes towards physical and health education and its implication on security in primary teachers training colleges in Vihiga County. The research population was 675 second year students who are in their final year in Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs). The sample comprised 198 (102 females and 96 males) participants drawn from 5 TTCs. Stratified sampling technique was applied to create two strata of students on the basis of gender; thereafter simple random sampling technique was employed to select 198 students. The findings revealed that male students in TTCs in Vihiga County have a positive attitude towards PHE. However, a big percentage of female students have a negative attitude towards PHE. As a result of the findings, the researcher recommended that there should be a concerted effort to guide female students on the benefits of PHE and that the good grades from passing PHE will allow them to get jobs in the teaching sector. It was also recommended that the students should be impressed upon to realize that PHE as practised in TTCs allows them to manage their leisure time positively through games rather than engaging in activities that endanger peace and good order. Also, PHE in colleges will make them expend their excess energy which would have otherwise been diverted to negative activities such as crime. It was also recommended that it is important for students to develop a positive attitude in PHE if not only for the good health of the individual but for purposes of promoting security in their places of work after completion of their training as teachers.

Key words: Attitude, Physical and Health Education, Primary Teacher Training College Students.

Introduction

Physical education and sport were first recognized as part of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural organization (UNESCO) program-me in 1952 at its 7th session of the General Assembly in Paris. Later in the 1978, UNESCO charter for Physical Education in Paris, national agencies were called upon to promote and foster physical education. The charter specifically pointed out that the practice of physical education and sport are powerful vehicles and entry point for social integration, cohesion and conflict resolution.

Subsequently, in its noble quest of designating international years in order to draw global attention to issues affecting mankind and encouraging peace, international cooperation and action to address issues of global importance, the United Nations (UN) on November 5 2004, formally launched 2005 as the year of Sports an d Physical Education. The UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan referred to sports and physical education as the 'universal language' and went further to state that at its best, it can bring people together no matter what their origin, background, religious beliefs or economic status.

This international year of sports and physical education extended beyond the playing fields, recognizing

the contributions made by institutions in promoting participation and performance in physical education and sports (Allman, 2005). Research has also indicated that regular physical education, when included in the curricula of institutions such as schools' and colleges, produces physical, psychological, intellectual and security benefits. Physical education may help prevent degenerative diseases, promote a sense of social effectiveness, contribute to academic performance and maintain emotional balance through reduction of anxiety, depression, tension, and stress, and it can increase vigor and promote clear thinking (Taras, 2005). Therefore, physical education must not be considered as a co-curricular addition, rather, it must be supported as an integral part of a comprehensive education component that mitigates against psycho-social factors that cause insecurity, that is, tension, anxiety, stress, depression and frustration.

Studies have also shown that the process of exercise brings about both short- term and long-term psychological enhancement and mental well-being. Besides, physical activity has been found to have a positive effect on self-esteem changes in adults while people who swim have been observed to be significantly less tense, fatigued, angry and confused after swimming (Trost, 2007). Furthermore, weight training with free weights is associated with enhanced self-concept in men while high school athletic activity is correlated with bone mineral density in the hips among girls (Tremarche, Robinson, & Graham, 2007), which may represent the best, if not last, line of defense in case of an attack of any kind.

In Kenya Physical, Education has over the years undergone gradual transformation from being an extra-curricular to co-curricular subject and presently it is one among the curricular subjects in syllabi for schools and colleges. This positive development has been borne out of the realization that physical education does not only have health and physical benefits but, as recognized by the UN International Charter on Physical Education and Sport, it is a powerful vehicle and entry point for social integration, cohesion and conflict resolution (Allman, 2005). It is pertinent to also point out that attempts to combat insecurity in Kenya by use of politics, the Kenya Defense Forces, intelligence reports, police beats and community policing, have failed to bear fruit thus leading to sporadic but fatal attacks against innocent citizens countrywide. Therefore, a paradigm shift in the way of combating insecurity is considered opportune. This should commence in educational institutions since herein lies a massive population that can easily be radicalized if instances of tension, anxiety, stress, depression and frustration are not readily addressed.

One of the institutions tasked with promoting participation and performance in physical education and sports in Kenya is the Primary Teacher Training College (PTTC). PTTCs are tertiary institutions (public and private) offering a two-year long certificate course for one to qualify to teach in a primary school in Kenya. In these PTTCs, physical education and sports are offered as Physical and Health Education (PHE) and prior to 2006, it was offered as an optional subject. However, from 2006, PHE became a compulsory subject and a statutory requirement for passing Primary Teacher Education (PTE) examinations. All Physical and Health Education periods focus on physical, mental, social and security skills and fitness obtained optimally through class instruction, physical activities and evaluation. Examinations are administered internally across all the three college terms in the first year of study and two terms in year two before culminating into a national examination (PTE) at the end of the third term in year two.

The attitudes students develop towards PHE may be responsible not only for specific performance in examinations in the subject but also how the students manage instances of tension, stress, anxiety, depression and frustration. Attitude as an affective construct has been defined as the basis for both "intellectual preparedness" and motivation in learning (Bassey, Umoren & Udida, 2004). A person who shows a certain attitude towards something is reacting to his or her conception of that thing rather than to

its actual state. Therefore, attitudes are formed by people as a result of some kinds of learning experience. If the experience is favourable a positive attitude is found and vice versa. Further, the attitude people hold can frequently influence the way they act in person and larger situation. Research confirms that when students exhibit a positive attitude toward physical education, less security problems are likely to be experienced (Strong, Maline, Blimkie, Daniels, Dishman, Gutin & Hergenroeder, 2010). The findings of the study also showed that students perform better in school when they are emotionally and physically healthy. They miss fewer classes, exhibit reduced behavior and discipline problems and therefore less likely to engage in risky or antisocial behavior.

Students' attitude has also been investigated by focusing on their level of class attendance. To this end, Clay & Breslow (2011) surveyed students' attitude towards attendance of classes and recommendations for ensuring high attendance rates. The study found out that students' attitudes toward lectures vary widely from "I never miss them" to "They're worthless". Many students reported that they try to attend lectures but miss them from time to time as a result of academic, extracurricular or personal conflicts. Furthermore, while investigating differences on attitude toward physical activities of college students in relation to their gender and caste in India, Tyagi & Kumar (2013) observed that majority of boys respondents had more favourable attitude towards physical activities in comparison to girls respondents. Another study conducted by Seifert (2004) was carried out to investigate student's attitude by means of probing how meaningful physical education is to their future. The study revealed that students will demonstrate an unfavourable attitude when they do not find studies meaningful to their future and the opposite is true when they find studies meaningful to their future careers.

In Kenya, the influence of attitude has been addressed by Bulinda (2002) who carried out a study on motivational factors and reported very high interest of pupils in sports basically because of the desire to learn the sport skill. Furthermore, a study by Gitonga, Andanje, Wanderi & Bailasha, (2013) was conducted to find out attitudes of teacher-trainees towards Physical Education. Findings revealed a positive attitude and associated this with two major factors: first, this was as a result of intensive PE teaching by specialists. Secondly, the teacher-trainees developed a positive attitude towards the subject due to the fact that it is an examinable subject.

Statement of the Problem

Although Physical Education is an integral part of the curriculum in schools and colleges in Kenya, it does not receive the attention it deserves especially in terms of students' attitude. The workload involved in academic subjects has resulted in class teachers shifting their main focus to that of completing and laying emphasis on the classroom-based and academic based syllabi. This situation has created an unconducive environment, for a specialized and practical entity like physical education to take place. As a result, Physical and Health Education has become marginalized and at times, ignored by students. In certain instances the subject matter is deemed as being time consuming and irrelevant for the teacher trainee who will not teach it once he or she graduates as a primary school teacher since it is not examinable in the final analysis. Subsequently, a discipline which would have been used to robustly mitigate against psychosocial factors that cause insecurity, that is, tension, anxiety, stress, depression and frustration has been ignored. Therefore, the study intended to establish students' attitudes towards Physical and Health Education and its implication in Security in Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Vihiga county Kenya.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to find out students' attitudes towards Physical and Health Education (PHE) and it's implication on security in Primary Teacher Training Colleges.

Specific Objectives

The objectives of this study were to determine attitude towards Physical and Health Education and, establish differences in attitude towards Physical and Health Education based on gender among students in primary teacher training colleges in Vihiga County, Kenya.

Research Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. Descriptive survey research design is concerned with specific predictions, with narration of facts and characteristics concerning an individual, group or situation (Kothari, 2004). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), descriptive research determines and reports the way things are. It attempts to describe such things as behaviour, attitudes, perceptions, values, and characteristics. Apart from just describing, surveys are used for explaining or exploring the existing status of two or more variables, at a given point in time. In the current study the researchers chose this research design because the study involved fact finding through use of questionnaires to examine and describe a population through selecting samples and analyzing their characteristics, views, attitudes, and beliefs.

The study took place in Vihiga County in Kenya. Vihiga County borders Kakamega County to the north, Nandi County to the east, Kisumu County to the south and Siaya County to west. The equator line runs across the southern part of the county. The county covers a total of 563 km2 with the following four administrative sub-counties: Emuhaya, Sabatia, Hamisi and Vihiga (Vihiga County Strategic Plan, 2010-2015). Hamisi sub-county is host to two primary teacher training colleges, Kaimosi and Goibei, while St. Aquinas and St. Joseph colleges are located in Sabatia sub-county. Vihiga College is found in Vihiga sub-county.

The area has a total of 568 pre-primary schools, 348 primary schools, 84 secondary schools 1 public and 4 private primary teacher training colleges (Vihiga County Strategic Plan, 2010-2015). Dropout rates for primary are 62% for females and 38% for males, 45% and 35% in secondary schools and 1% and 2% in colleges respectively. The teacher pupil ratio is 1:45 in primary schools and 1:35 in secondary schools and 1: 30 in colleges. The population of students enrolling for colleges has been on the increase. For example, in 2010, 102 students from this region joined teacher training colleges nationally. In 2011, the number shot to 148, 152 in 2012, 155 in 2013 and 176 in 2014 (Vihiga County Statistics Office, 2014).

Vihiga county was selected because besides four other counties (Embu, Kisii, Bungoma and Nairobi), it has the highest number of Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in the country. These are Kaimosi, Goibei, Vihiga, St. Aquinas and St. Josephs. Furthermore, with a total population of 675 registered students in their second year of study, Vihiga county has one of the highest enrolment in the country (Vihiga County Director of Education Office, 2014).

The Primary Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya constituted the population of this study. There are 75

PTTCs comprising 21 public and 54 private colleges spread over 31 counties. The research focused on students who are in their final year of learning in five colleges. The researchers picked the second year students only because their attitudes towards the subject had been well developed given that they were in their final year of study. The study population therefore comprised of 675 students from 5 colleges.

In this study, stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques were used. Stratified sampling is a technique applied in order to obtain a representative sample if the population from which the sample to be drawn does not constitute a homogenous group (Kothari, 2004). Using this technique, the population was classified in two strata on the basis of their gender. Therefore, out of a population of 675 students, a total of 348 females and 327 males were selected. This technique ensured that each gender was given an equal chance of representation in the study. Thereafter, each stratum was subjected to simple random sampling technique. Simple random sampling is a technique which involves giving a number to every subject or member of the accessible population, placing the numbers in a container, and then picking any number at random. The subjects corresponding to the numbers picked are included in the sample (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Thus, using simple random sampling, out of a total of 675 students 198 were selected. A total of 175 students were picked from Kaimosi TTC (83 males and 89 females), 12 students from St. Josephs TTC (5 males and 7 females), 6 students from St. Aquinas TTC (3 males and 3 females), and 5 students from Vihiga TTC (2 males and 3 females). This gave a representation of 30% of the population which, according to Kerlinger (2004), is admissible. This method was appropriate for this research because it was important to give every student an equal chance to participate in the study. The danger of being biased was eliminated by this technique. This is because every respondent was given equal chance for inclusion in the sample size. Table 1 presents a summary of the colleges in as far as their population, selected sample and percentages are concerned.

Table 1: Sampling Matrix

College	Nature of college	Population	Sample size	%
Kaimosi	Public	600	175	29
St. Josephs	Private	40	12	30
St. Aquinas	Private	20	6	30
Vihiga	Private	15	5	30
Total		**75**	**198**	**30**

Data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire was closed ended and the type of information to be collected was on biographical data and attitudes. A questionnaire was suitable instrument for the researcher to use in this study because of the large number of respondents involved. Using the five point Likert scale, numerical scores were assigned to five response options given to each item on the scale. The researcher made use of experts from the department of Educational Psychology at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology in establishment of instrument validity. Further, the instrument was ascertained during pilot study. The ambiguous statements were removed or replaced. In testing reliability of the instrument the Spearman Rank Order correlation coefficient (r) was use and a correlation of 0.82 was obtained.

Data collected was sorted, edited, coded, classified, and tabulated for analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data gathered to obtain the descriptive statistics for further interpretation and discussion. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to establish

significant differences in the students' attitude based on gender. As concerns ethical considerations, consent was sought from all prospective respondents and thereafter, they signed consent as a show of their readiness to participate in the study. The researcher then confirmed to them that their names, identities and information given will not be disclosed. Hence they were assured of confidentiality and their right to remain anonymous respected. Besides, the respondents were also informed that they had a right to withdraw from the study without any penalty being meted out against them. Finally, the researcher assured the respondents that the research was purely for academic purposes.

Results and Discussions

Table 2 shows the distribution of the respondents according to gender and age.

Table 2: Distribution of the respondents according to gender and age.

Variable		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	96	48.5
	Female	102	51.5
Age (yrs)	18-22	94	47.5
	23-27	83	41.9
	28-32	11	5.6
	Above 30	10	5.0
Total		**198**	**100**

Table 2 shows that a total of 96 (48.5%) males and 102 (51.5%) females responded to the questionnaire. A large proportion of the respondents were in the 18-22 (47.5%) and 23-27 (41.5%) age brackets. This distribution of students who were engaged in the study according to their gender was quite representative since the total number of females in PTTCs in the county is relatively more than that of males. With regards to students' age, 47.5% of the students engaged in the study were aged between 18 and 22. Another 41.9% were aged between 23 and 27 while 5.6 were aged between 28 and 32. Only 5.0% were aged above 10. Majority of the students engaged in the study, therefore, were between 18 and 22 which is the usual range for PTTCs students since most of them join the colleges immediately after completing their form four schooling, that is, when approximately most of them are about 17 years of age.

In order to establish students' attitude, an item sought information on students' interest. The distribution of the responses is indicated in Table 3.

Table 3: PHE is an interesting subject

Response	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	11	5.6
Disagree	21	10.6
Undecided	2	1.0
Agree	76	38.4
Strongly agree	88	44.4
Total	**198**	**100**

The results in Table 3 indicate that 44.4% students "strongly agreed" and another 38.4% "agreed". This gives a total of 82.8% of students who were of the view that PHE was an interesting subject. 10.6%

students disagreed that PHE was interesting while 5.6% strongly disagreed thus giving a total of 16.2% students whose response to the question showed that they had no interest in PHE. Only 2(1%) students were undecided. This majority response agreeing with the question strongly suggested that majority of students had interest in PHE. Thus this is inferred to mean that many students (82.8%) exhibit a positive attitude towards PHE. This is consistent with results of a study conducted by Bulinda (2002) which reported very high interest of pupils in sports and physical education basically because of the desire to learn the skill. This showed that students' attitudes were accepting and tolerant towards sports and physical education which therefore was a good indication for national security since this meant that the students would be less insecure, tense, stressed, depressed and frustrated.

Attitude was also investigated by means of probing how meaningful PHE is to the future of respondents as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Respondents views on whether PHE will assist them in their future careers as teachers

Response	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	15	7.6
Disagree	17	8.6
Undecided	3	1.5
Agree	57	28.8
Strongly agree	106	53.3
Total	**198**	**100**

Table 4 shows that when asked the question whether PHE will assist them in their future career as teachers, 53.5% of the students strongly agreed while 28.8% agreed that PHE will indeed assist them as teachers. 8.6% of the students in their responses disagreed and 7.6% strongly disagreed. Only 1.5% of them were undecided. This clearly showed that many students believed PHE will be important for them in the future as teachers. This is an expression of a positive attitude since students are motivated with what adds value to their future careers. This expression of attitude therefore may influence the achievement of good grades and the acquisition of jobs as teachers thereof. Thus this will pre-occupy them in nation building and not in activities that may endanger peace and good order. These results are consistent with those of a study carried out by Seifert (2004) which revealed that motivation levels are generally low when students do not find studies meaningful to their future and the opposite is true when students find studies meaningful to their future careers. Respondents were also asked whether their attitude towards PHE was influenced by their gender.

The results are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5: Respondents' views on whether their attitude towards PHE was due to their gender

Response	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	31	15.7
Disagree	71	35.9
Undecided	8	4.0
Agree	32	16.1
Strongly agree	56	28.3
Total	**198**	**100**

Results in Table 5 indicate that 56 (28.3%) of the respondents strongly agreed with the assertion that their gender influenced their attitude towards PHE. 32 (16.1%) of the respondents agreed while 71 (35.9%) respondents disagreed. 31 (15.7%) strongly disagreed and only 8(4.0%) of respondents were undecided. This shows that many students do not regard gender as a factor in determining their interest in PHE. However, it is worth noting that out of the 88 respondents who consented that gender influenced their interest, 74 were female respondents and only 14 were male. Furthermore, of the 8 respondents who were undecided, 7 were females. Thus, this may be construed to mean that due to their gender, a majority of the female students are less interested in PHE in comparison to their male counterparts. This response means that most female students have a negative attitude toward PHE. Therefore, the implications of this finding was that female students would gain less from the security benefits of PHE which includes mitigation against psychosocial factors causing insecurity like tension, anxiety, stress, depression and frustration. This finding is not different from previous studies carried out in India by Tyagi and Kumar (2007) which indicated that boys respondents had a more favourable attitude toward Physical Education in comparison to girls respondents. Further, the one way ANOVA done to confirm the significant difference in attitude toward PHE based on gender showed the between groups (male students and females students) means differed significantly (p < 0.0005). This means that students' gender was critical in students' attitude towards PHE.

The ANOVA tested the effect of students' gender on students' attitude towards PHE. The aim was to confirm if there was difference between male students and female students in terms of their attitude which was unlikely due to chance. The result of ANOVA looked at the F-value which is the ration of effect variance (between group variance) to the error variance (within group variance). Therefore the differences between the male students and the female students were the variations of interest.

Statistically the more random variation in a sample, the more difficult it is to predict any patterns. If any chance patterns exist, it could be due to chance. This means the larger the difference between groups (male students and female students), the easier it is to find a pattern or the difference despite random variation. This means the larger the F-value, the better for you to find a significant effect, a consistent pattern that is unlikely due to chance, hence higher F-value indicates significant difference between groups (male students and female students), see Table 6.

Table 6: ANOVA for students' attitude based on gender

Sum of Squares	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Between groups	24565.346	1	24565.346	278.419	.000
Within groups	17293.361	197	88.231		
Total	41858.707	198			

Table 6 indicates that between group ANOVA was F (1, 197) = 278.419, P= 0.000 and therefore the one way ANOVA shows the between groups (male students and females students) means differs significantly (p < 0.0005). Since the Sums Squared (SS) between groups differed significantly (24565.346), this meant that students' gender was critical in students' attitude towards PHE, which led to wide variability. On the other hand, there was less variation when it comes to within group differences (17293.361) as both male and female students scored relatively close to each other within their groups. The degrees of freedom (df) showed that 197 values interacted freely and 1 was restricted in the findings.

The results of Table 6 therefore depict a picture of students of the female gender who are likely to

experience emotional instability thus may become insecure, tense, anxious, stressed, depressed and frustrated. This unfortunate scenario is not good for the security of the college in particular and the country in general. In the recent past, educated women in Kenya have been arrested while on transit to a neighbouring country to become either wives of the Al-shabaab militants or be recruited as become actual agents of insecurity.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study revealed that a majority of the male students had a positive attitude towards PHE. Almost all male respondents provided grounds to conclude that they had positive attitude towards PHE. A large percentage (75.5%) of the female students however, were found to exhibit negative attitude towards PHE. This view was given more weight by the fact that the ANOVA done to confirm the significant differences in attitude towards PHE based on gender, showed that the between groups (male students and females students) means differs significantly. Thus, this meant that students' gender was critical in students' attitude towards PHE, which led to the variability.

Therefore, it was clear that; male students by and large exhibited a highly positive attitude whereas a big percentage of female students had a negative attitude towards PHE. The implication of this state of affairs therefore was that male students were relatively well equipped to mitigate against psycho-social factors that cause insecurity, that is, tension, anxiety, stress, depression and frustration. Furthermore, the male students were bound to be less fatigued, angry and confused due to the fact that they had better ways of expending their excess energy and positively managing their leisure time through physical education and sports. As a result, it was recommended that PTTCs be advised to sustain the positive attitude exhibited by the male students through promoting intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This could be attained by means of providing a variety of play materials and promoting sporting excursions.

The study also recommends that there should be a concerted effort to guide female students on the benefits of PHE on security. Female students should be taught to understand that a positive attitude toward PHE will influence good grades and ultimately jobs as teachers. This will preoccupy them in nation building unlike in cases where once a student fails to attain her goal, desperation, stress and frustration are bound to set in. Thus these act as breeding grounds for elements of insecurity. The students should also be impressed upon to realize that PHE allows them to manage their leisure time positively through games rather than one engaging in activities that endanger peace and good order. Moreover, PHE will make them to expend their excess energy which would have otherwise been diverted to negative activities such as crime. Furthermore, through the many rules and regulations in PHE and sports activities, students get to respect law and order in the country not to mention the fact that PHE contributes to peace and security by promoting national and international collaboration through competitive games and sports. Thus it is important for the students to develop a positive attitude in PHE if not only for the good health of the individual but for purposes of enhancing security in the country. Similarly, PHE tutors in the county should undergo regular in-service training to keep them up to date with any new strategies, skills and trends of PHE motivation and delivery and the relationship between PHE and security. Relevant sectors of the government concerned with funding should also appropriate more funds for equipping colleges in the county with adequate resources for learning PHE in order to promote security both within the colleges as well as at the national level.

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KENYANS' WAR AGAINST ILLITERACY: ARE SECURITY ISSUES IMPEDING FACTORS?

Tundo Knight, Achoka, J.S.K, Wamocha Lydia and Okinyi Mark

ABSTRACT

Insecurity cases in learning institutions are a growing concern in Kenya. The security fears include insecurity that children suffer from as they go to school, maybe through the use of unsafe routes; insecurity at school; and the insecurity they suffer from in their homes. This study sought to determine insecurity challenges facing Kenyan schools and their impact on students' education. The study used documentary evidence collected from written literature such as books, these is, UNESCO reports on security, published journals and dissertations and local Newspapers. Information gathered was critically examined and the findings and recommendations established. The study established that the Kenyan government encounters insecurity challenges in its effort to alleviate illiteracy among Kenyans through schooling. The challenges include: attacks on learning institutions by violent groups such as Al- shabaab. Other causes include tribal clashes and cattle rustling where school boys are used to defend their tribes against enemies resulting to high rates of absenteeism in schools and killings of young people. The recommendations were: the government to beef up security in learning institutions through deployment of police officers. It is recommended too that the school administrators sensitize parents and students on the importance of living in harmony with others. The government should implement stiff rules on those who disrupt peace. The schools need to implement in full the "Safety Standard Manual for Schools in Kenya" guidelines recommended by the Ministry of Education.

Keywords: Conflict, Illiteracy, Insecurity

Introduction

A study conducted in USA in 1978 came up with shocking statistics regarding insecurity in secondary schools. This report indicated that approximately 282,000 learners and 5,200 educators were physically assaulted in American Secondary schools every month (Eliot, Hamburg & Williams, 1998). Since then, there has been a growing concern of this problem worldwide. A comparative study of member states in the European Union found out that the rate of insecurity in schools had risen sharply in the past two decades by as much as 50-100% (Hughes, 2004). The situation is not different in Kenya. Kenya has witnessed brutal confrontation and massive assault from terrorist groups which is blood-thirsty and destructive, both in terms of demonic brutality, mindless savagery and flagrant disobedience to the principles of peace and stability. Security is always the key for a country to survive and focus on its economy, the Kenyan insecurity started during the time of bomb blast that was in the year 1998, Mungiki killings, post-election violence, cattle rustling and the current killings of Al-shaabab. Insecurity is a big challenge to the government and entire society. For human beings, security is the most precious thing because it gives one a peace of mind, when the insecurity cases increase people live discomfort life and in fear. The rate of insecurity in Kenya has increased, most people are not yet answered as in what is causing all these killings and why. The Kenyan police always try their best to keep peace but it fails when the citizens are not cooperating. Unfortunately, oftentimes when a nation feels that it is under siege, especially on matters of security, it is normally seen as "acceptable" to suspend fundamental freedoms and rights such as right to education which is cruel especially to young generation in Kenya.

Impact of insecurity on education in Kenyan learning institutions

The outcomes of insecurity are varied and have widespread ramifications on the economic, physical and psychosocial dimensions. A vicious cycle was noted, where one factor leads to the other but the net effect is leaving the individuals, schools and the society in a worse-off state. Kenya has witnessed insurgency from this terrorist group called Al-shaabab. They unleash terror and fear in the minds of every Kenyan. There is wanton destruction of government properties, bombing of churches, schools and other public places, assassination of prominent individuals, burning of schools occasioned by sporadic shooting of innocent citizens. Insecurity related cases in schools ranges from that ignited by political, ethnic, military and religious divisions and life-threatening physical violence such as shootings and gang warfare to sexual abuse and low-level harassment and intimidation occurring on an everyday basis in schools. None of this issue has yet been eliminated from schools around the world and, in some areas and with specific populations, it is considered to be escalating. Different forms of violence produce a layered effect in specific communities and nations.

School-related insecurity cases affect teachers and students as recipients, perpetrators and witnesses. School administrators, parents and educational support professionals may also be involved. Insecurity in schools has wide-ranging effects on teaching and learning, school management, school culture and environment, and especially on individual students, teachers and other school staff.

Students and teachers are bullied, threatened and even murdered, and emotional and psychological effects of such violence can have lasting consequences. While destruction of property is an obvious economic effect of violence in schools all effects can also be reported in monetary terms. Insecurity is one of the current problem facing education in Kenya. Ethnic clashes witnessed in 2007-2008 post-election violence and Tana River in 2012 greatly affect educational activities. Students and teachers in some parts of the country such as North Eastern Kenyan that are prone to insecurity are always worried of their safety. The Right to Education is guaranteed under Article 43 (f) of the constitution. Due to the prevailing insecurity in the country, this right is severely compromised. In extreme circumstances as was the case Tana-River, Turkana, Baringo and Mandera, a number of teachers lost their lives due to insecurity. Similarly, a number of school-going children were denied their right to education because the environment was too volatile and risky for them to go back to school or because their schools had been destroyed or damaged as a result of violence.

The Commission received the following brief on the impact of insecurity on health and education in Baringo County: Local residents have undergone through traumatic experiences especially during raids. Some families were not able to bury their deceased relatives as they fled for their lives. Children have been exposed to violence including gun shots. The victims of these attacks are in need of urgent psycho-social support to assist them manage the trauma.

 As a result of the insecurity and violent attacks, some schools in Baringo County such as Ng'elecha and Kaptilomwo Early Childhood Development Centers were reported to have been vandalized and learning disrupted thus making learners not to access education. Noskoru, Rugus, Ng'elecha and Mukutani Primary Schools have reported an estimated 8.6% decrease in school enrolment within the last 3 years. Some young boys of school going age drop out of school to help the community on security by arming themselves with bows and arrows to fight the attackers.

During a fact-finding mission sent out in 2012 following an inter-ethnic conflict in the Tana-River, it was found out that the violence and subsequent displacement happened when schools were about to reopen for the final term of the school calendar where candidates at primary and secondary schools were expected to be sitting for the Kenya Certificate for Primary Education and Kenya Certificate for Secondary Education national examinations. There were fears that over 187 standard KCPE candidates would miss school and might not be able to sit for their final examinations. (Commission of Inquiry into the Post Election Violence Report. 2008)

Numerous educational facilities were damaged or vandalized during the 2012 violence in Tana River, while others such as Kilelengwani Primary School and Semikaro Primary school were converted into temporary operation bases for general service unit (GSU) officers. Nine primary schools with a student population of 2705 and one secondary school with about 120 students were affected. More than 1,000 teachers have refused to go back to the region since January, citing insecurity that followed the massacre of teachers in late 2014 and the last month's murder of 142 students of Garissa University College. (Kenya Daily Nation 4th May, 2015)

In the Daily Nation published on 26th May, 2015, Education Cabinet Secretary Jacob Kaimenyi reported that more than 95 public schools had been closed countrywide because of insecurity, out of these, 23 are secondary schools. Baringo, West Pokot and Turkana counties have been hit by cattle rustling conflicts that have left scores dead and several schools closed. More than 200 students of Garissa Teachers Training College demanded to be given transfers following the killing of 148 students and workers at Garissa University College in April, 2015.Kenya National Union of Teachers (Knut) Secretary-General Wilson Sossion gave warning to the government saying that "Teachers will not work in areas affected by insecurity such as the northeastern region. The government must address the issue of insecurity as a matter of urgency, (Daily Nation, 4th May, 2015)

Hassan Noor Hassan, the then Rift Valley Provincial Commissioner, said school age youngsters have been involved in recent clashes between communities in parts of Samburu, Laikipia and Marsabit Districts.

> *"The high number of school age children not attending classes and [school] dropouts must be addressed to stop this trend and keep them away from the conflicts,"*

The Government assessment established that 71,000 children were out of school in Turkana District, 25,000 in Samburu District and another 3,800 in Laikipia District. Kenya's fragile democracy and government system is threatened by factionalism and rising insecurity. To ensure Kenya's involvement in the war on insecurity, it is indeed high time that all the concerned parties sat together to put their brains together; be sensitive to its domestic needs, recognizing that fledgling democracies can be more difficult to engage than their authoritarian predecessors

The State pledged to provide security to everyone, and indeed it is its responsibility to the public. Not only in this case but fostering peace and international security in the modern world was envisaged when Kenya became a signatory to the United Nations Charter. The Kriegler Commission and the Philip Ransley Task Force of experts have studied the issues involved and made recommendations to the government of Kenya and to various security agencies/organs. Innumerable individual studies have been made and various schemes have been tried in the search for a political system which would safeguard the rights

and security of all sections of the population. But still, Kenya is not nearer the solution of her insecurity menace if nothing is done than it was in the darker days, when Kenya wrenched its independence from the hands of the colonialists. Second, since most of the weapons in Kenya are still in the hands of "the un-authorized", there is need to do a thorough disarmament. There is dire need to intercept small arms and light weapons that are going round the country. In the view of insecurity and radicalization of young people into Al-shaabab the government has called upon the schools to take records of students with chronic absenteeism and those who drop out of learning institutions. (Daily Nation, 11th June 2015)

Consistent efforts have been made to address issues of access, equity, quality and relevance of education. At the national level, commissions of education have periodically been set up to review educational provision. While the government has made positive attempts to maintain safety in schools, the most unfortunate truth is that government policies on security and safety remain largely public relations documents. The effects of insecurity on the State seems to be enormous not only on parents, the school and the society but on school pupils and college students. The right to education and protection remains a big dream to quite a number of pupils and students who are patiently waiting to realize the dream in their lives. Some people have lost their lives and others have been declared refugees in their own country because of rampant insecurity cases. It is against this background that the study was to evaluate the extent to which insecurity issues have affected education in Kenyan learning institutions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

There has been an increase in the incidence, gravity and intensity of insecurity since 2010, including persistent terror attacks, inter-community conflicts and violence targeting law enforcement officers, students in learning institutions and the civilian population. Provision of essential services in the education sector has been disrupted in a number of counties including Baringo, Turkana, Wajir, Mandera, Garissa and Isiolo following cases of persistent insecurity, with the deaths of teachers, students and parents reported in some of these areas. This led to the worrying calls made by the teacher's representatives for the withdrawal of their staff from the worst insecurity prone regions in the country. As a result more than 1000 teachers withdrew their services in North Eastern paralyzing education in the area.

The reforms anticipated in the security sector, particularly in the National Police Service, are either proceeding at a very slow pace or have altogether stalled. Security forces have not been equipped with the necessary tools, knowledge, skills and attitudes to enable them discharge their security functions effectively. The following recommendations can help reduce insecurity issues in learning institutions in Kenya:

i.   Security issues in the country should be a concern by everybody everywhere at any time. It should not be left in the hands security officers and the ruling government.

ii.   Sensitization of the school administration, local community leaders and the church leaders through national conferences, chief barazas, church conferences and workshops on security issues.

iii.   Security forces in Kenya including school security guards should be thoroughly trained and be well equipped with modern weapons that can counter terrorists.

iv.   Teaching of life skills and peace education should be emphasized in all learning institutions because it will help students and pupils to know how handle emergency in school.

v.   The school administration should implement in full the "Safety Standard Manual for Schools in Kenya" guidelines recommended by the Ministry of Education.

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PART II:
SECURITY, THE SOCIOCULTURAL CONTEXT AND SOCIETY
YOUTH RADICALIZATION IN AFRICA: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF RADICALIZED GROUPS

Judah Ndiku, Pamella Buhere & Christopher Omusula

Abstract

A lot of efforts are being exerted by world's governments and other stakeholders to achieve higher rates of accessibility to education. Militia groups the world over have recruited and radicalized the potential school-going children into their militant outfits to either fight in battlefields, or use them as spies or suicide bombers denying them opportunities of accessing education that would have been very valuable in their development. These groups abduct, torture and kill victims, cause untold sufferings of their captives. In Africa, Boko Haramu in Nigeria opposes modern formal education and hinders the youth from accessing benefits associated with formal education they kidnap students from schools, women from market places, rape and force them into marriages. Mungiki in Kenya has caused school enrolment in Central Kenya to drop. The groups, in their teachings, associate formal education with neo-colonialism or western imperialism. Al-Shabab enforces its own harsh interpretation of sharia law, prohibiting various types of entertainment, such as movies and music, the sale of khat, smoking, the shaving of beards, and many other "un-Islamic" activities. This paper examines historical and Philosophical backgrounds of some of the militia groups in Africa such as Al-Shabab in Somalia, Boko Haram in Nigeria and Mungiki in Kenya. Highlighting modes of recruitment, radicalization and how school aged youths are utilized by militia groups. The paper argues that use of strategies such as military force in Nigeria on Boko Haram has failed to bear any fruits. It suggests that skewed distribution of national educational funds could be an impetus to forces of radicalization of youth. Therefore, this paper suggests strategies that can be used to counter the recruitment and radicalization of youths in an effort to improve Educational Access and Equity in Africa.

Key Words: Educational, Militia Groups, Radicalization, Recruitment, School-aged Youth

Introduction

Throughout history, school-aged youth have participated in a variety of organizations that promote or carry out acts of violence (Demhardt, 1990).Youths have helped to fill the ranks of militant groups. Young persons' roles within these organizations have varied, from providing logistical support, serving as "lookouts" or "mules," raising funds, taking part in battles, or carrying out attacks (Draper, Spierenburg , 2004). The process by which youth become involved in these groups also varies, with some being born into radical environments that promote violence, some being "spotted" and directly recruited by groups, some self-selecting into the group, and others being forced into membership (Demhardt, 1990). Currently the identified militia groups that are involved in youth radicalization are the Hamas, Hizballah, Jemaah Islamiyah and Al-Qaeda and its affiliated groups. These groups are primarily active in Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iraq and the United Kingdom. They are also spread over Turkey, Iraq, Iran, Nepal, Thailand, Palestine, Lebanon, Colombia, Somalia, Philippines, Japan, Sri Lanka, Peru, Bosnia, Africa, &

Western Europe. (Gaomas, 2006). However, this paper discusses Youth Radicalization in Africa.

In Kenya both boys and girls have the right to education in order to allow them to develop their potential and capabilities (GOK, 2012). The Ministry of Education is the institution responsible for guaranteeing access to free basic education (primary and secondary education), including vocational training for all adolescents. Children are supposed to get educated irrespective of their differences in personal or social circumstances such as religion, gender, ethnic origin or family background, there should be no obstacles to achieving educational potential and that all individuals reach at least a basic minimum level of skills through inclusion policy. (Hammelburg, 2006). Hammelburg asserts that the effect of militia groups totally curtail development of educational potential of the young generations to come. Their interference with the school system through creation of insecurity and anxiety in their areas of operations have diverted youth from pursuing education agenda. In effect, their activities pose a big threat to realization of universal access to education by the young generations of today. (Hanks, 2001).

Theoretical Framework

This article utilizes Framing Theory by Dalgaard Nelson, (1940) which is one of the Social Mobilization Theories. Framing Theory focuses on how movements and social groups construct, produce, and disseminate meanings. This is a recursive process in which the movement's idea attempts to frame messages in ways that best resonates with the interests, attitudes, and beliefs of its potential members. Then, as people accept the movement's idea, they increasingly come to identify themselves with the movement. The theory postulates that firstly, movements diagnose problems and attribute them to a failing society. Secondly, they attempt to offer solutions, strategies, and tactics (prognostic framing) and provide motivational frames to convince potential participants to become diehard members of the movement. This Theory can be useful in understanding radicalization process as emanating from the weak societal fabric that hold the norms and practices within the society in question. This theory helps to understand an in depth processes of radicalization movements in Africa. (Alkande, et al., 2005).

Children's Have a Right to Access Education

Children's right to access education in areas occupied by militant groups has severely declined. According to UNICEF Report, (2010), Somalia has one of the lowest rates of school enrollment in the world, with a net primary enrolment of 21% and transitional school enrollment rate of around 23% in 2010. Disparity between levels of enrollment between girls and boys even at the lower levels of primary school is alarming: according to the latest available data, the gross primary enrollment ratio is only 23%. Enrollment in secondary schools is minimal, gross secondary enrollment is only 11% for boys and 5% for girls in 2014. School dropout rates reportedly reached 50% following the Ramadan offensive in 2010 and 38% in the first four months of 2011(Hentz, 2004).

The recruitment and use of children by Al-shabaab is a common practice phenomenon.Children have been used throughout the conflict by clan and warlord militias for the defense of the home and the clan. However, the level of recruitment and radicalization of children by Al-shabab has substantially increased since early 2007 when recruitment became more widespread. Militia in Somalia al-shabaab,Hizbul Islam, and Ahlu Sunna Wal Jama'a who have recruited or used children for military service. Girls and boys have both been targeted, with girls taken primarily for domestic duties and boys taken to be trained

for combat or other work on the front lines. In former Kenya frontier districts (Wajir and Mandera), the ever-present reality of forced recruitment and abduction has caused children to leave school, often fleeing the counties with their families. Children are afforded multiple special protections under the international human rights and humanitarian law framework. International humanitarian law prohibits any recruitment of children under the age of 15 or their participation in hostilities by national armed forces and non-state armed groups. (International Humanitarian Law, 2005). However, Al-shabaab forces took children to their training camps throughout 2010 and 2014. Most of the children were reportedly between ages 15 and 18 but some were as young as 10 years old. From the camps they were sent to the front lines in war fields. It is against this background that the researcher sought to study the Effects of Youth Radicalization on Accessibility in Education with a view of suggesting other strategies that can be used to counter the recruitment and radicalization of young persons with ultimate goal of improving their access to education, (Held, Mcgrew, Goldblatt & Perraton, 1999).

Contexts and Tactics Used In Recruitment of Youths into Radical Militias

This study attempts to examine how some militant groups are recruiting, radicalizing, and utilizing school-aged youth. It is necessary to get a more comprehensive understanding of youth radicalization and to share this knowledge with community members who come in contact with young persons on a regular basis, including educators, parents, and religious leaders. Educating these individuals will enable them to better address the needs of young persons and to identify and prevent potential problems. Given the apparent increase of youth involvement in militant organizations, and the changing demographics of those involved or implicated, it is necessary to promote greater awareness that young persons are susceptible to militia groups' recruitment and radicalization. (Held, Mcgrew, Goldblatt & Perraton, 1999). Any young person with access to an Internet connection can view websites that promote militant groups or provide graphic depictions of acts of terrorism that are commonly portrayed as acts of heroism.

Historical and Philosophical Backgrounds of Radicalizing Militias

Al-shabab and Boko Haram Militia Groups ideology is premised on an extreme Islamic teaching that rejects most Western ideas and institutions as un-Islamic while Mungiki Militia Group favor a return to indigenous African traditions. They reject westernization and all things that they believe to be trappings of colonialism, including Christianity. The ideology of the group is characterized by revolutionary rhetoric, Kikuyu traditions, and a disdain for Kenyan modernization which is seen as immoral corruption. Mungiki is often referred to as Kenya's Mafia due to its organization. They have been newsworthy for associations with ethnic violence and anti-government resistance. (Nyong'o, 1990).

Al-shaabab, or "The Youth," is an al-Qaida-linked militant group and U.S: - designated Foreign Militant Organization fighting for the creation of a fundamentalist Islamic state in Somalia. The group, also known as Harakat al-shabaab al-Mujahideen, and its Islamist affiliates once held sway over Mogadishu and major portions of the Somali countryside, but a sustained African Union military campaign in recent years has weakened the group considerably. Still, security analysts warn that the group remains the principal threat in a politically volatile, war-torn state. (Hentz, 2004).

Somalia, one of the most impoverished countries in the world, has seen a number of radical Islamist groups come and go in its decades-long political tumult. According to Hanks, (2001), analysts cite Al-shabaab as a precursor, and the incubator for many of its leaders, like Al-Ittihad Al-Islami (aka Unity of Islam), a militant Salafi extremist group that peaked in the 1990s after the fall of the Siad Barre military regime (1969-1991) and the outbreak of civil war. (Alkande, et al., 2005),

AIAI, which sought to establish an Islamist emirate in Somalia, sprang from a band of Middle Eastern-educated Somali extremists and was partly funded and armed by al-Qaida chief Osama bin Laden. Many of its fighters, including current Al-shabaab commanders, fled the country and fought in Afghanistan in the late 1990s after being pushed out by the Ethiopian army and its Somali supporters. The group was designated a militant organization by the U.S. State Department in the days after the September 11, 2001 attacks.

In areas it controls, Al-shabaab enforces its own harsh interpretation of Sharia Law, prohibiting various types of entertainment, such as movies and music, the sale of Khat (a narcotic plant often chewed), smoking, the shaving of beards, and many other "un-Islamic" activities. Stoning and amputations have been meted out as punishment on adulterers and thieves. According to international rights groups, al-Shabaab often kidnaps young boys from school and forces them to fight and die in battle. (Gaomas, 2006).

The group also violently persecutes non-Muslims, including Christians, and is a major threat to humanitarian and other international workers, according to the U.S. State Department. Several beheadings of so-called apostates have been recorded. Al-shabaab also is known to have desecrated the graves of those from other religious groups, including moderate Islamic clerics.

Boko Haram's official name is Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awati wal-Jihad, which in Arabic means "People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad". Loosely translated from the region's Hausa language, this means "Western education is forbidden". The group was founded in 2002.. Boko originally meant fake but came to signify Western education, while haram means forbidden. It initially focused on opposing Western education, but later launched military operations in 2009 to create Islamic state. It was designated as a militant group by US in 2013.

Boko Haram promotes a version of Islam which makes it "haram", or forbidden, for Muslims to take part in any political or social activity associated with Western society, (Nyong'o, 1990). This includes voting in elections, wearing shirts and trousers or receiving a secular education. Boko Haram regards the Nigerian state as being run by non-believers, even when the country had a Muslim president - and it has extended its military campaign by targeting neighboring states. It has attacked many schools in northern Nigeria. The group launched its insurgency in 2009 with targets being both civilians and the military. It was founded by Mohammed Yusuf who was killed in police custody in 2009 and since then there has been resistance among some of the area's Muslims to Western education. They still refuse to send their children to government-run "Western schools", a problem compounded by the ruling elite who see education as a priority. Against this background, the charismatic cleric Mohammed Yusuf formed Boko Haram in Maiduguri in 2002. He set up a religious complex, which included a mosque and an Islamic school. Many poor Muslim families from across Nigeria, as well as neighboring countries, enrolled their children at the school. Boko Haram was not interested in education. Its goal was to create schools as recruiting grounds for jihadis, (Draper, et al., 2004).

In 2009, Boko Haram carried out a spate of attacks on police stations and other government buildings in Maiduguri, capital of Borno state. This led to shoot-outs on Maiduguri's streets. Hundreds of Boko Haram supporters were killed and thousands of residents fled the city, (Clapham, 2001). Nigeria's security forces eventually seized the group's headquarters, capturing its fighters and killing its leader, Yusuf. His body was shown on state television and the security forces declared Boko Haram finished. But its fighters regrouped under a new leader, Abubakar Shekau, stepped up their insurgency. Their trademark is the use of gunmen on motorbikes, killing police, politicians and anyone who criticize them, including clerics from other Muslim traditions and Christian preachers. The group targets Churches, Schools, Markets, Bus Parks, Bars, Military Barracks and even the police and UN headquarters in the capital, Abuja.

The group's fighters launch mass attacks on villages and towns, looting, killing, abducting women and children from schools and conscripting men and boys into their army. In February 2012, Boko Haram members burned down three schools in the town of Maiduguri in north-eastern Nigeria. The group claimed that the attack was provoked by indiscriminate student arrests in Islamic schools by state forces (IRIN, 2013). In April 2014, they abducted more than 200 schoolgirls from Chibok town in Borno state, saying it would treat them as slaves and marry them off - a reference to an ancient Islamic belief that women captured in conflict are considered war booty.

In this instance, schools become sites of retaliation against government actions perceived as repressive by non-state actors. The fact that some militant groups expressly kill innocent pupils is telling of how school and educational sites are political instruments in the eyes of some armed groups (IRIN, 4 October 2013). A report by Amnesty documents that between 2010 and 2011, attacks carried out against schools were mostly conducted when they were unoccupied (Amnesty International, 3rd October, 2013). The consequences of attacks would have been beyond imaginations if they would have found students in those schools. Schools are seen as instruments of the state and are often used as political leverage to achieve political goals through disruption, and intentional killing of innocent teachers and pupils. Violations against schools and students are most prevalent in Nigeria, Kenya, Sudan, Zimbabwe and Somalia

Boko Haram and Al-shabaab are the most active actors in school-directed violence. Boko Haram have been involved in 33% conflict events involving schools since 1997. They destroy school property, signifying the symbolic nature of their insurgency and their opposition to Western forms of education, UNESCO reported a "substantial negative impact on educational attainment during periods of conflict" in Somalia, with a decline in the average years of formal schooling achieved. (UNESCO, 2010) Protracted violence from within and outside of schools, as well as varying tactics employed by Boko Haram has created problematic societal issues in Nigeria's education in terms of access and . The threat Boko Haram poses will disappear only if the Nigerian government manages to reduce the region's chronic poverty and builds an education system which gains the support of local Muslims, (Draper et al., 2004).

The presence and activities of militant groups may be an important factor in the ability and willingness of the youth to fully participate and therefore, gain from formal education. Such groups may hinder the youth from acknowledging that education has been identified as among the main factors in socio-economic success (Datta, 1984). Though the government and other stakeholders may take appropriate steps to ensure that the youth get access to basic education, other forces may hinder the realization of this goal. The learner must be intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to desire to participate in formal education in order to gain from it. If obstacles and distracters are erected on the path of the learner, then

the desire to access and participate in education will get diminished. (Ghai, 2003).

Mungiki Militia is largely based in the former central province of Kenya. The name Mungiki means "A united people" or "multitude" in the in Kikuyu language. The religion, which apparently originated in the late 1980s, is secretive and bears some similarity to a mystery religion whose doctrines are unclear. Threats of violence and fundamentalist activism by Mungiki are bad for education, (Ghai, 2003). Recruitment of the youth into such sects that do not rate Western Education is even worse. This is because all these become obstacles and detractors to the youth's ability to access education. According to Sifuna et al., (2006), conflict theorists rightly contend that any upheavals in the society will negatively affect education. The Mungiki, with roots in former Central Province, Rift Valley and Nairobi among other areas, is a fierce opponent of what it calls western education. The Sect maintains that the Kikuyu should abandon Christianity and western education and revert to Kikuyu traditional beliefs and practices (Wamue, 2001). The Sect's ideologies and activities therefore hinder the youth from accessing the benefits of modern education. it is estimated that at the height of its influence, the group could claim as many as 500,000 potential school going youths who received substantial sums of money from politicians, (Sifuna et al., 2006).

How Youth are Recruited, Radicalized, Utilized by International and Local Militia Groups

The militant groups are all found to be actively recruiting and utilizing youth. The ages of the young persons varies depending on the group, across all groups there were examples of school-aged young persons (kindergarten through college, or approximately between the ages of five and twenty-two) that were involved in a range of support and operational activities.

There appear to be variations both within the groups, as well as between the different groups overseas. The young persons who have been recruited or radicalized span a range of ages and developmental stages, include both males and females, have varying skill sets and education levels, and appear to have grown up in a variety of environments. It appears that some of the groups utilize a vetting process to help identify new recruits. In some cases, the group might be looking for more educated, skilled, or committed young persons to fill a particular role in the organization (like future leaders or operational planners), while in other cases the groups appear to be interested in simply filling the ranks, (Gaomas, 2006).Vetting has occurred through the use of "gateway organizations," which have included groups similar to the Boy Scouts or through other youth organizations, such as those affiliated with universities or religious institutions.

In some cases these gateway organizations are sponsored by the militant groups to "grow" future members, while in other circumstances the groups may use the organization(s) as a venue for "spotting" potential recruits. The Internet has also been used to vet potential members by testing language capabilities, specific ideological knowledge, and fervor. As mentioned above, there appear to be variations within the groups over time with respect to who is recruited. As the group's goals and situational context change, or as they are affected by retention issues and losses of members due to incarceration or death, the types of recruits they are willing to bring on may change. In some situations where groups have enjoyed broad support from the community, they have been able to be more selective about recruits. However, when support bases have lessened and/or the need for personnel has increased, it appears to have an effect on

the types of persons that are recruited (i.e., the group might decide to reach out to even younger persons or persons who have less knowledge of or dedication to the group's underlying ideology.)

Individuals that appear to play a key role in recruiting youth include (but are not limited to) religious figures and teachers, as well as family members and peers. In most cases, these individuals are members or supporters of militia groups and have access to the youth, such as in schools, religious institutions, or social situations.

In regions where the militant groups have broad community endorsement, family members (who may also belong to the group) have been known to influence or encourage their son/daughter, sibling, niece/nephew, or grandchild to support the group. Likewise, friends and close social networks that are important and influential in the lives of young persons have also been a part of the radicalization or recruitment process. Teachers at the elementary, (madras), secondary and university levels have recruited or attempted to recruit students to join or support various militant groups. It is unclear whether these individuals go into the profession for the purpose of being in a position to radicalize youth, or if they take advantage of their role as a mentor to encourage recruitment or radicalization. Young persons are not always recruited by others. In some instances, youth appear to become acquainted with the group or radicalized of their own volition. The Internet has been used by some youths to familiarize themselves with radical ideology, or to identify other like-minded persons (to include recruiters) that can provide additional information and access.

Recruiting Grounds for Radicalization

Recruitment takes place across a wide range of venues. Common settings used by the groups schools and after school activities, religious institutions or events, refugee camps, and the Internet, (Godwin, 2001). For Boko Haram and Al-shabaab, the education system like schools, religious institutions are used in some form or another to recruit or radicalize young students. Militant organizations run education system, to include infiltration in teacher and student unions, and exert total control over curricula. In other locations, groups established or taken over individual mosques to teach radical ideology and provide training. In some rural areas, these groups provided the only educational institution available to young persons. In all cases, the ability of the militant groups to gain access to schools appears to be due to weak governmental control of security over the education institutions, (Duffy, 2005).

The Internet offers thousands of sites, which provide radical propaganda distributed by militant groups, to reach potential supporters or recruits. All of the groups have Internet websites, although the extent to which they are online varies greatly, (Dierks, 2000). A trend that is noted across many of the groups is that they do not limit recruitment to local venues, but also recruit globally through some of the locations described above. There is evidence of coordination outreach to young persons in the groups' Diaspora communities. This occurs through the Internet as well as in person, with group members utilizing mosques and social activities in other locations to find sympathetic youth that could enable expansion of the group's reach.

Method of Recruitment for Radicalization

Four broad categories were identified to describe the way in which young persons were recruited or became members of the groups studied. These approaches – *"born into a radical environment,"* forced into it, recruited or persuaded, and self-radicalization – are not inclusive of all the ways in which young persons are recruited, and are likely to occur in various combinations. To clarify, saying that some young persons are *"born into a radical environment"* is not to say they are *"born a militant."* For some of the groups and regions studied, there is a culture of violence that is reinforced by the community, and many within the community are members or supporters of the group. In situations where the group serves as the pseudo- government, providing social services and other support mechanisms, it appears the local community views membership or martyrdom on behalf of the group to be an honor, even if it means young lives are lost. (Graig, 2001). There are also some regions that have been faced with instability for years and, as a result, the only life young persons have ever known is one defined by violence and conflict. In these situations, it appears youth could be more inclined – or have no choice – to support the violent tactics used by the group. In some cases, young persons have been forced into joining or supporting militant groups. Young persons have been kidnapped from locations such as schools and refugee camps. Additionally, some youth have been forced to participate against their will or unknowingly.

As described throughout this study, there are persons within all of the groups studied who have made concerted efforts to recruit or persuade youth to join or support the group's cause. Recruitment occurs in a variety of locations and utilizes a range of approaches and tactics. In some cases, recruiters will place themselves within large groups of young persons (e.g., at mosques or schools), where they will attempt to "spot" potential recruits to pull into smaller settings for additional indoctrination of training. Groups have also established or used gateway organizations (e.g., scouting groups) that provide access to young persons who support (or can be grown to support) the group's cause. The Internet has also enabled some youth to become self-radicalized. This forum provides access to a wealth of materials and propaganda put out by militant groups or their supporters. These websites also enable young persons to communicate anonymously with like-minded individuals and can facilitate introductions to persons with whom the youth otherwise would not have likely come in contact. For all of the groups studied, another important factor in how they recruit is the communication of tailored messages and targeting of specific grievances aimed at encouraging youth to support the cause. All of the groups took actions as a recruitment tool to manipulate young persons' personal and political grievances and/or to exploit feelings of social or cultural repression.

Purpose of Recruitment for Radicalization

While it is difficult to say exactly what youth are recruited to do, there are examples from each of the groups studied that show how young persons have been utilized. The roles include both operational and support activities, in addition to helping to keep the organization alive. Specifically, school-aged youth have been used to carry out militant attacks or serve on the front line in battles against the opposing forces. It appears that the groups use youth to support operations because they are more likely to evade detection by security forces. In some instances, it also seems that young persons are perpetrating attacks for the groups because there are not enough willing adults. Young persons were also found to fulfill a range of logistical support needs for the groups. These activities include: conducting surveillance, assisting in fundraising, or helping to move materials or weapons. Ultimately, it would appear that youth

are recruited by militant groups in an attempt to keep the organization alive. To that end, young persons are utilized to keep the group's message going, (Fall, 2003). This occurs online (which may also be self-initiated) and through youth participation in videos and other forms of propaganda. In the course of this research, several videos were identified that portray young person straining for militant activities, espousing radical ideology, and advocating youth involvement and support for the groups studied, all of which could be used as tools designed to encourage participation of other youngsters.

Radicalization Benefits and Consequences

The benefits and consequences of recruitment can be broken into two categories: those that benefit the terrorist group, and, those that benefit the young person, (Duffy, 2001). For the groups studied, the primary benefit of recruiting youth is that it enables them to fill their ranks, which is crucial to their continued existence. Duffy argues that the use of young persons help some groups evade detection by security forces, something that would enable them to carry out attacks. It does not appear that there are significant negative consequences to groups that have utilized young persons to further their goals. For the young person, the group offers to meet needs – personal, welfare, and social – that might not already be met by their social or familial networks (Alkande, et al., 2005),. In many of the regions studied, parts of the youth population are living in poverty, lack shelter and food, and have limited access to education. The terrorist groups have used these situations to their advantage by offering young persons what they are lacking (or by offering a "way out" through martyrdom), (Fall, 2003). Not all youth who have been susceptible to recruitment and radicalization necessarily come from poverty-stricken areas or conflict zones or are uneducated. Membership in terrorist groups can also help to provide a sense of community, family, or friendships that some young persons, rich or poor, might lack. (Clapham, 2001). Membership in groups also appeared to provide youth with a sense of identity, prestige or pride, acceptance, responsibility, outlets for frustration, and excitement –all factors that could just as easily lead youth to other types of violent or non-violent groups or networks, (Held, Det al, 1999).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Counter-recruitment/radicalization initiatives should be locally tailored locally by engaging community members and other stakeholders to address specific underlying factors and identify potential radicalization indicators. These initiatives must evolve with the youths through a revised curriculum that can be adopted along with the dynamic technology that can address changes within environments as the youths are highly vulnerable in the C21st. For this reason, the study recommends that:-

i.   A National Monitoring and Regulating Body to regulate preaching and religious teachings should be created to control religious activities in the country.

ii.   Update Curricula that inculcate skills for employment creation and peace education that has capacity to mitigate radicalization propaganda.

iii.   Economy be expanded to create more job opportunities in rural areas, tackle historical injustices that could be leading young persons to extremism; develop rehabilitation centers and programs for young persons who have been implicated in extremist activities. in addition, design programs that can provide destitute children/ street urchins with skills and attitudes to effectively participate in building Kenyan society.

iv.   More resources in peace promotion and reorientation programs be put in place to emphasize on coexistence themes through Radio, Television and Film programs in the Official, National and Native Languages designed to specifically counter the narratives and messages promoting youth radicalization.

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THE EMERGENCE OF A WOMAN'S IMAGE FOLLOWING KENYA'S 2007/2008 POST ELECTION VIOLENCE: A CASE OF KAKAMEGA COUNTY

Mukabi Narotso Benardatte, Were Edmond & Achoka Judith

Abstract

In most African societies women are discriminated against in terms of participation in decision making. This situation becomes worse in times of conflict where women are sidelined in conflict management and yet they are the main victims. They are physically and sexually abused, and end up in refugee camps with their children. The 2007/2008 Post-Election Violence (PEV) marked one of the worst periods in Kenya's history characterized by widespread killings and destruction of property in many parts of the country including Kakamega County. The overall objective of this study was to evaluate emerging women's image in conflict management following the 2007/2008 post-election violence in Kakamega County. The study was conducted in three Sub-Counties of Kakamega County, thus Kakamega Central, Lugari and Mumias West which were intensely affected by the PEV. Questionnaires, interviews, and observation methods were used to collect primary data while secondary data was obtained through analysis of documents and reports from relevant offices, library and internet. The respondents were 384 household heads. Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used. The data collected was analyzed using descriptive and inferential approaches and the results obtained were presented using tables, figures, chi-square and thematic narrative technique. The study revealed that women had a well-designed work-plan for conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV and did this through various strategies among them peace talks, peace matches, counselling, and civic education. However, for women to succeed in conflict management they need to receive support from the government through community policing, local administration, shared projects and the judicial system. The study recommended the implementation of the proposed national strategies for conflict management by the government. Peace building, including the proposed draft policy should be enhanced to enable stakeholders involvement and create a platform for coordination of peace building efforts to enhance effectiveness between and among the national and local peace building blocks.

Key Words: 2007/2008 Post-Election Violence, Conflict, Conflict Management, Women's image.

Introduction

Throughout the world, accounts of war tend to portray men as the conflict resolvers and women as passive innocent victims. In severe violent situations, women are more disadvantaged compared to men. Women tend to be the most vulnerable victims of rape, sexual harassment and torture among others (Boulding, 1988). Women develop a different image from what is normally the assumption, for example in Europe and North America they contributed towards prevention of the outbreak of the First World War (ibid). In Somalia, women employed desperate measures to ensure lasting peace (Mohamed, 2003), by forming a human chain, lining themselves up between the warring parties, and refusing to leave until the two groups backed down.

In Kenya, women have mobilized resources and facilitated reconciliation among warring communities in Wajir and the North Rift region (Odongo, 2004). According to the UN (2012), Professor Wangari Maathai

was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize because of using environmental conservation as a prerequisite to a sustainable and peaceful world. Korir (2009) indicates that Tegla Leroupe, a renowned athlete formed a peace foundation and on many occasions used sports in fostering peace especially in the Rift Valley region of Kenya. Kenya's nominated Senator Naisula Lesuuda championed peace campaigns in Laikipia in 2010 during ethnic conflict between the Samburu and the Pokots (UN 2012).

In 2007/2008, Kenya experienced post-election violence following the disputed presidential election results. The former President Mwai Kibaki of Party of the National Unity (PNU) was declared winner. The declaration prompted Raila Odinga of the Orange Democratic Party (ODM), and his followers who were dissatisfied with the results to claim that the election had been rigged. As a result, supporters of each party turned against the other in most parts of Kenya leaving about 1500 people dead and 250,000 displaced.

Kakamega County was one of the regions that experienced post-election violence. According to the Waki Report (2008), in Kakamega County 31 people were reported dead in Kakamega Central Sub-County, 18 in Lugari, 12 in Mumias West and many were reported injured. Businesses were destroyed and quite a number of people were internally displaced ending up in camps and in police station compounds. According to Maja (2009), there were also Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) flocking back from other parts of the country where violence was taking place. As a result, various stakeholders came up with ways of peace building and the composition included women. According to KNHRC (2008), NGOs like Peace Unit Progamme which targets the youth in Higher Learning Institutions and Women Peace Link which deals with women in peace building among others have strived for sustainable peace in these regions. The overall objective of this study was to evaluate emerging women's image in conflict management following the 2007/2008 post-election violence in Kakamega County. The study aimed at coming up with intervention strategies of improving women participation in conflict management. The research question for this study was; what iwas the mage presented by women in Kakamega County, Kenya following the 2007/2008 Post Election Violence? Apart from contributing to existing knowledge on the role of women in conflict management, this research would be of benefit to policy makers, security managers, academicians, communities in Kakamega County, and Kenya at large.

Methodology

The focus of the study was restricted to the emerging women's image in severe violence following Kenya's 2007/2008 post-election violence. This study was specifically on image women because women as child bearers seek conditions that enable society to be peaceful for the sake of their children (Odongo, 2004). Women are good peace negotiators from family level as mothers and wives but during violence they suffer most as they become the most vulnerable victims of various forms of violence, from domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment, to sexual torture and other types of sexual violence.

Both male and female household heads were respondents for the study. This was because both had knowledge on the emerging women's image in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV. The study focused on the period following the 2007/2008 PEV. The study was confined to the three Sub-Counties of Kakamega County, Kenya which were extensively affected by the 2007/2008 PEV. These areas were: Kakamega Central, Mumias West and Lugari. The three formed a good representation for the whole

County.

In this study, exploratory and descriptive survey research designs were adopted to evaluate the to the emergence women's image in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County. The design was appropriate for this study because it is diagnostic (Kothari, 2010). It was an efficient method of collecting original data from a wide range of respondents. The study was undertaken in Kakamega County which covers an area of 1,385 km² and the 2009 population and housing census. It is evident from the documented literature that educational research in Kakamega County especially on women and conflict management is scanty compared to other counties like Eldoret, Bungoma, Nakuru, and Molo. Kakamega County is among the counties in Kenya that witnessed high intensity of the post-election violence in 2007/2008, just like other counties in the Kenya namely Naivasha, Nakuru, Uashin Gishu, Nandi, and Kisumu. Due to the variation in the intensity of post-election violence, the study was carried out in three Sub-Counties. A total of 384 household heads was utilized as the sample size. Out of the 384 household respondents 60% were female while 40% were male distributed thus: 230 female (Kakamega Central, 76; Mumias West, 78; Lugari, 76) and 154 male (Kakamega Central, 51; Mumias West, 52; Lugari 51).

The study used a questionnaire as a tool of data collection for the 384 household heads respondents. This category was knowledgeable on the subject under research and hence gave objective, reliable and useful information. The questions in the questionnaire were both structured and semi - structured, to guide the researcher and where there was need recording was done. The researcher also used secondary data but ensured that it was reliable, suitable and adequate else (Kothari, 2010).

Table 1: Summary of Sampling Strategies and Data collection Instruments

Study population Unit	Sampling method	Sample size	Data collection Instrument
Household heads	Purposive/Simple random	384	Questionnaire

Source: Field Data

To enhance validity, researchers conducted a pilot study in which pretesting of tools was done on a few respondents in a non-targeted region for the research which also experienced the 2007/2008 post-election violence. The instruments were presented in three locations of Busia County in Western Province and these were Marachi East, Bukhayo West and Teso East. The instruments were then modified accordingly.

Using test/retest method, the researcher administered questionnaires and interview schedules to the pilot respondents to fill and then they were collected. After two weeks the same respondents were given the same questionnaire again to fill. The pilot study was done in Busia County a non-targeted region for the study. The questionnaires and interview schedules were treated and scored independently. They were then correlated and taken as estimates of reliability. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to compute correlation. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics thus means, frequencies, averages, variability and percentages and the results were then presented through tables, , figures, graphs, chi-square and thematic narrative technique . The qualitative data collected through the use of in-depth interview were coded, thematized and discussed as a report. The quantitative data

collected through the survey questionnaire were coded, analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS is a comprehensive, integrated collection of computer programme for managing, analyzing and displaying data (Orodho, 2003).

The findings of the questionnaire were presented using descriptive statistical tools such as frequency, tables and graphs. Thereafter, data that had been collected from the various tools were put together and analyzed by the researcher. The researcher used the analyzed data to draw conclusions and make the relevant recommendations. Inferential statistics; Chi square test was used as it being a non-parametric tests explained relationship between variables. The researchers observed ethical guidelines as ethical considerations are critical for any research. According to Biber (2005) and Mollet (2011) with regard to ethical issues in social research, consent from respondents was sought before collecting data. The respondents were assured of confidentiality of the information solicited from them and protection of their identity.

It is important to note that the household respondents for the study were both male and female since both had knowledge on emerging women's image in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV. It was economical to sample the three Sub-Counties for the study as they formed a good representation for the whole County. The study area (Kakamega County) was also of special interest because of its cosmopolitan nature with people from varied ethnic groups and with respondents who were knowledgeable on the emerging women's image of women in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County.

Results and Discussion

During the 2007/2008 PEV, women suffered immensely as follows;

They were widowed, lost relatives, parents, friends', neighbors, property, and image. Their children left schooling, there were no health facilitation, were internally displaced, inconvenienced and traumatized. Women adopted various conflict management strategies to ensure peace as illustrated in Table 2. They found themselves in vulnerable situations and had to fend for surviving members of their families hence initiated measures for peaceful co-existence.

Table 2: Strategies used by Women in Conflict Management

Strategy	Frequency & %	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Peace dialogue	F	5	5	80	294	384
	%	1.3	1.3	20.8	77.5	100.0
Peace marches/Tournaments	F	5	5	84	290	384
	%	1.3	1.3	21.9	75.5	100.0
Shared collaborative projects	F	1	9	94	280	384
	%	0.26	2.3	24.4	72.9	100.0
Open Forums	F	2	8	93	281	384
	%	0.52	2.08	24.2	73.4	100.0
Negotiation / reconciliation	F	2	11	90	280	384
	%	0.52	2.86	23.4	72.9	100.0

Source: Field Data

Peace Matches and Tournaments

The findings of this study as illustrated in Table 2. Indicates that 290 (75.5%) of household heads respondent pointed out that peace matches was a strategy that was used in conflict management in the region. UN (2012) indicates that the United Nations invites all nations annually to honor cessation of hostilities and commemorate the international day of peace through education and public awareness on issues related to peace. In quest for sustainable peace, the Universal Peace Federation and its ambassadors world-wide celebrate international day of peace annually, the women's role in conflict management is highlighted as they are encouraged to promote a culture of peace through sports, music, drama, peace walks and marches. Following the UN practice, the women peace builders in Kakamega County organized peace marches and other events to remind people that they should cultivate a culture of peace. This is still done on international day of peace through organizations like Peace Unit Program and Women Peace Link. During these activities women invited members of the conflicting communities to sports, games and music competitions and this eased existing tension between them.

Collaborative joint projects/shared project

The results in Table 2. also indicate that 280 (72.9%) household heads respondents highlighted that joint or shared projects are a key strategy women used in conflict management in the region as illustrated in Table 2. Korir (2009) indicates that it is helpful for groups to initiate collaborative joint projects, events or activities. These are aimed at solving common problems faced by both communities and build experience of working together for common goals. The initial shared projects or activities should be short term and fairly simple such as management of local efforts or sports day.

Open forums

Findings from the study as seen in Table 2 indicate that 281 (73.4%) of household heads respondents identified open forums as a strategy that women used in conflict management. Open forums initiated by women involved members of the local community, local leaders and the female peace builders. Discussions, music, drama and sports were the activities used to pass on messages of peace. These activities caused them to interact and appreciate each other's cultures hence open forums were social cultural in nature. Owen (2003) supports the use of open forums as a strategy of conflict management. He indicates that peace initiatives can be made simple by just providing venues or "open spaces to open minds to peace". This, he explains, creates the open forums where community members, peace educators and peace builders, all come together to dialogue, network and plan through drama, dance and music.

Negotiation and Reconciliation

Table 2 indicates that 280 (72.9%) of the household heads respondents identified negotiation and reconciliation as a strategy used by women in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV. Pruit & Carnevale (1993) explain that when there are incompatible goals, a state of social conflict exists. As a result, according to them, negotiation is a way of dealing with social conflict as well as a root to win solutions. They indicated that the concept of negotiation addresses some of the largest problems faced by human kind and also presides over much of the changes that occur in the human society. Lerche (2000) concurs with the findings of the study that reconciliation plays a key role in conflict management. He notes that, the success of conflict management depends in part, on assisting antagonistic communities to put their past of violence behind them through negotiation and reconciliation.

Person - Person Contact

Person-person contact also emerged as a method that was used by women in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in the county. Household heads respondents, 138 (76.7%) of them as it emerged from Table.2 indicated that women used this method as a strategy for conflict management in the region. In his study Mohamed (2003) indicated that, in Kenya women in the Rift-valley province during and after the1992 land clashes played a major role in conflict resolution. They used the following methods in conflict management; negotiation, solidarity visits, organizing exchange programmes, peace exhibitions, sports, and merry-go-rounds. Korir (2009) indicates that person to person contact is one to one meetings with individuals from either side of the warring groups. They then undergo a personal transformation for peace through one to one discussions with each individual about possible alternatives of restoring of peace to warring communities.

Income Generating Activities

The research findings showed that income generating activities were used by women in conflict management after 2007PEV, with 203 (52.8%) of the household respondents indicating its use as shown in table 2. The research finding is in agreement with Research Consortium of Kenya (RCK 2013), that income generating activities contribute towards restoration of peace in a region where there is conflict. RCK indicates that lack of livelihood opportunities played a major role in escalation of 2007 PEV especially by those who were idle and jobless. They argue therefore that it is important to address the socio-economic concerns of post conflict populations to ensure that they have vested interest to sustain

peace and stability. One motivation for this is to empower them economically and RCK indicates that activities such as tree planting and knitting are good examples. The researchers are of the opinion that those without jobs should be encouraged to take advantage of the existing structures such as their local community funds to improve capacity for finding livelihoods.

Support given to Women in Conflict Management

For women to succeed in their peace agenda, they required great support from other stakeholders who formed entry points to the warring communities. Hence, the study sought to evaluate the emerging image of women in conflict management following the 2007/2008 Post-Election Violence. Women also looked for ways and means of getting support from the government and this was done through local leadership, government ministries and departments see Figure 1.
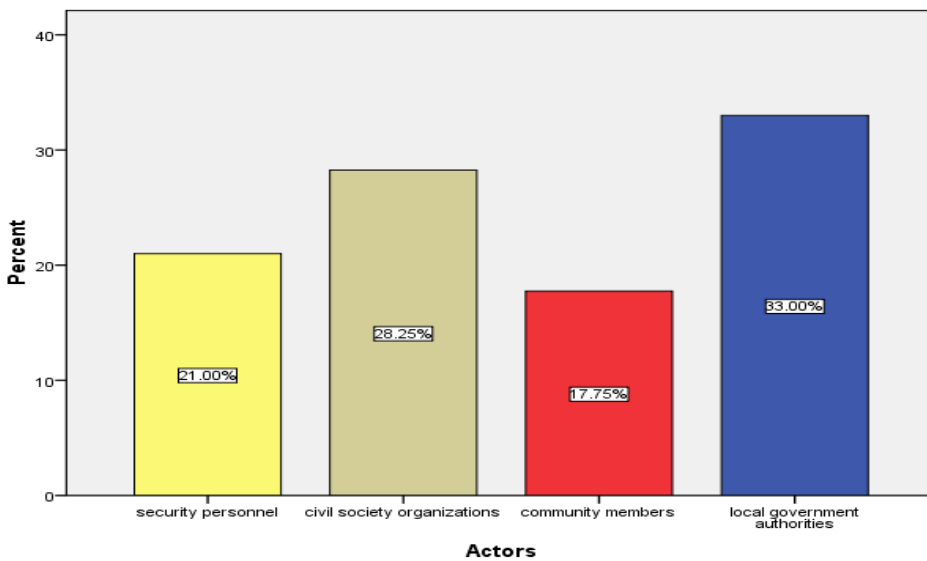

Figure 1: Responses on Entry points by women and Protagonists

Source: Field Data

From the results indicated in Figure 1 and the Chi Square test conducted on the responses indicated that

there were highly significant (P<0.01) variations in the response $\chi^2_{4,0.05} = 80.43)\chi^2_{4,0.05} = 80.43)$

($\chi^2_{4,0.6} = 80.43$). Based on Figure 1, the results from 384 house hold heads respondents indicated that the entry points by women and protagonists in conflict management in Kakamega County were through the security personnel 21% (81), Civil Society Organizations 28% (106), community members 17.75% (67), and local government authorities 33.00% (130). Findings from the Household heads respondents indicated the local peace committees to be the main entry point of women and protagonists in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County. From the findings, it is evident that the Government was the major protagonist in women's role in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County.

The State/Government as Protagonist

From the respondents' feedback, 33% of house hold heads indicated that the state through the local government institutions played a major role as protagonist in conflict management by women within the county following the 2007/2008 PEV. Local leadership as well as local government ministries and departments facilitated various peace strategies identified to contribute to conflict management within the county. Use of the local government institutions as highlighted from the study indicates a shift from macro-level conflict transformation to micro-level conflict transformation. The findings are in disagreement with a study by Mwamba (2010) who observes that states' focus is on the top leadership and macro-level while ignoring the majority of the population and micro-level conflict transformation and relationships.

Approaches used by the State/Government in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County, Kenya.

The household respondents were asked to indicate the integrated post conflict strategies used by the government institutions in conflict management within the county. The results are given in Table 3.below. A Chi Square test conducted on the responses indicated that there were highly significant (P<0.01) variations in the response ($\chi^2_{1,0.6} = 133.0$). From the results of Table 3 the approaches used were community policing 32.9% (128), use of local administration 24.4% (95), shared projects/facilities 23.1% (90), use of judicial systems/ courts 6.7% (21) and other approaches at 12.9% (50). The study findings indicated the efforts made by the government to manage conflicts at the grass root level within the county. This is in disagreement with UN report (2009) indicating that state intervention has only been successful at the formal and superficial levels.

Table 3: Approaches Used by the Government in the Management of 2007/2008 PEV in Kakamega County, Kenya

Approaches	Frequency	Percentage
Community Policing/Police	128	32.9
Use of local administrators	95	24.4
Shared projects/facilities	90	23.1
Formal Judicial systems	21	6.7
Others (indigenous methods)	50	12.9
Total	384	100.0

Source: Field Data

Security Personnel

Security personnel as supported by 32.9% of respondents (Table 3) in this study included the government police force. Police posts were set up in areas perceived to be vulnerable especially along the in the three Sub-Counties. Additionally, the Government advanced the initiative to recruit and arm the Kenya

Police Reservists (KPRs) as complementary security providers in the region meant to be a transparent community policing initiative. The community vigilant groups also worked with the police. The study revealed that KPRs were only available in regions where the communities demanded for them especially in cases of high levels of insecurity.

Local Administration

Household heads respondents indicated that local administration (24.4%) was one of the methods used by the Government in support of women in conflict management following the 2007/2008 PEV as indicated in Table 3. Through the offices of Chiefs, Assistant Commissioners as well as local political leaders frequently intervened in disputes as third party neutrals. They played a pivotal role in addressing community conflicts through enhancement of security and facilitation of the operation of government peace initiatives. They also played a major role in training the security personnel especially the reservists basically on how to resolve disputes as noted from the study, scheduled at least once every month.

Creation and Renovation of Shared Facilities/ Projects

Household heads respondents indicated that shared facilities (23.1%) was one of the methods used by the Government in support of women as shown in Table 3. The government provided water points, health facilities, cattle dips, as well as educational facilities. The study revealed through household respondents that support by the government to the facilities included funding and technical support of inter-ethnic community projects (mainly through Community Based Organizations) and community connector initiatives. The projects aimed at reducing vulnerabilities, improving capacities and cohesion amongst communities. The study findings are in agreement with other studies which recognize the government as the lead agency towards conflict management (Pkalya & Mohammud, 2006).

Judicial System

Law Courts were central in dispute resolution as supported by 6.7% of household heads respondents as indicated in Table 3. The primary state sponsored institution for dispute resolution in Kenya and in particular in Kakamega County was the court, which ensured that justice prevailed through the arresting of conflict perpetrators. Courts by their very nature are highly formal. The county has law courts; Kakamega, Mumias and Lugari towns. However, household responses indicated less preference in the court which is costly and time consuming blaming corruption and ineffectiveness in the official law; conflict incidences reported to the police hardly ever reached the courts. The researchers are in support of this as an addition to this, the costs of travelling, the costs of filing a case at court which are high in comparison to the income levels of the population, making it nearly impossible for many to seek redress before a court for their grievances.

Indigenous Methods

The customary courts which are informal justice systems as supported by 12.9% of household heads respondents as indicated in Table 3. The government officials in all the three Sub-Counties legally constituted by the government and mandated to resolve disputes and crimes at the community level. The courts adopted the customs of the communities in question but this was a challenge especially with

the cosmopolitan nature of communities within the county as well as the accusation of them adopting discriminating laws based on different cultural values and customs. The composition was derived from the elders who worked with the assistant chiefs and chiefs as well as local peace committees. The Chiefs and Assistant Chiefs are employees of the Provincial Administration, and one of their mandates was to maintain law and order in their community.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the findings, it was indicated that indeed women played an important role in ensuring peace after the 2007/2008 violent conflict in Kakamega County. The government through the local government institutions supported women in bringing about peace.

The most successful strategy was peace dialogue meetings. This strategy allowed for pouring out emotions and ventilating. It facilitated forgiveness and reconciliation and open discussion on lasting peace. Among the strategies that were less effective was collaborative and shared projects, which brought together the conflicting communities leading to calm.

The use of the local government institutions as highlighted from the study indicates a shift from macro-level conflict transformation to micro-level conflict transformation. From these findings of this study, the research concludes that the strategies employed by the actors were effective but poor coordination led to duplication of same efforts to same communities.

The study made a number of recommendations. First it recommended the implementation of proposed national strategies for conflict management by the Government. Peace building including the proposed draft policy should be enhanced to enable stakeholders involved to have coherent platforms for effective intervention efforts and coordination between and amongst the national and local peace building blocks. It also recommended for improved coordination and integration through enhanced inter-ethnic forums, strengthening of local peace building blocks, dealing with the conflict perpetrators, strengthening the security personnel and improved capacity building. Organized inter-ethnic forums are recommended to help eliminate stereotypes and negative ethnicity. There is also need for integration of each organization's specialization and area of focus with community-level conflict management and peace-building to enhance local ownership and inclusiveness which will lead to societal transformation and increased human potential.

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EDUCATION AND SECURITY IN KENYA; THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN ENHANCING SECURITY

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Abstract

This article considers the fact that every person has the right to freedom and security. The concept of security incorporates the security of persons, institutions and national and international territory. Disturbing questions arise out of the current state of both national and global security; which is characterized with spates of terrorism, natural and manmade disasters, organized crime, protests, rebellions, cybercrime and cyber security threats, and disputes involving land, leadership and religious issues. Kenya has been an unfortunate victim of all the said forms of insecurity. For a long time, provision of security in Kenya has been the responsibility of the Government and security agencies. However, on their own, not much has been achieved. There is therefore urgent need to consider interventions and other strategies of combating insecurity in Kenya. One of these strategies is through engaging education in this venture. The specific focus of this article is to give insights into how we can re-organize the education system particularly the secondary school curriculum to address issues of security at school, community, national and international levels. Consideration is given towards integrating security issues into the school curriculum across the board with regard to formal, informal and non-formal dimensions of the curriculum so that knowledge, skills and values can be inculcated into the learners that will enable them to understand and deal with problems of security. The prospects and challenges of incorporating security issues into the school curriculum are also addressed and the implications these have towards Security. Finally, the article concludes that there ought to be an all-inclusive approach in fighting insecurity and suggests a way forward in the recommendations.

Key words: Security, Education, School Curriculum, Security integration

Introduction

The role of education for any nation is to help solve the problems of that nation by playing two important functions namely, transmission and transformation (Shiundu & Omulando, 1992). Desirable knowledge, skills, values and attitudes ought to be transmitted to the learner to enable him fit into his immediate environment and the larger society. The learner is also supposed to undergo transformation which will make him deal with the emerging challenges of life.

Dissemination of education is guided by aims and goals of education whose background is global. From the global goals, individual countries tailor their aims and goals to suit their immediate needs. In Kenya, goals for post-independent education have their background in the 1965 Ominde Commission (Republic of Kenya) and Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1965 (ROK). Goals cover the individual, their immediate context and wider context and the international community. The goals stress on fostering nationalism, patriotism and promotion of national unity and also advocate for socio-economic development, sound moral religious values, international consciousness and positive attitudes towards other nations, good health and environmental protection (KIE, 2002).

These goals allude to security and if they are to be fully realized, Kenya's citizens would achieve peace,

a key ingredient for development. The quest for relevance of education is seen in the many efforts by the government in revising the education policy to address immediate needs of its citizens. Since independence, there have been several commissions and task forces to address educational issues. The first was the Ominde Commission of 1965, which produced a report, a blue print that laid the foundation for education in independent Kenya (Republic of Kenya,1964) and the National Committee on Educational Objectives commonly referred to as the Gachathi Report (ROK, 1978). Others are the Presidential Working Party on Education on the Second University-Mackay Commissioner (ROK, 1988), whose recommendation was to establish a second public University and to overhaul the system of education to the 8-4-4 and the Commission of Enquiry into the Education System of Kenya- Koech Commission (ROK,1999) and the Kamunge Report (ROK, 2002).

Despite all the commissions and reports, Kenya's education system is yet to satisfactorily meet the expected needs of the society. The values and attitudes that were imparted to the society by the African Indigenous Education or the Early Christian education have been eroded in the present system of education. The Indigenous Education was a process of inculcating into the youth the survival skills and preparing them to assume certain responsibilities in the community (Shiundu & Omulando, 1996) It aimed at producing individuals who were independent, self- reliant, mindful of other peoples welfare and spiritually whole (ibid).Today the youth lack that sense of responsibility and mindfulness of other human beings and are victims of moral decadence falling prey to acts of lawlessness. That fabric that held the community together as one is missing. The youth are naïve and vulnerable; they have, as a result become easy targets for blood-thirsty people who love to cause mayhem. Initially, it started with idle and unemployed youth but trends show that it is catching up with the elite .This is as witnessed in the Westgate shopping mall attack and the Garissa University massacre which was supposedly masterminded by, among others, a dissident university law student. Recently, three university female students were arrested in Elwak allegedly headed to Somali and are facing charges of terrorism (http// familymediaonline).

Kenya is no longer at peace as insecurity pervades the domestic terrain through domestic violence, the national fabric through land ethnic and tribal clashes, cybercrimes, organized militia movements and terrorist attacks. Though there have been occasional changes in the security docket of top management, owing to public pressure, increased budgetary allocation and continuous international world pledges towards funding to counter terrorism and ensure that Kenya is a secure nation, it appears that the more the Kenyan Government intervenes to fight insecurity, the more terror is unleashed on its citizens.

Interventions that the Government has made include the' Nyumba Kumi' initiative of 2014 and a related 2014 sensitization by the Kenyan Presidency that, "Security begins with me and you!'. The latter can be interpreted to imply that security depends on a number of considerations. These will include: what and who we are; what we believe in and cherish; what we do and how we do it; what we say, eat, wear; where we sleep and where we go.

While the strategies employed by the government are very positive and welcome, their effectiveness in reducing cases of insecurity will depend on other interventions such as education. It is in this regard therefore that this article explores how security can be infused into education through the secondary school curriculum.

The concept of security in the Kenyan context

Security is defined as the activities that include protecting a country, building or person against attack or danger, (Hornby, 2010). From a human rights approach, security is defined as freedom from fear of violence and conflict and freedom from want (United Nations Commission of Human Rights, 2014). Derived from the definitions, the security context of an individual includes personal security, food security environmental, home, school, workplace, home, place of leisure, community, national and international security.

Seven core areas relating to security as contained in Kenya's Bill of Rights (Constitution of Kenya, COK) can be identified. These are related to economic, food, health (Article 43) environmental; (Article 42), personal security (Article 29), community (Article 36), and political securities; (Article 38) The articles are further supplemented by an elaborate framework on National Security as set out in Chapter Fourteen of the COK 2010 whose provisions have been enacted in pieces of legislation to quote among others the National Police Service Act, 2011 and the National Intelligence Service Act, 2011. It is clear that in so far as safety and security are concerned the country does not suffer from lack of a legislative framework.

The concept of Education and the Curriculum

Etymologically , the term education is derived from the Latin word "educare' which means to mould and 'educere'; to lead out. For the purpose of this article, we shall equate education with the acquisition of desirable knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes that make an individual to fit into his immediate society. Viewed from the insights of the world's greatest minds, the education process is seen as a question of experience and action and the education process to be based on the aims and goals of a constantly changing society, (Dewey, 1859-1952). From another perspective, education is described as the most powerful tool; that which can be used to shape the World (Mandela, 1918-2013)

The term 'curriculum' is also derived from the Latin word 'curere', meaning to run a racecourse. Racecourse is equated with all the experiences of a school. Broadly speaking, curriculum is the totality of student experiences in the educational process (en. wikipedia.org). Education and Curriculum are mutually related; curriculum is the vehicle for driving education to achieve its goals and objectives; a medium for educating. The aim and goals of education direct the path that the education system of a country ought to take. In Kenya, they allude to a holistic approach to curriculum that will develop all around students by promoting the cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains. To achieve this education ought, to be responsive and include all the dimensions of the curriculum namely; the Formal, Informal and Non- formal.

The state of security in Kenya today

The state of security has been deteriorating steadily in the last five years to a point of causing serious concern in the society and throughout the nation and the international world .The following give insight into the state of security in Kenya.

i.   There is massive unemployment which stands at 70% with an established link between unemployment and crime (KNCHR, 2014)

ii.   There is the issue of poor working conditions and terms of Service for the police leading to low morale and social malpractices making police officers feel unappreciated (Ransley Report, 2009).

iii. The security sector is bedevilled by corruption with collusions between law enforcement officers who work in collaboration with criminals. The rogue law enforcers make themselves lose trust and confidence in the eyes of the citizens when they allow unabated crime and illegal operations to take place. Research has documented 46 criminal gangs operating in different parts of Kenya.

iv.   With the devolved system of governance, the constitutional office holders have drawn from the core police force over 3,000-5,000 police officers .This has created a pitfall exposing many Kenyans to insecurity and vulnerability to crime.

v.   There is also the question of lack of coordination among the different security agencies in the country as witnessed in the Westgate Mall attack of 14th September 2014 and the Garissa University attack of 2nd April 2015 where the regular police, the Kenya Defense Forces and Recce Squad were all present to rescue the victims of the attack but whose responses were not well coordinated leading to large numbers of death and injuries inflicted to the victims.

vi.   Politicians have also been known to sponsor criminal activities or pronounce inciting statements that have encouraged insecurity among neighbouring ethnic communities.

vii. In schools, insecurity is brought about through indiscipline of students manifested in such acts as theft of other students' property, teachers' property, school property, and that of the community, sneaking out of school, fighting among students, bullying, fighting among students and with teachers, smoking, indulging in drugs, taking alcohol, striking and rioting (Kirui, et al, 2011). There is also massive destruction of property and causing bodily harm and death.

Whereas it is the expectation of Kenyans to be protected by the Kenyan Government as contained in Article 26 of the Constitution Of Kenya, and that of the school administration to protect its students, it is apparent that relying on any of the two alone, is futile .

Integrating security issues into the Secondary School Curriculum

Education can be both constructive and destructive. The kind of education the children and youth in general receive will determine the quality of the society (Ornstein et al, 1988). The primary task of a country's educational system is the transmission of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes and transformation of students so that they can fit into their immediate environment. This knowledge, skills values and attitudes can be passed on by teaching learners and allowing them to live them. Since what is contained in the school curriculum is determined by the needs of the society, security has become a leading need. Therefore, this justifies the inclusion of security education in the curriculum. Security education can be integrated into the existing secondary school curriculum and spread throughout the three main dimensions of the curriculum; the formal, the informal and the non-formal. Within those three dimensions the secondary school curriculum can be re-organized to address security issues in Kenya.

Objectives of integrating security with the Secondary School Curriculum

With the deteriorating state of security in Kenya, quick interventions are imperative. One obvious strategy is to teach the youth and help them learn about security. This can be best done in formal education or school platform at all levels, rudimentary, elementary, secondary and university. In this article, we opt to discuss the inclusion of security education in the secondary school curriculum .The objectives of incorporating security education in the secondary school curriculum will be as follows:

i.   To create awareness among learners with regard to the concept of security, importance of security in society,the causes and effects of insecurity and ways of preventing and managing insecurity
ii.   To develop skills among learners to enable them apply and participate in ensuring self-security and security in the immediate environment, national and international security
iii.   To inculcate values and attitudes to enable them appreciate security and participate in activities to prevent and manage security.
iv.   To develop interest among the learners to serve in the security forces

Ways of integrating Security Education into the Formal Curriculum

The Formal Curriculum is the aspect of the school curriculum which consists of those learning experiences students undertake formally in class (Oluoch,2002) This has mistakenly been thought to be the true meaning of curriculum because it offers subject matter that is graded for an education system running from primary to university .

In the school set up, subjects across the curricular can incorporate security issues. The languages which include English, Kiswahili, French, German, and Arabic may draw comprehension passages from articles dealing with security matters or infuse security issues in their sentence formations giving examples of the same in the course books and supplementary materials.

Physical education appears to be a forgotten subject in secondary schools. Hardly any teacher in the public schools will make conscious efforts to teach it except when on practicum. Many teachers use it as free time to make up for the lessons they may have missed to teach. Others would give the ball to students to play and provide little or no supervision. Yet, this is a subject which schools can really take advantage of to teach knowledge and skills for preventing and managing insecurity. Martial arts such as Karate and Taekwondo, will inculcate important protective skills against insecurity, radicalization and extremism. Swimming will provide students with skills that will expose them to a variety of terrains. In the Garrissa University College attack it was observed that the learners could have countered attacked and at least defended themselves (http//familymediaonline.com). This could have been possible if they had basic skills in security management.

Religious studies namely; Christian, Islamic and Hinduism can emphasize morals and virtues, appropriate values and attitudes that the learners require to integrate with each other in the school and the wider society. Geography enhances environmental studies and can be localized to familiarize the learners with their immediate school surroundings so that in case of any attacks the learners would have the knowledge of their physical surrounding. History and Civics can incorporate democratic principles and sensitize students on the negative effects of conflict and war to deter the learners for harbouring negative ideas of indulging in war. Community studies in History can be enhanced to allow students to know and integrate well with their neighbours in and out of school for peaceful co-existence.

Physics can be taught through incorporating skills that can combat lightning and prevent electrical accidents. Agriculture, Biology and Home Science can offer food security through encouraging diversification of farming enterprises encouraging learners who are potential farmers to grow different crops and keep a variety of animals and encouraging soil and water conservation to increase food production. From this education the government interventions in the control of parasite and diseases in crops and livestock can be stepped up.

Cyber crimes include viruses, unauthorized access to the computer laboratories, eavesdropping, surveillance and industrial espionage. Students in Computer Studies are taught how to counter cyber crimes through installing the latest version of anti-virus software on computers to fight new viruses that are being produced on a daily basis. They are also encouraged to always scan documents for viruses. Security measures should be put in place to ensure that unauthorized persons do not gain access to the computer rooms. Enforcement of network security should be taken such as file passwords to deter persons who may get the electronic files (Mburu & Chemwa, 2004).

Art and Craft is a subject which can enhance national unity by not only appreciating other people's work of art but also borrowing and adopting from them. Schools can take advantage of art by adopting signage systems to signal the types of danger that students in a school can be exposed to in the following three areas, mandatory/do signs, caution/do but with care and warning/do not do. The signs can be tailored to schools as a private way of communication to alert students about impending danger and where possible drills can be held for students to internalize them.

Integrating Security Education into the Informal Curriculum

The informal curriculum is also referred to as the hidden curriculum. This is the dimension of the curriculum that can have a great impact on the students in so far as security matters are concerned because it has to do with acquisition of desirable values and attitudes. Harahambos (1991) describes the informal dimension of the curriculum as consisting of those things that pupils learn through the experience of being in school rather than the stated educational objectives of such institutions. Meghan (1981) has this to say about the informal curriculum,

> The hidden curriculum is taught by the school and not by the teacher…something is coming across to the pupils which may never have been spoken in the English lesson or prayed about in the assembly. They are picking an approach to living and an attitude to learning

What students experience, see, hear, feel and do in the school environment can directly or indirectly influence and equip them with knowledge, skills and values on security and help them participate effectively in security matters in the school, home, county, nationally and internationally .School is a miniature community within the wider society. The child while in school should feel loved, protected and supported. Schools will succeed if they form linkages with the local community to provide protection to students. Any unbecoming behaviour such as sneaking out of school or suspicious groupings should be brought to the attention of the school by the members of the community.

The areas that would promote this dimension are the values that the school upholds as contained in the school vision, mission and motto. Many schools have their mission statements but will rarely let their

students live up to them. The schools ought to strengthen and allow students to internalize their mission statements. Learners should be encouraged to define their identity and that of their school through embracing the School uniform and the school motto on their badges and other school documents such as the letter head on communication from the school. The identity gives unity of purpose and a strong sense of belonging to the learners. The school code of conduct as contained in the rules and regulations ought to incorporate issues of security within the school that will guide learners to uphold discipline in and out of school.

The prefects' body is an important organ of the school that can help maintain security in schools by ensuring that students internalize the school rules. They also form an internal security system (Kirui, et al, 2011). They are an important link between the students and the school administration. Learners should be sensitized on reporting to the school authorities any suspicious persons or activities within the precincts of the school. Surveillance of the school by students, security agents in the school and teachers will train them to be vigilant so that they are observant to identify any thing that could be suspect and cause danger to the school such as abandoned luggage.

School attendance as captured in the school register is important to the school administration because the absentee students will be known by class teachers and proper follow-up made to account for the missing persons. With close relationships with the parents or guardians of the students then any improper behaviour can easily be monitored and curtailed before going out of proportion.

The Head teachers, teachers and support staff should provide good role models for learners. School should be a safe haven for students devoid of any form of violence. Violence that may take the form of bullying, harassment of all kinds, strikes or arson must be consciously avoided through encouraging healthy relationships and promoting positive values such as respect, value, and care for others and a sense of responsibility for self and others (Wango, 2009)

The school can source audio materials, visual, and audio visuals such as films and video tapes on security or insecurity for the learners to show the ravages of insecurity. Role models from the security wing can be invited to the school to give talks about measures that can be put in place to prevent or combat insecurity.

The school infrastructure can in itself promote security. Schools should be properly secured by fencing and having designated entry and exit points manned by trained security officers.(Kirui ,et al., 2011) suggests that schools should have a trained security official examine the school and provide recommendations on how security can be improved through installation of alarm systems, training of head teachers, teachers and students on how to enforce security. It may also require engaging local security agents and provision of resources to keep teachers and everyone involved as safe as possible.

The Ministry of Education has already approved Life Skills as a subject in the school curriculum though many schools have tended to overlook it. It guides the students to make correct choices in life. If strengthened by schools it can go a long way in aiding students to maintain security. The guiding and counseling department should be pro-active in guiding learners into acceptable behavior in and out of school.

Incorporating Security Education into the Non-Formal Curriculum

The Non-Formal Curriculum includes the activities that are erroneously referred to as either co-curricular or extracurricular activities (Oloo, 2012). They include sports, athletics and games, clubs and societies and performing arts; music and drama. In curriculum theory, the learning activities in this category are as equally important as those in the formal and informal dimensions of the curriculum. They provide very important learning experiences.

Clubs such as Young Farmers and The 4K Club can embrace agriculture and food security, and initiate income generating activities .The school is responsible for the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of learners. Christian Union, Young Christian Society and Islamic Religious Clubs ought to be strengthened to develop moral values. Games, sports and athletics train endurance and control. It builds stamina which is important in the face of self defense.

The existing clubs can be expanded to include security-related experiences such as fire and first aid drills. New clubs can be started to focus more directly on security issues for example Red Cross, UNESCO Clubs, Cultural and explicit security clubs from which students can enhance values on personal, community, national and international security. All students should be engaged in at least two clubs and societies, two games or sports, one area of the performing arts. During time scheduled for these activities there should no student left idle.

Prospects and challenges of incorporating Security Education in the Kenya Secondary School Curriculum

Prospects are the strengths that will support and make the integration of security education possible. It is natural that prospects go with challenges. In this case, the schools and the existing curriculum could have challenges which are weaknesses and threats that could make the integration of security education difficult. The prospects include: there are increasing incidents of insecurity in Kenya and the world justifying inclusion of security education across the curriculum, the existence of calls in the education sector to consider revising the curriculum to include security education and the available knowledge and skills in fighting insecurity

The Kenyan Education System is beset with a myriad of challenges, which include: high dropout rates, unemployment, some teachers who are in themselves a threat to security, rigidity of academic programmes, drugs and substance abuse, resistance to change, lack of political goodwill, negative attitudes by teachers ,students, parents and the community.

Implications of the challenges in Education and the Curriculum for security

Emphasis on examinations has led to malpractices in the examination. In 2015 alone secondary school examination KCSE results of 3812 candidates were cancelled because of cheating. In 2014 the number of KCSE results that were cancelled stood at 2795 candidates. The candidates whose results are cancelled get demoralized and frustrated. Some of them go back to re-take the examinations while others give up totally and are given to hopelessness. It is this state that renders the students vulnerable to the levels of engaging in lawlessness.

Every year schools and other educational institutions churn out graduates who cannot find employment because of the nature of the courses they undertook or the quality of the certificates they have which are not relevant to the job market. The graduates roam the streets in search of elusive jobs. Given their desperation, they can easily be easy victims of violence.

Incidences of insecurity are very often accompanied with threats from tongue lashing politicians swearing that *no stones would be left unturned in unearthing the perpetrators of insecurity* . However, the statement has been mere rhetoric. There has to be very strong political goodwill in the fight against insecurity to realize change

Conclusion

This article has examined education and security through an introduction, a discussion of the concepts of security, education and curriculum and through an analysis of the state of security in Kenya today. Most importantly, the article has addressed integrating the school curriculum with security and seeing that insecurity adversely affects education and curriculum. When learners fail to acquire desirable knowledge, skills, values and attitudes in school it has adverse implications for the larger society as they become easy targets of lawlessness which translates into violence of all types including thuggery and terrorism. The government and its agencies alone cannot manage to curb insecurity hence the need to encourage all-inclusiveness in matters of security. If we train the learner into the right morals and attitudes the situation may improve when the learners believe in the philosophy of "I am because we are!

Recommendations

The recommendations suggested are that the curriculum should be reviewed to include security education, teachers should be trained in security education and finally, that the school structure and infrastructure should be reflective of security education.

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PROMOTING PEACE AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION THROUGH FAITH-BASED ORGANS IN A POST-CONFLICT SOCIETY: THE CASE OF PEACE AND JUSTICE COMMISSION IN CYANGUGU CATHOLIC DIOCESE, RWANDA

Ntawiha Philothère

Abstract

In the area of peace building and conflict resolution faith-based institutions are yet to be fully acknowledged in efforts to promote peace. In many countries, including Rwanda, the focus is put on judicial systems and other state organs for conflict resolution and peace building. This article sought to highlight the effectiveness of faith-based organs in promoting peace and settling conflicts in Cyangugu Catholic Diocese after the 1994 genocide against Tutsi. Specifically, it sought to find out approached used by Justice and Peace Commission to promote peace in Cyangugu diocese, determine its effectiveness in peace building and conflict resolution and finally find out challenges encountered by the justice and peace commission in the process of promoting peace. Using a mixed methods research design, different reports documents were reviewed to get information on approaches used by the commission as well as its effectiveness in peacemaking and an interview was conducted with the chairman of the commission to get information on the challenges encountered. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze quantitative data and thematic analysis approach was used for qualitative data. Findings were presented verbatim and in tables. It was found that mediation is the most used approach and 65.5% of conflict cases examined by the Catholic Justice and Peace Commission in Cyangugu Diocese in 2014 were successful. Finally, it was found that the commission encounters some challenges such as lack of sufficient financial means, and training for mediators. Therefore, it is concluded that the justice and peace commission as a faith-based organ is effective in peace building and conflict resolution. It is then recommended that stakeholders in peace building and conflict resolution should recognize the key role of faith based organs and rely on them in any conflict resolution or peace building endeavor.

Key words*:* Peace, Conflict Resolution, Justice, Faith-Based Organs.

Introduction

Living in a peaceful and secure society is the dream of human being in this world. Peace entails absence of war, mental stress or anxiety and security refers to the state of being free from danger or injury (Advanced English Dictionary). According to Olaoba (2010) the two concepts are highly related as security is about the management of threats and peace is about the management of violence. He adds that both peace and security are very important for sustainable development of any society.

A peaceful and secure society is almost a non-existent entity because conflicts and disputes among individuals and groups are inevitable. Conflicts that are the main obstacle to peace have different causes. For instance, explaining the causes of conflicts among individuals, Sunil (2014) states that the causes of conflicts lie in their individuals and cultural differences, clashes of interests, and social changes. Likewise, Choudree (1999) states that the competitions and desires to dominate and control resources within the community lead individuals, families as well as large social groups to conflicts.

Poor management of conflicts is the key obstacle to peace and consequences are devastating. To this

end, UNEP (2006) states that conflicts which in most cases result in war impact on human well-being by causing the loss of lives, livelihoods and opportunity, as well as of human dignity and fundamental human rights. DfID (2001) emphasizes that war is estimated to result, on average, in production losses of 12% and to undercut growth in the agricultural sector by 3% per year. It emphasizes that lack of peace increases the gap between food production and need, and aggravates poverty and hunger.

The awareness of causes of conflicts and consequences associated with lack of peace made communities to establish institutions to promote peace by resolving conflicts among individuals, families and social groups. It is in this regard that the Second Vatican Council proposed the creation of a body of the universal Catholic Church to promote justice and peace in the world. This was the Pontifical Commission for Justice and Peace that was mainly mandated to promote justice and peace in the world, in the light of the Gospel and of the social teaching of the church. In 1988, through the pontifical decree "Pastor Bonus" of 28/06/1988 Pope John Paul II changed the commission into pontifical Council and gave it the general orientations. This same decree ordinates the creation of the national commissions for justice and peace in each country (www.eglisecatholiquerwanda).

According to Allen (2005), the church, as a community of faith, is different from other social organizations. It is relationship-based. This therefore makes the church more susceptible to interpersonal conflict than other social organizations. Emphasizing the role if faith-based organs in conflict resolution and peace building, Rittle (2008) states that these organs are spiritual and relationship-based in their nature. They therefore use the Biblical approaches to conflict resolution. Anat (2011) adds that for sustainable peace and security of any human society, the role of churches and spirituality should not be left out. She insists that spirituality is very effective peace restoration and conflict resolution.

In line with the pontifical decree, Catholic Bishops in Rwanda created the Episcopal Commission for Justice and Peace in 1988 but this became operational in 1992 (JPC, 2014). It is this Commission that in turn, gave birth to a Diocesan Justice and Peace Commission in each Diocese. The key mandate of this Commission was to incite the Rwandan community, catholic community in particular, to embrace the culture of peace and justice in order to promote human dignity through the respect of human rights (JPC, 2014). This commission operated until 1994 when it was interrupted by the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi which claimed the lives of more than one million of innocent people. However, the commission was able to resume its activities in 1997 (Kambanda, 2010).

After resumption of its activities after the genocide, the Justice and Peace Commission was particularly mandated to contribute to the reconstruction of the Rwandan community which was destroyed by the atrocities committed during the genocide The commission was also mandated to promote the culture of peace, contribute to the psychological healing of the traumatized society in order to promote unity and reconciliation among Rwandan community (Kambanda, 2010 and CJP, 2014).

According to the report of JPC (2014), the Justice and Peace Commission in Cyangugu Diocese resumed its activities in 1997-1998 and since then its structure was established from the diocesan level to the basic Christian communities' level. To this end, in 1999, the chairman (priest) of the commission was nominated and members (lay) representing the commission in each parish were also nominated. Furthermore, at the level of basic Christian community, mediators also referred to as the 'apostles of peace' were nominated to facilitate the prevention and resolution of conflicts among members of the basic Christian community. In addition to this, five full-time employees were recruited to coordinate activities and help achieve the

mandate of the diocesan commission for justice and peace. .

As it is mentioned in its five-year Strategic Plan, the priority areas of the justice and peace commission in Cyangugu Diocese are as follows: conflict management, reconciliation and community healing, and advocacy and protection of human rights. All these three areas are work on through the joint efforts of apostles of peace, members of the Commission at all levels (parochial, sub-parochial and basic Christian community) and the five full-time members. Since its resumption of activities, the Justice and Peace commission in Cyangugu Diocese has made a lot of efforts towards peace building, conflict resolution, and community healing. Therefore, a research needs to be done to find highlight the contributions of the commission to peace building in Cyangugu Diocese.

Statement of the Problem

After the 1994 genocide, the Justice and Peace Commission in Rwanda was given a special mandate to contribute to the reconstruction of the Rwandan society, to promote peace, and heal the Rwandan community that was traumatized by the atrocities committed during the genocide and war that preceded it. Since then, the Commission has resolved a number of conflicts and reconciliation of parties was achieved. However, very few people are aware of these achievements of the commission. Therefore, there is need to investigate the effectiveness of the justice and peace commission in peacemaking and society healing in Cyangugu catholic diocese. The ability to do so would help highlight the key role of faith based institutions in promoting peace.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to highlight the contribution of the Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace, a faith-based organ, to peace building in Catholic Diocese of Cyangugu in Rwanda. Specifically, the study sought:

1. To find out the approach used by the Justice and Peace Commission to resolve conflicts and build peace in Cyangugu Diocese.
2. To determine the effectiveness of the Justice and Peace Commission in Peace building in Cyangugu Diocese.
3. Find out the challenges encountered by the Justice and Peace Commission in peacemaking process in Cyangugu Diocese.

Theoretical Framework

This study was premised on the Judeo-Christian Model of Peacemaking. According to Newberger (2009), the judeo-christian model of peacemaking has three characteristics: a) Love, not justice: the theory stipulates that love should be the first foundation of peace and justice should be the second foundation; b) Reconciliation is the goal: this model says that peacemaking efforts should be directed toward stopping the fighting and establishing non-coexistence; hence they should reconcile conflicting parties; c) Mediation is the means: the model stipulates that the only means that reconciliation is accomplished should be mediation. In view of these, the model was found suitable for this study of highlighting the

effectiveness of the justice and peace commission in promoting in Cyangugu diocese.

Methodology

This study adopted a descriptive survey design using a mixed methods research model. Mixed methods research involves collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study to better understand the research problem (Creswell, 2012). Different report documents, websites, and news papers were reviewed and an interview with the chairman of the diocesan commission for justice and peace as well the five beneficiaries of the commission was conducted to gather relevant data. Descriptive statistics and thematic analysis approach were used to analyze both quantitative and qualitative data respectively. Findings were presented verbatim and in tables.

Findings and Discussion

Approaches used to promote peace and justice

The first task of this study was to find out the approaches that the Justice and Peace Commission use to promote peace in Cyangugu diocese. The following approaches are used by JPC to achieve its mandate: Mediation, Advocacy, Counseling, Peace and human rights education, Trainings and retreats and Creating space for dialogue.

These approaches used by the commission are likely to produce good results. According to Anumah (2010), mediation is an effective approach of conflict resolution as it helps stakeholders discuss issues, repair past injuries and develop the tools needed to face disagreements effectively. These approaches go hand in hand with the preaching of the church which gives priority to mediation as the means of reaching reconciliation of the parties (Newberger, 2009).

Effectiveness of Justice and Peace Commission

The second task of this study was to find out the effectiveness of the Justice and Peace Commission in promoting peace in Cyangugu Diocese, Rwanda. Table 1 and 2 indicate the achievements of the Commission in terms of conflict resolution and psychological healing of the community.

Table 1: Conflicts examined by Justice and Peace Commission in Cyangugu diocese in 2014

Cases	Number	Percentage
Successful mediation	326	65.5
Mediation underway	124	24.9
Failed mediation/cases transferred to courts	48	9.6
Total cases received/examined	**498**	**100**

Table 1 indicates that 65.5% (326) of the conflicts received by Justice and Peace Commission in 2014 were

resolved through mediation. Furthermore, the table indicates that only 24.9% the cases received by the commission are being handled, that is the mediation is still in progress. Finally, table 1 indicates that 9.6% of the cases examined by justice and peace commission failed and they were transferred to government institutions for examination. This is an indication that faith-based institutions are effective in conflict resolution. It is to be noted that transferring some cases to conventional courts is not in contradiction with the teachings of the church. Even the Bible says in Mathiew 18:15-17 that "... if your brother does wrong to you, go, make clear to him his error between you and him in private: if he gives ear to you, you have got your brother back again. But if he will not give ear to you, take with you one or two more, that by the lips of two or three witnesses every word may be made certain. And if he will not give ear to them, let it come to the hearing of the church: and if he will not give ear to the church, let him be to you as a gentile and a tax-farmer.

Table 2: Beneficiaries of the Psychological Healing

Cases	Number	Percentage
Successful/healed cases	501	89.8
Cases underway	6	1.1
Cases transferred to Health Centres/ hospital	51	9.1
Total cases received/examined	**558**	**100**

Table 2 shows that of the 558 psychological cases received by justice and peace commission in Cyangugu diocese, 89.8% (501 cases) were treated successfully. The table also indicates that while only 1.1% (6 cases) of the cases submitted to the commission are still underway, 9.1% (51 cases) have been transferred to hospitals for treatment. This is a clear indication that the commission is doing well in terms of healing the traumatized society for the sake of enhancing unity and reconciliation as mandated after the genocide (Kambanda, 2010 and CJP, 2014).

During the interview with the beneficiaries of the Commission, the interviewees confirmed that they after the mediation of the commission for justice and peace they coexist peacefully. One of them expressed this in the following text:

> "If all conflicts were resolved using the Gospel, the world would be peaceful. The commission helped me to re-establish my relationship with my neighbour and now we live peacefully as brothers in Christ. We assist each other in everything".

Another interviewee states:

> "The volunteers of the peace and justice commission visited me when they became aware that our family was burning [there was serious conflict]. They prayed for us and mediate us using the bible verses and we were invited to a retreat at the parish. From then my husband changed and we live peaceful. He has become a good husband who takes care of his family".

These statements of the interviewees are a clear indication that the Catholic Commission for Justice and Peace in Cyangugu Diocese is effective in promoting peace and security. This is because it uses the bible to resolve conflicts. This was partially expressed by Anat (2011) who states that if conflict resolution

practitioners use spirituality in conflict resolution process, the society would be more peaceful and secure.

Challenges of the Justice and Peace Commission

The last task of the study was to determine the challenges that the Catholic Justice and Peace Commission encounters in its commitment to promoting peace in Cyangugu Diocese, Rwanda. The challenges revealed include: limited financial means, limited trainings for mediators and community healing volunteers, lack of effective collaboration with other stakeholders and lack of sufficient training materials

These challenges are serious and may hinder the Commission's effectiveness. For instance, Anumah (2010) states that mediation is voluntary and confidential process in which a trained professional dispute resolver (mediator) facilitates understanding and negotiation between disputing parties and assist them to reach a mutually acceptance resolution to their dispute. Therefore the must be continuously trained to be equipped or reminded of certain qualities they must have. According to Ojiela (2001), a mediator should have an imposing character disposition, respectability in the society, knowledge in customs and norms, wisdom, determination, and ability to restore harmonious relationship.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the Justice and Peace Commission in Cyangugu Diocese Rwanda uses effective approaches to deal with conflicts and to heal the traumatized society. It was also logical to conclude and generalize that the commission is effective in peacemaking, conflict resolution, and community healing. There were also evidences that the beneficiaries of the commission peacefully coexist after the mediation of the commission. Hence its contribution to unity and reconciliation in Rwanda is great despite some challenges it encounters. Therefore, it was recommended that stakeholders in peace building should consider and emphasize on the key role of faith based institutions in any peacemaking endeavors. It was also recommended that stakeholders in peace building should provide possible support to the commission to remove the challenges it encounters in order to improve its effectiveness.

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POST CONFLICT RECONSTRUCTION; PROCESSES, ACTORS AND STRATEGIES FOR KENYA

Stanley Omuterema Oluchiri

Abstract

Post-conflict reconstruction requires a coherent and coordinated multidimensional response by a broad range of internal and external actors, including government, civil society, the private sector and international agencies. It is designed to assist in stabilizing the peace process and prevent a relapse into conflict, but its ultimate aim is to address the root causes of a conflict and to lay the foundations for social justice and sustainable peace. At regional level, the UN, AU, NEPAD and other regional organizations have formulated policy frameworks or, are in the process of doing so, to deal with post-conflict reconstruction and development. It is noted, however that factionalism has always been politically prevalent and states have more often been instruments of private predation and extraction rather than tools for the pursuit of public goods. Local populations are major stakeholders in post-conflict reconstruction. Other actors are the World Bank Group and its institutions, Region-Specific Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs), the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Relief (OCHA), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) among others. In post-conflict reconstruction, lack of strategic coordination amongst key actors is a major challenge. Lack of national policy on conflict resolution and peace building in Kenya has made the reconstruction conditions to be more fragile. There is need for adopting effective strategies in the reconstruction process. These include the use of local community knowledge, adopting of appropriate models and policies, considerations on prevailing national and regional environment, unique institutional challenges such as the capacity of local communities and government agencies and justice systems. Other strategies include adopting inclusive Peace Committees within government, improving operational environment for properly established CSOs with diverse capacities in the immediate aftermath of conflict. Since post conflict period creates new challenges for their relations with the state and international donors, monitoring and evaluation of sensitive national activities such as general elections is necessary. Traditional dispute resolution mechanisms should be explored.

Key Words: Post-Conflict Reconstruction, Actors, Policy

Introduction

The signing of a peace agreement or any other event that marks the official end of war, signals the beginning of post-conflict reconstruction (Anderlini and El-Bushra, 2009). According to the former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan, post-conflict reconstruction refers to "... the comprehensive efforts to identify and support structures which will tend to consolidate peace and advance a sense of confidence and well-being among people" (Burke, 2010). For the purposes of policy framework, post-conflict reconstruction is understood as a complex system that provides for simultaneous short, medium and long-term programmes to prevent disputes from escalating, avoid a relapse into violent conflict, and to build and consolidate sustainable peace (NEPAD, 2005).

According to NEPAD (2005), post-conflict reconstruction starts when hostilities end, typically in the form of a cease-fire agreement or peace agreement. It requires a coherent and coordinated multidimensional response by a broad range of internal and external actors, including government, civil society, the private sector and international agencies. These various actors undertake a range of interrelated programmes

that span the security, political, socio-economic and reconciliation dimensions of society and that collectively and cumulatively addresses both the causes and consequences of the conflict and, in the long-term, establishes the foundations for social-justice and sustainable peace and development. In some cases, bilateral or multilateral agencies arrive to work with national governments, and to manage and disburse most funds for social and economic reconstruction. The transition from war to peace is not smooth (Anderlini, and El-Bushra, 2009). This is the period, "emergency relief, rehabilitation work and development assistance co-exist…and interact."

Kimathi (2010) notes that in Africa, post-conflict reconstruction has become more prominent because of the peace processes in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda, Sudan, Burundi, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and the Comoros, among others. At regional level, the United Nations (UN), African Union (AU), New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), and other regional organizations have formulated policy frameworks to deal with post-conflict reconstruction and development (Burke, 2010).

Phases of Post Conflict Reconstruction

NEPAD (2005) defines the phases as the emergency phase - the period that follows immediately after the end of hostilities; the transition phase - a period from the transition from an appointed interim government, followed by, in the shortest reasonable period, some form of election or legitimate traditional process to (s)elect a transitional government. The relationship between the internal and external players should reflect a growing partnership and a gradual handover of ever-increasing responsibility to the internal actors. There should be specific programmes aimed at building the capacity of the internal actors. The subsequent stage, the transitional phase typically ranges from one to three years. The next stage, the development phase is aimed at supporting the newly elected government and the civil society with a broad range of programmes aimed at fostering reconciliation, boosting socio-economic reconstruction and supporting ongoing development programmes across the dimensions of post-conflict reconstruction.

Kimathi (2010) however notes that in Africa, factionalism has always been politically prevalent, and states have more often been instruments of private predation and extraction rather than tools for the pursuit of public goods and reconstruction process remains a challenge. Africa is unique in the extent to which its states were already dysfunctional prior to violent collapse and failure. Most African states have never had very effective institutions, relying instead on the personalized networks of patronage. They have rarely, if ever, generated sustainable growth or managed to absorb members of the country's youth economically.

It is possible to identify a broad framework of dimensions, phases and issues that appear to be common to most post-conflict reconstruction systems. NEPAD (2005) notes post-conflict reconstruction systems contain five dimensions: security; political transition, governance and participation; socio-economic development; human rights, justice and reconciliation; and coordination, management and resource mobilization. Each of the dimensions is an important ingredient in building a sustainable social system. The critical role of local populations in post conflict reconstruction is often overshadowed by the arrival of external actors, but there is acknowledgment that ultimately effective and sustainable reconstruction is largely determined by the commitment and capacities of local populations, including national government and civil society, to maintain the process. Increasingly, international actors are reaching out to local organizations in partnership for reconstruction efforts. Yet, often grassroots groups at the front

lines of recovery are marginalized and excluded.

Actors and Strategies

Some actors have always played a major role in reconstruction processes in the East Africa region, Kenya included. The World Bank Group with its institutions is significant. The institutions including the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) the International Development Association (IDA), the International Finance Corporation (IFC); the Multi-lateral Investment Guarantee Agency; and the International Center for the Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID), cover areas of social and economic reconstruction. Some of these cover arbitration and mediation services in case of disputes. The Bank also promotes policies on gender equality. These policies aim to reduce gender disparities and enhance women's participation in the economic development of member countries. Region-Specific Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs) have also played a role in providing financial assistance and professional advice to countries for economic and social development regionally.

The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Relief (OCHA), the United Nations (UN) focal point for responding to complex emergencies and natural disasters has a mandate to coordinate humanitarian responses, develop policies and undertake advocacy. In Kenya, OCHA supported programmes on the resettlement of Internally Displaced Persons after the post-election violence in 2007. The UN agency works closely with UNDP in the post-2007 era in Kenya to promote social reconstruction initiatives. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in particular has enhanced support for development issues, particularly focusing on democratic governance, poverty reduction, crisis prevention and recovery, sustainable energy, environment and HIV/AIDS. Traditionally, UNDP has focused most of its work on partnership with national or governmental entities, but it is also a prime partner and donor to civil society organizations, including national NGOs and local community-based organizations. The UN body is also the leader in formulating the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) for any country. Through the framework, policy and programme priorities have been defined for countries for a five-year period.

Other Agencies of the UN Family are also involved in post conflict social and economic recovery efforts. The International Labour Organization (ILO), which specializes in labour rights and the promotion of social justice and human rights, is a key actor in addressing economic and employment issues in post war countries. The World Food Programme (WFP) is the leading UN agency in providing food and fighting hunger in crises and emergency situations, including conflict. The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), the lead agency in ensuring food security is supportive of agricultural activity that enhance food security in Kenya; The UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) in the protection of children. In civil strife affected areas of Kenya, UNICEF has actively been involved in restoring schools and providing education.

The UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) project provides a means of reconstruction where they are pursued in conflict-affected zones. Areas covered include gender equality and women's empowerment. In practice, more progress is still needed to achieve equality. According to the World Bank, the MDGs commit the international community to an expanded vision of development, one that vigorously promotes human development as the key to sustaining social and economic progress in all countries, and recognizes the importance of creating a global partnership for development. Many of the countries furthest from achieving the MDGs are those affected by conflict. The introduction of MDGs in Kenya has made it possible to restructure the relationship among donors and between donors, recipient

governments and civil society. The mechanism for this is the Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) process which is meant to be participatory, involving government, financial institutions and civil society agreeing on the priorities for effective reconstruction.

In 1997, a committee of the Organization for Economic Development and Cooperation (OECD) issued its Guidelines on Conflict, Peace and Development Co-operation on the Threshold of the 21st Century, which set a new standard in international aid to conflict-affected states. In 2004, Guidelines on Helping to Prevent Conflict was published as a supplement to the 1997 work. Among the key principles noted to the development community is that they should actively engage women, men and youth in peace-building and policy-making processes. All actors need to take better account of the pervasive linkages between gender differences and violent conflicts and their prevention and resolution and; reinforce local capacities to influence public policy and tackle social and political exclusion (OECD, 2004a). Embracing these principles will ensure coordinated and participatory take-off for conflict afflicted communities.

Bilateral Donors including the United States (US), Canada, Sweden, members of the European Union (EU), Japan and many other states – provide funds through the UN and World Bank, and directly to national governments, international and national NGOs and private companies and subcontractors for reconstruction work. The US Agency for International Development (USAID) primarily supports long-term development efforts and is a major actor in the provision of emergency humanitarian assistance to war-torn regions. Similarly the primary goal of the Department for International Development (DfID) is to reduce poverty globally. Its Conflict and Humanitarian Affairs Department focuses on conflict-related issues. Some bilateral agencies have policies on gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment in their operational efforts. DfID, Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and EU also support gender and poverty alleviation initiatives. International NGOs have not been left behind in issues of reconstruction. They undertake a wide variety of activities.

National Actors play a pivotal role in negotiating funding from the international community and setting its priorities. The main preoccupations of the state in the immediate post-conflict period are likely to be military security, reconciliation, establishing political structures and integrating previously conflicting parties into national machineries. In Uganda, an education program including building schools and training teachers) was created through the Northern Uganda Reconstruction Programme as a means of countering years of neglect that had ultimately led to the drain of young men away from school and into rebel forces. Civil society organizations are also important actors.

For-Profit Contractors, such as construction companies, often have a strong presence in post-conflict countries, opening offices, hiring local staff and further subcontracting aspects of work to locally owned businesses. They also offer job opportunities and collaboration with local businesses and NGOs. In many cases contractors have a specific mandate regarding gender equity during hiring of staff.

Challenges to Post-Conflict Reconstruction in Kenya

Strategic coordination amongst key actors has been lacking in conflict management and peace building. These conflicts, mainly manifesting as political, economic, environmental include; conflicts over natural resources, land and tribal clashes and lately, terrorism are sending signals that all is not good as the outside world has been erroneously been made to believe. Pastoralists in northern Kenya have borne much of the

brunt of internal conflicts and considerable efforts have been directed at addressing their specific conflict environment by a number of stakeholders that include GOK, CSOs, religious organizations and CBOs. The resource-based conflicts prevalent in ASALs have completely distorted development programmes and eroded civil administration of this vast and rugged countryside.

The dawn of multi-party politics in Kenya brought in its wake new dimensions of conflict. Communities were divided along political and ideological lines, which gave rise to protracted and institutionalized waves of tribal and land clashes. Recent developments associated with terrorist groups like the August 7, 1998 bomb blast in Nairobi have behooved mankind to think more beyond inter and intra state conflicts and civil strife. Terrorism not only in Kenya but also in the whole world has brought in a new fundamental dimension in the realm of conflict management and community safety. Following the post-election fall-out in Kenya as a result of a disputed presidential elections result, a grave humanitarian crisis engulfed the nation. Neighbors turned against each other; hundreds of thousands of people were displaced; over one thousand lives were lost; and an approximate of a thousand plus rape cases reported. Go Petition (2008) notes "This was a shock to Kenyans, and served a severe blow to the socio-economic and political progress of Kenya; once seen as a model democracy for Africa." This appears to be a complex conflict that require different strategies from those used before.

Currently there is no national policy on conflict resolution and peace building in Kenya due to unfavorable political climate. Apart from the draft terrorism bill, disaster management (floods and drought) and famine relief issues, there are no existing functional frameworks for conflict management. What exists is fragmented and uncoordinated policy statements embedded in various thematic policy issues like the ASAL draft policy, EMCA, PRSP, NEPAD, and Police Act among other documents. Nevertheless, the National Steering Committee on conflict management and peace building initiatives has come up with a draft national policy on peace building and conflict management.

Lack of a policy framework to establish and or formalize the linkages between traditional vs. contemporary laws of managing conflict, the absence of a mechanism to recognize, resettle and rebuild shattered livelihoods of internally displaced persons (IDPs) and the policy guideline on how natural resources (including trans-boundary natural resources) could be exploited in a sustainable and peaceful way for the benefit of many are the many policy issues and constraints of conflict transformation in Kenya.

There are gaps in existing response mechanisms during conflicts and after (GoK, 2009). Inadequate capacity building for peace; ineffective Government response mechanisms; lack of legal framework for traditional conflict handling mechanisms; inadequate inter-faith dialogue; inadequate gender mainstreaming and analysis; limited research and analysis of conflict; weak reconciliation and healing initiatives; absence of a Code of Conduct and inadequate resource mobilization. It has been established that in the past, policies have been implemented with no regard for community local knowledge, their indigenous systems of governance and natural resource management (NEPAD, 2005). This scenario has afflicted communities in Mt. Elgon and Mai Mahiu areas in Kenya where natural resource and livelihood forms have been at the centre of conflicts by neighbouring communities. In a study conducted in the Mt. Elgon area, Kamoet (2011) established that local and national politics served to exacerbate the already fragile relations that had developed between the Soy and Mosop (Ndorobo) clans over a long period of time. He underscored the theoretical underpinning that continued deprivation of inalienable community resources such as land and access to opportunities are likely to impact negatively on peace and sustainable development in the region for a long period of time. The study found benefits in support for ongoing efforts to achieve home-

grown land policy and attendant land laws that hold the government accountable to its citizens. OECD (2004b) affirms that more firmly established property rights over land should increase the opportunity cost of recruiting rebel fighters and reduce the scope for violent conflict

More recently, the National Steering Committee on Peace Building and Conflict Management has not only developed a draft framework for a policy on conflict management but also formulated a draft national policy on peace building and conflict management (Adan & Pkalya, 2012). The establishment of district peace committees and Police Reservist programme are the overt attempts by the government to woo public involvement in peace building. More often than not, policy makers are operating under conditions of market failure caused by factors such as droughts, flooding and civil strife. An understanding of how demand and supply forces interact during such times is critical to the formulation of policies for conflict resolution that provide for processes and programs that enhance and facilitate economic growth, expanded trade, strategic food stocks, commercial imports and poverty alleviation. There is need to look beyond the immediate triggers of conflicts by formulating policies and economic blue prints that seek to improve household incomes, access to education and social services especially in marginalized pastoralist and rural Kenya.

Instability in Kenya's neighboring states has resulted in increased cross border conflicts, proliferation of small arms and humanitarian crisis resulting in the loss of life and property.

Institutional challenges such as the capacity of security forces and other government agencies to prevent, mitigate and manage conflict remain despite the growing recognition by the government of the need to address conflict as a development issue in collaboration with other partners such as civil society, private sector and development partners.

The restoration of justice is seen to be the most important goal in post-conflict reconstruction. However, the current policy approaches, social movements and theoretical models for conflict resolution and post-conflict reconstruction tend to look at justice from technical point of view, as a rapid institutional and/or legal fix to overcome war and violence in order to establish 'peace' and to guarantee 'security' (Hellsten, 2012). Consequently, the wider concept of 'social justice' is often replaced with the concepts of 'law and order'.

Conclusions

Post conflict reconstruction takes root meaningfully when there is restoration of sustainable peace with justice. By embracing these, communities can co-exist in harmony. There are many actors across the globe on issues of post-conflict reconstruction. These include UN agencies, international Non-Governmental Organizations, regional organizations and national organizations. Their operations span across sectors of economies. Strategies such as fighting hunger and support for agricultural activity that enhance food security are applied. Other strategies are the protection of children and women during times of crises. Kenya, like other areas affected by strife, has been supported by the agencies in reconstruction processes whenever conflicts are encountered.

Efforts towards reconstruction have not been fruitful in some instances because of various reasons including political interference, local community traditions, natural resource endowment and ethnic affiliations. Successful strategies need to consider all these factors in order to realize lasting rehabilitation.

Recommendations

i. Some intervention strategies exist to address conflict at community, national, regional and international levels. These measures range from district peace committees, traditional peace processes and participation in regional peace and security initiatives. The National Policy on Peace-building and Conflict Management must articulate innovative strategies to overcome the gaps in current approaches, and guide peace building and conflict management initiatives in the coming years for sustainable human security in Kenya.

ii. Civil society organizations often have greater capacities than state entities in the immediate aftermath of conflict. There is need to support the strengthening of the state's and CSOs' capacities to assert their roles and ensure smooth and faster reconstruction

iii. There should be greater concern for the development of an effective advocacy strategy that will inform the policy formulation and implementation process. These issues if addressed will enhance the potential for the policy to create an environment where peace may prevail.

iv. Among other things, role of alternative (traditional) dispute resolution mechanisms, the legitimacy of peace and development committees, gender mainstreaming in peace building, human wildlife conflicts and conformity of the policy to regional and international statutes that Kenya is signatory to, are some of the issues that needs to be flagged out and conclusively addressed by the draft policy on conflict management in Kenya.

v. There is the need to make definitions of human rights, justice and reconciliation accessible to all through the use of local languages. Kenyans should participate in policy consultations as well as prevailing upon their representatives to push for the enactment of the peace building and conflict transformation policy.

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PEACE AND SECURITY: COUNTER TERRORISM THROUGH SPORTS

Bukhala Peter & Kweyu W. Issah

Abstract

Terrorism has shaken the core of the Kenyan social fabric. Since 1980 when the first terrorist attacks at the Norfork Hotel, many people have lost their lives and property. This is in addition to sporadic attacks by cattle rustlers which have left many dead in communities. The approach to combat this menace has been to report any suspicious characters, increase police surveillance and screening. These methods have not worked effectively. New attacks that are more violent have left more Kenyans dead or maimed. There have been different ways to react to such devastating setbacks. These have included sending the military to deal with the terrorists at source, calls to close all refugee camps, or the recent house -to-house search in Eastleigh- Nairobi for insurgents. The recent massacres of University students at Garissa University have brought a new twist to this situation. Terrorists have no mercy to women or men and once they attack all are in danger. This paper presents the need to train Kenyans on defensive reactions to such attacks. Through sports, young people in communities can be engaged to expend their negative energies in more positive activities. Such activities as martial arts, fitness programmes, and sports competitions have been used in the past to prepare communities to handle aggression. For those who have survived, sports are a sure way of rising above this adversity. A comparative analysis of what other nations globally have done through physical activities will be discussed.

Key words: Terrorism, defensive Sports, adventure sports

Introduction

Terrorism has shaken the core of the Kenyan fabric and other countries worldwide. Since 1980 when the first terrorist attacks at the Norfork Hotel, many people have lost their lives due to terrorism. Sporadic attacks by cattle rustlers and other vigilante groups have left many dead and property destroyed. Approaches that have been used to combat this menace have been to report any suspicious characters, increase police surveillance and screening. These methods have not worked effectively resulting in new attacks that are more violent leaving more Kenyans dead or maimed. There have been different ways to react to such devastating setbacks world over. In Kenya these have included sending the military to deal with the terrorists at source, calls to close all refugee camps, or the recent house to house search for insurgents like the case of Eastleigh in Nairobi. Causes that have been cited for youth involvement in crime including terrorism have included promise of money for poverty stricken, radicalization, indoctrination, traditional cultural practices like cattle rustling. The changing tactics in terror attacks requires the public to review its pre- and post-terror strategies. The media has sometimes used also generalizations that could complicate the fight against terrorism. For instance use of phrases like Muslim terrorist which criminalizes Muslims who may not be supporters of terrorism and when treated like suspects can easily transform some into sympathizers. It may be true all terrorists are Muslims but it doesn't make it correct that all Muslims are terrorists. Media being an authoritative source of information therefore confuses the public while injuring public image of good Muslims that could be useful in the fight against terrorism. Another challenge arises from media is selective use of terminologies that refer to criminal gangs. For instance, Dr. Kony of the Lord Resistance Army in Uganda being referred to as a rebels (and not Christian

terrorist/rebel) while captain Morgan in Somalia being referred to as Muslim terrorist (and not a rebel). This descriptive discrepancy is only linguistic or semantic because both are killing people in the name of fighting their governments. This approach technically excludes instead of including Muslims in the fight against terrorism.

The scope and practice of Physical Education and Sport programmes include knowledge, skills and attitude. Knowledge is essential in preventing radicalization and indoctrination; skills are useful in self defense in a combat situation or for escape from a terror situation while attitude will minimize hatred and suspicion that works against ethnic coexistence and religious tolerance required for a united nation. This is important because a society divided on racial, religious, gender or social class lines is more vulnerable to any attack.

Counter -terrorism through sports

Embracing sports ideals like 'Olympism', fair play and sportsmanship will regulate highly competitive events without transforming opponents into enemies. Institutionalizing Olympic Values and Ideals is one of the ways to create a stable society. Terrorism and general crime thrives in a divided society that lacks shared values and common world view. For instance, Symbols and traditions of Olympism include the Olympic motto "Citius, Attius, Fortuis (means ever faster, higher and stronger) that encourages participation than winning. The Olympic Flag consists of five rings of blue, yellow, black, green and red on a white background representing all member continents. The Olympic oath that was first used in the 1920 Olympic Games at Antwerp is a commitment of the participants to sports ideals. The Olympic torch relay was initiated during the 1936 Olympic Games at Berlin to signify peace and invitation to attend the Olympics. The Olympic village began in the 1924 games at Paris and was mandatory in 1949. All the participants in Olympic Games are required to stay in the Olympic Village as a symbol of unity and cultural exchange.

Sport plays a significant role in the act of bridging groups separated by conflict, particularly amidst entrenched ethnic divides. For instance, Football for Peace initiative of the University of Brighton and the British Council since 2001 has organized football opportunities for Jewish and Arab youth in Northern Israel. This was to enable the youth to experience a measure of cultural co-existence where very few such chances abound. Gasser and Levinsen (2004) argue that the work of Open Fun Football Schools has been " strikingly successful" in reintegrating ethnic communities in Bosnia and Herzegovina, primarily through fostering play between young people from different groups while encouraging, parents, coaches, and organizers to cooperate in support of the youth.

Fair play is a way of thinking not just behaving. It incorporates friendship, respect for others and always playing within the right spirit. It aims at elimination of cheating, doping, violence and sexual violation or exploitation, unequal opportunities, corruption. Through fair play, participants show modesty and exposure in both victory and defeat. This represents a society whose members cannot be readily radicalized or be incited against each other.

Physical education and sports has been instrumental in enforcing national goals of Education in Kenya. For instance, various sports have been used as a strategy in fostering nationalism, patriotism, and promoting National cohesion and Unity. This has been exhibited by the nationwide support of national

teams during international events by citizens irrespective of their background or affiliation. This strategy works in and out of school at all levels of sports participation. It is an education process that uses physical activity as a means to help individuals acquire skills, fitness, knowledge and attitudes that contribute to their development and well-being (Daryl, 2001, Mwathi & Kamenju, 2010)

Success stories that have borrowed from this strategy include the Tegla Loroupe Peace Run that hosts over eleven races in the horn of Africa. This periodically organized event was meant to bring peace and harmony among warring communities due to cattle rustling. During the races Participants are required to surrender their guns as participation eligibility criteria. During participation the Participants realized that the prize money was more than the value of cows stolen the risk notwithstanding. To win a marathon one has to train hard during the day hence rest at night in preparation for the training the following day instead of going for raiding that would result in retaliatory attacks. The peaceful atmosphere improves delivery of essential services like education and health. In the peace programme, the youth have a chance to be rehabilitated and be re integrated back into the society if they denounce the practice.

Another example is the Mathare Youth Sports Association (MYSA) that recruits youth from slums that vulnerable to crime and violence and instead equips them with sports skills to elite status. This enables them generate income from sports. For instance, records show Michael Jordan to have earned USD 90m during his career, Mayweather USD 105m, Dennis Oliech 828,000 euros per year and Victor Wanyama USD 15,990,000 annually. Such earnings prevent predisposition to recruitment into criminal gangs on due to poverty. Sports training as a socialization tool utilize both formal and non confrontational methodology for behavior modification and reintegration especially for the youth who surrender after participating in terror and criminal activities.

Religion and sports have huge enthusiastic and sometimes, fanatical followers. Both draw membership from across the board (age, gender, class profession and race) Religious extremism has been largely blamed for terrorism. Harmonizing these two forces will result in moderating extreme religious values of monotheism and religious brotherhood with liberal sports ideals like team work, fair play and sportsmanship. The expected outcome will be dual personality with integrated traits. As illustrated in Carron's conceptual model for cohesiveness in teamwork (Weinberg and Gould, 1999) the leadership will be required to have orientations to be able to harmonize sports ideals with religious values. For instance, ones and unity of God combined with fairness should be reflected in teamwork and brotherhood while demonstrating both physical and spiritual fitness. A leader with these traits (a religious coach) will have both orientations and can exploit the harmonized personality to bring change in and out of the field. The outcome of this integration will be changed individual who will be members of the transformed society. This is summarized in figure below.

Recommendations

This article makes a number of recommendations. Religious leaders need to be inducted in methodology of using sports as a strategy among the followers to moderate extreme values. Sports would be ideal because it cuts across gender, age, race and class. Sports activities for religious groups can be designed specifically to meet the religious needs of the following the dual personality needs of human beings.

For the youth surrendering from terror and other criminal activities, de-radicalization and integration

back to society can be done through sports. This will lead to harmonization of ideals and values from different fields.

National cohesion and integration among youth in school and colleges through the teaching of Physical Education and participating in sports will be a useful way in enforcing national values. This is in addition to knowledge and skills necessary for preparedness and self defense in disaster situations.

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COMPETENCY TRAINING OF POLICE OFFICERS: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

Francis O. Otiato

Abstract

The foundation of the present Kenya Police Service rests on the roots of Colonial British Empire. This has made the police service to not enjoy a comfortable interaction with Kenyan Citizen. In fact, the continued use of police in political assignments during the regimes of President Kenyatta and President Moi reinforced the image of the police as an instrument of political repression rather than a tool to fight crime resulting in the demand for police reforms by civil right activists. Recognizing the central role played by the general public in a democratic criminal justice system, the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government oversaw the change of Kenya Police force structures to embrace the community-oriented policing (COP) philosophy. Noting the dynamic nature of community-oriented policing, scholars have raised various questions regarding the suitable requirements for community police recruits, the abilities, knowledge and attitudes that one must develop to be a good police officer, and the most practical and effective ways to provide the needed training and education. It is against this background that the current article endeavoured to conduct an extensive literature review aimed at presenting emerging trends in police recruitment and training, focusing on what is most important for the Kenya Police Service to address if they are to hire and train competent police officers best suited for community oriented policing. Findings reveal that professionalism based upon a service ideal is intrinsically related to higher educational standards and police officers with a college education background generally have strong spoken and written communication abilities, make better discretionary judgments, and have greater understanding for and sensitivity of varying lifestyles and attitude. The current results provide further evidence that police officers spend 90% of their time on tasks in which they have received no training.

Keywords: Community-oriented Policing, Competence, Educational level, Police work, Police training, Professionalism**.**

Introduction

The broad fact of the need to reform Kenya Police is well known and often recited. Following its foundation on the British colonial structures, the Kenya Police Service has not enjoyed a comfortable interaction with Kenyan Citizen (Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003). With the hostility that the British faced in the construction of the Mombasa- Uganda railway from various African communities, security was of paramount concern. With the outbreak of the Mau - Mau war in 1952, the police force was thrust onto the centre-stage of containing the insurgency, further sharpening its political edge to the disadvantage of its crime investigations, and cementing its alienation from the Kenyan population. In fact, continued use of police in political assignments during President Kenyatta's and President Moi's regimes reinforced the image of the police as an instrument of political repression rather than to fight crime (Hills, 2000; Marenin, 1982). Thus, the demand for reforms by civil right activists was inevitable.

Having been elected by a landslide victory on the basis of a pledge to deal with Kenya's corruption, crime and poverty, the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) under the leadership of Mwai Kibaki oversaw the change of Kenya Police force structures to embrace the community-oriented policing (COP) philosophy,

(Hills, 2002). The Kenya police also introduced measures such as transparent management (open-door policy) and an independent oversight body to ensure their own accountability (Hinton & Newbum, 2009). As described by the Community Policing Consortium (1999), Community-Oriented Policing consists of three fundamental and interrelated core segments: community partnership, problem solving, and change management. Despite the importance of the core components and the of community-oriented policing monies flowing to Kenya Police, there has been a limited success in policing. According to Goldstein (1990), measures of success for Community-Oriented Policing programs are the reduced fear of crime among citizens, increased trust on the part of the public, and the readiness of the public to work together with police to solve crime and other society problems. With the recent terrorist attacks in Kenya, the continued ranking of Kenya police among the most corrupt institutions in Kenya, and the persistent mistrust between the police and Kenyan citizenry maybe an indicator of failure of the COP programs.

Importantly, the problem of failed COP programmes is not unique to Kenya, and in many cases, other police departments around the globe have been grappling with the challenge for some time. Scholars as varied as their countries of origin have raised a myriad of questions relating to the suitable requirements for COP police recruits, the abilities, knowledge and attitudes that one must develop to be a good police officer, and the most practical and effective ways to provide the needed training and education. It is therefore considerably valuable to conduct an extensive literature review on recruitments and training through an international lens as this broader perspective both highlights important differences between Kenya and other countries, and provides critical insights into lessons learned elsewhere.

It is against this background that the current article endeavoured to conduct an extensive literature review aimed at presenting emerging trends in police recruitment and training, focusing on what is most important for Kenya Police to address if they are to hire and train competent police officers best suited for community oriented policing.

Community-Oriented Policing Officer

According to Bradford and Pynes (1999), the Community Policing model requires police officers to exercise more discretion, identify and examine problems of interest to the society, and work with the population to solve problems. Oettmeier & Wycoff (1994) advise that the focus of police work as provided for under the Kenya Police Service Act should shift from its traditional reactive posture to incorporate a variety of proactive responses that satisfy the demand of local communities. The focal areas include: maintenance of law and order, preservation of peace, protection of life and property, the preservation and detection of crime, the apprehension of offenders and the enforcement of all laws and regulations.

Vollmer (1939:5) observes;

> The citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategical training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological, and social sciences. If he had all these, he might be a good policeman.

Along these lines, White and Escobar (2008) argue that efforts to achieve goals identified by Vollmer (1939) begins with thorough recruitment and selection process and continues with effective training that properly prepares police officers for the job, but unfortunately in Kenya just like many other third world

Countries, these issues have been given short-shrift.

Education requirements for Police Officers

It has been observed that "…some twenty professional groups, including law, medicine, engineering, architecture, teaching, veterinary medicine, pharmacy among others have set minimum academic requirements to improve the quality and economic status of their practitioners in order to protect the public" (Hoover, 1975:13). The implication for the police service is obvious. Genuine professionalism based upon a service ideal is intrinsically related to higher educational standards. The advocates of professionalism in the police service concurrently have advocated higher educational standards, (Bradford & Pynes, 1999).

According to White and Escobar (2008), the society has become increasingly educated, therefore, it is necessary for police to keep pace with the larger public; they explain that college-educated recruits will be older, more mature, and better rounded. In fact, they argue that those who study criminal justice at college bring with them a more in-depth knowledge of the system, its various components, how it functions, as well as the prevailing theories on the causes of crime. Studies by Vodica (1994) and Carter and Sapp (1992) concluded that police officer candidates with college education usually have strong spoken and written communication abilities, make better discretional judgments, and have greater understanding for and tolerance of varying lifestyles and attitudes.

Although, research on impact of college education on officer performance have been mixed, with others arguing that college education does not provide the skills needed to perform the job because skills come exclusively from experience on the job – most jurisdictions have embarrassed college degree standards. Though not a requirement, most police departments in developed countries hire college-educated recruits. For example in the United States, by 1988, 65% of police officers had some college education, and 23% had a bachelor's degree (White & Escobar, 2008).

Sweden, however, requires the equivalent of two years in college because "…it is assumed that requiring high academic achievement increases the probability of selecting recruits who will understand and apply interpersonal communication and human relations concepts when interacting with the public" (Lord, 1998:284). Moreover, the first 40 weeks of police training employs a liberal arts approach to nearly 300 hours of curricula that includes jurisprudence, psychology, social policy, forensic science, and foreign language (Lord, 1998). In Brazil, the federal and most state police departments require a university degree to enter the 'career'. Indeed, according to Lino (2004:129), the Brazilian State Military Police recently changed its recruitment process... "admitting applicants who are law graduates for the rank of Captain, after a six-month training period at the academy".

Educational upgrading recommendations

The American President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice pointed out that:

> The failure to establish high professional standards in police service has been a costly one, both for the police and for society. Existing selection requirements and procedures for the majority of

departments… do not screen out the unfit… the nature of police service will not significantly advance until higher educational qualifications are set for its personnel (Hoover, 1975:13).

The Commission recommended the eventual establishment of a bachelor degree requirement of all police personnel with the suggested specific time-table for the implementation of a bachelor degree requirement as indicated below.

a) Every policy agency was to require immediately, as a condition of initial employment, the completion of at least one (1) year of education (30 semester units) at an accredited College or University. Otherwise, qualified police applicants who do not satisfy this condition, but who have earned a high school certificate or its equivalent, was to be employed under a contract requiring completion of the educational requirement within three (3) years of initial employment.

b) Every police agency was not later than 1975, require as a condition of initial employment the achievement of at least two (2) years of education (60 semester units) at accredited College or University.

c) No later than 1978, every police agency was, require as a condition of initial employment the achievement of at least three (3) years of education (90 semester units) at an accredited College or University.

d) No later than 1982, every police agency was required as a condition of initial employment the achievement of at least four (4) years of education (120 semester units or bachelors degree) at an accredited College or University.

Trends in Law Enforcement Selection

The task of selecting people for police work has produced different procedures over the years, none of which has shown marked efficacy (Reinke, 1977). The traditional police-officer selection techniques have relied on paper and pencil test of aptitude, personality, character, temperate, interests, values and attitudes which have been found to be good predictors of academic achievement at the training academy but not on the job performance (Henderson, 1979; Hirsch, Northrop & Schmidt, 1986).

To foretell field performance, Mills, McDevitt, and Tonkin (1966) have suggested that the non-intellectual traits of strong police performance could be shown through the use of situational tests. Situational testing permits behavioral observations to be used to study a police candidate in action. Through situational testing, candidates are exposed to a carefully constructed situation. The candidates' reactions to the situation produce behaviour that may predict their reactions to similar situations in the future (Mills et al., 1966).

Assessment Centre Method

The American Task Force on Assessment Center Standards defines an assessment center as a: "standardized evaluation of behavior based on multiple inputs. Multiple trained observers and techniques are used. Judgments about behaviors are made, in part, from specially developed assessment simulations. These judgments are pooled by the assessors at an evaluative meeting during which evaluation data are recorded and reviewed by the assessors" (Task Force, 1980:35).

According to Pynes (1988), Assessment Center results tend to be more accurate than interviews because

raters can see how efficient the applicants are by the behaviors they exhibit in multiple exercises. During an interview, candidates only provide verbal descriptions of their behaviors, actual behaviors are not demonstrated. The variety of exercises used in an assessment center allows raters to base their decisions on various sources of data thereby decreasing measurement errors. The use of multiple raters tends to make the evaluations more trustworthy. Moreover, skills such as interpersonal relationships, perceptions, decision-making, and decisiveness are difficult to assess in an interview or by a written exam (Muchinsky, 1987).

Bradford (1998) identified three essential elements of pre-employment background investigation of candidates, namely: (1) Positive Candidate Identification, (2) An in-depth character evaluation to determine the applicant's ability, emotions, motivation, and characteristics, (3) A revelation of the full extent of a candidate's criminal history.

COP Police Training Curriculum

An analysis of the present day's police training curriculum shows that problem solving, and interpersonal skills development are still a low priority of administrators and education executives. Conventional wisdom, however, acknowledges that the role of police officers has evolved, and the new competencies required for the successful execution of community-oriented policing need higher priority on the training hierarchy. Brandley & Connors (2007) explains that police communications, criminal investigations, crime prevention, interview and interrogations, field Note Taking and Report Writing, Patrol Operation, and Collection and Preservation of Evidence are very critical components of community policing – but the problem is with the Police Academies instruction method. They suggested that students should be grouped and exposed to real life scenarios (problem-based learning).

Discussing problems and providing tentative explanations for the phenomena, describing each in terms of some underlying process, principle and mechanism is assumed to develop the skills necessary to assess a problem, determine what is wrong, and make choices on how to handle the problem. The second objective of problem-based learning is to enhance the acquisition, retention, and use of knowledge. Researchers believe that learning new knowledge in the context of problems may foster its transfer and use when need for a solution to similar problems. This model shares many of the same characteristics of adult learning (Bradford & Pynes, 1999). It is on this backgrounds that the current study choose to be guided by Andragogy theory of adult learning.

Andragogy Theory of Adult Learning

According to Malcom Knowles (1968), andragogy is the art and sciences of helping adults learn. Birzer (2004) examined the application of the andragogical principles in criminal justice programmes. He explained that andragogical approach provided a guidance to design learner-centered education to improve competencies and qualities needed for criminal justice professionals. Birzer proposes the utilization of the six principles of andragogical training in criminal justice as follows:

   i.   Build a physically and psychologically conducive learning environment: - In criminal justice classrooms, good physical and psychological atmosphere help the teacher

create mutual respect and collaborative setting to ensure learning effectiveness in the classroom. Besides, a psychologically conducive environment helps cultivate trust which is very important in the justice program.

ii. Involve students in interactive planning: - The teacher and learners can collectively design the training process and improve a syllabus based on learning interests and activities.

iii. Involve students in diagnosing learning needs: - The instructor can help students determine the level of competency in the area of interest.

iv. Help learners to formulate the learning objectives.

v. Help learners to identify resources to achieve the learning objectives: - The teacher works jointly with learners to identify resources and sets up approaches to use those resources to attain the objectives.

vi. Involve students in learning evaluation: - A learning evaluation is critical in Andragogy, but students also evaluate themselves. This method helps reduce prejudice from a single decision of the teacher (Birzer, 2004 p. 395).

In 2003, Birzer examined how andragogy was applied in police training and noted that many police training programs have followed behaviorist and militaristic methods which are not suitable for police training. Birzer argues that police officers should be self-starters in solving problems in the community. Applying the andragogical approach helps police officers develop problem-solving skills and become self-directed in dealing with community issues. The instructors are needed to create case scenarios in the classroom and encourage learners to utilize their experiences to solve the problems (Chan, 2010).

Research design and future research

Previous non-experimental researches and programme evaluation, although inconclusive, provide several important lessons in research design. A strong research design must generate data with three related characteristics. First, the design must yield data that will help identify police training effect. Second, information about the conditions of training should be available for analysis. Third, the design must take special steps to ensure that both professional and life course experiences of police officers are completely observed. These general design characteristics have a number of concrete implications for future research.

To identify training effect, we need information about police training that is unrelated to behavioral characteristics that influence an individual's performance. A number of designs try to provide this information by observing police officers' work performance before and after training. With this information, the change in performance of duty by police officer observed after training is plausibly due to training and not enduring behavioral characteristics of police officers. A similar approach involves collecting data from a control group – say police office but with no other training. Survey research has also collected detailed behavioural information. Measures of cognitive ability, self-control, or a history of learning problems, can all help to isolate statistically the experience of incarceration from its behavioural covariates. A research design featuring pre-training observation and behavioural covariates provide some leverage in making a causal inference about performance effect of police training.

Information about police training can also be provided by data on the conditions of training. Program me evaluation sensitizes us to the fact that the outcome of training can vary greatly across institutions.

Still, outside of the evaluation field, police training and police curriculum are black boxes. Police recruits enter police training facilities and are later posted to work stations, but the actual content of training is usually unobserved. Participation in the training program, characteristics of the surrounding training environment, police culture, and conditions of training may all influence post-training performance. To the extent that these institutional characteristics are exogenous features of the police training, unrelated to officers' characteristics, data on the conditions of police training can assist in the identification of causal effects.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on review of the literature, the study find evidence from a variety of sources that police training appears to be inconsistent with the police role (Cummings, 1965; Germann, 1969; Kelling, Wasserman, & Williams, 1988; Meadows, 1986; Ness, 1981). In fact, Germann (1969) found that 90% of police training was dedicated to fields and activities in which policemen only spent 10% of their time, meaning that police officers spent 90% of their time in jobs for which they got no training.

Instead of curricula focusing on the memorization of laws, rules, and procedures, police training should expand to include community relations, interpersonal skills, the problem-solving process, public speaking, and organizational skills for coordinating meetings, activities, and programs (Kelling et al., 1988; Oliver, 1988). Law enforcement trainers need to become familiar with the research studies and other literature discussing the gap between academy training and what officers actually do. They need to listen to police officers and improve instruction to satisfy their demands.

As skill demands increase, job tasks oftentimes grow broader in scope and less specific. In such circumstances job requirements become more flexible and overlapping. This means that the Community-Oriented Policing officer must become more of a general practitioner, a resource, and a problem solver (Carnevale & Carnevale, 1993). Therefore, recruit selection techniques will have to assess many of the skills associated with the use of self-managing teams. COPs officers need to posses initiative, judgment, decision-making, leadership, and interpersonal skills, as well as other competencies often neglected during the selection process.

Police officer responsibilities vary according to where they work and the time of the day or night police agency, therefore, must evaluate not only technical skills but also interpersonal and leadership skills. Bullock (1995) maintains that the 21st century police officer must be formally educated, resilient, resourceful, empathetic, competent, and patient. In Kenya, the proactive function requires officers to develop patrol strategies in response to various crimes such as robberies, terrorism, street-level narcotics, and criminal mischief occurring within communities. As officers learn about criminal activities via crime analysis, they need to develop tactical plans to address the situation. Police officer responsibilities do not end there-the police are expected to actively reach-out and build relationships with citizens (Oettmeier & Wycoff, 1994).

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LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND PEACEFUL CO-EXISTENCE AMONG RELIGIOUS GROUPS IN KENYA.

Beatrice Kemunto C. Obwoge & Bob Obwangi Mbori

Abstract

Basically, language is a medium of communication between speaker and hearer or author and reader. Language is a powerful tool that human beings possess. As a medium of communication, it conveys feelings, emotions and ideas. The set of beliefs especially one held by a particular group of people may influence the way that group behaves. The language attitude of Christians in Britain for instance, may be very distinctive from that of the same group of Christians in Kenya. This is one manifestation of the power of language which manages to contextualize what is so dear to the heart. Through the sacred texts a central focus for worship is maintained and preserved. While maintaining the balance, some changes are accommodated to take account of current religious trends within a particular group. Particular words, phrases and statements come into use which may promote and 'demote' peaceful co-existence. Language attitudes captured in the words affect people all over the world. In Western circles for instance, Islam is regarded as a political problem whether one is reformist, fundamentalist, conservative or even well as militant. Closer home, Islam has been one of the religious groups whose members have co-existed peacefully with other non-Muslims. However, there is an emergency of an attitude towards the Islamic terrorist groups such as the Al-Shabaab. The article discusses language attitudes that promote and 'demote' peaceful co-existence among religious groups in Kenya. The article is hinged upon the social theory of language and makes suggestions on how to use language to curb insecurity.

Key words: Language attitude, Al-shabaab, Attitude, Peaceful co-existence, Fundamentalist, Jihadist, Language, Militant.

Introduction

Language is a medium of communication between the speaker and hearer or author and reader. Language is a powerful tool that is human species specific. As a medium of communication, it conveys feelings emotions and ideas. Ideology is a set of beliefs especially one held by a particular group of people influence the way that group behaves. Attitude may be viewed from different angles. For example, an outline of attitude is given by Anderson (1974:42) even though his studies do not define the nature of attitude. Webb (1992:433) sees language attitude as a mirror of indirect but semi-conscious social and psychological perceptions of a category of language users defined by territory, ethnicity or social grouping. Social grouping may be psychological or religious in nature. Psychological grouping and religious factors for instance, would be critical while touching on the issues of language attitudes that result from religious grouping. The language attitude of Christians in Britain for instance, may be very distinctive from that of the same group of Christians in Kenya. In the same way, language attitudes of Christians in the world may be distinctive from that of Muslims partly because of their cultural leanings. Religious attitudes would therefore depict conflicting viewpoints between Christians and Muslims who apparently worship the same God.

The article makes references to the five angles of attitude identified by Strauss (1945) namely: attitude

formation, attitude change, attitude disappearance, attitudes and personal organization and how attitudes influence behaviour after their formation. These five angles of attitude may reflect how religious-leaning language attitudes may promote and/or demote peaceful co-existence among religious groups.

Allah (God), who in the Muslim world has ninety nine names, is God of Christians who also have many names. One of the Christians names for God is Yahweh. God is worshipped in Christian churches or mosques or even synagogues among others. The names of God belong to different languages and are used in different contexts. Through its power, language since it manages to conceptualize (God) who is very dear to the heart. Through sacred texts (languages) a central focus for worship is maintained and preserved as well as passed from one generation to the next within specific religious contexts. While maintaining the balance, some changes are accommodated to take account of current religious trends within a particular group. Particular words, phrases and statements come into use which may promote and/or demote peaceful co-existence among different religious groups.

Language attitudes affect people all over the world. In western circles for instance, Islam is regarded as a political problem whether by reformists, fundamentalists, conservatives and anti-western as well as militants. Currently, more lexical items have been added while affixes have been included to expand and create meaning to Islam. In Kenya, Islam has for a long time been regarded as one of the religious groups whose members have co-existed peacefully with non-Muslims. In some circles, the Muslims are considered honest, sincere and un-corrupted. It is sometimes argued that this philosophy underlies Islamic banking. However, there is an emergency of an attitude-based language which is skewed to religious leanings. Lexical items such as Islamists, Jihadists, Al-shabaab, and Extremists among others have come to define Islam in a number of contexts in Kenya and other wider East African region.

Methodology

Data for this article was collected from a small sample population using snowball method. It involved interacting with people through business as well as pupils and teachers from diverse religions through friendly conversations to find out how each religious group view people from other religions.

The target population in the research paper comprised Christians and Muslims in Kakamega town Kenya. Kakamega town was suitable for the study because of its cosmopolitan status. The study focused on the religious language attitudes used by Christians against Muslims and Muslims against Christians. Since the study is analytical in nature, the researcher used facts and information already available and analyzed them before making a critical evaluation. Although the context of the research paper is within Kenya, reference has been made to attitude-based terrorist attack outside Kenya.

A comparative analysis of two religious groups namely Islam and Christianity was carried out linguistically in order to collect data on language attitudes that promote and demote peace. While the words used to refer to God had meaning equivalents, divergent ideologies held by each of the two religious groups would be seen to contain negative attitudes. Data was also collected from the media and online sources. Findings show that negative social, cultural and political factors can indeed lead to violent extremism.

A primer on language attitudes against Al-shabaab

An attitude is an internal state that influences the organism's response (Mbori, 2008:7). The components

of attitude are closely connected to an individual's values and beliefs which are likely to influence his choice of language. Attitude is also behavioural and is inferred from the responses that people make to social situations. Further Wassink (1999:57) observes that language is the theater for enactment of the social, political and cultural life of people. Mbori (2008:67) argues that language attitudes are a salient component and an embodiment within the theater of language.

Religious leaders propagate certain attitudes against religion whose ideologies are different from what they believe and use propaganda to indoctrinate then radicalize themselves and become militant. Terrorist groups may have pegged their ideology on the belief that non- Muslims are transgressors and that they should be killed yet not all Muslims believe in this ideology of transgression. It's upon this and other related ideologies that the (youth) Al- shabaab and other terrorist groups started. The rise of Islamist terrorist groups for instance, started in 1980's and continued through the1990's upon which snowball effects of lethal magnitude have been recorded. In reference to the 1998 bombing of the American Embassy in Kenya and Tanzania, the terrorists wanted to teach America whom they considered an enemy. This was done to allegedly punish a friend to Israel, a country which had denied Palestinians their land and political rights. The terrorists had harbored attitudes towards America and sought to fight the United States elsewhere. As a result Kenya and Tanzania became targets. Language attitude did not come to play in the 1998 twin bombing of the United States of America Embassies in Kenya and Tanzania. However, it would be argued that the subsequent terrorist attacks exhibited levels of language attitude leaning towards religion.

If we consider the Westgate attack in Kenya for example, religious words and phrases were used to identify who was to be shot and who was to be killed especially if there were those who could not respond to the specific lexical items and phrases. This is almost similar to what is reported in the Bible in Judges 12:6. The Gileadites used language to kill the Ephraimites. They would seize an Ephraimite who disguised himself as a Gileadite and ask him to pronounce the word Shibboleth and if he said Sibboleth…; they, took him, and slew him at the fords of Jordan: and there fell at that time of the Ephraimites forty and two thousand.

Writing on the Aljazeera editorial on Al-shabaab, Daniel Agibiboa provided statistical data stipulating that out of all terrorist attacks between 1968 and 2005, 87% were caused by religiously-oriented groups. It was claimed that all the causalities were perpetrated by Islamist groups. An Islamist is a person who believes strongly in the teaching of Islam. Islam is the Muslim religion based on belief in one God and revealed through Muhammad as the prophet Of Allah. Allah refers to God in Islam. Judaism and Christianity also make equal reference to od. However, Christians as well as Muslims have many other names that refer to God. Some of the Muslim names that refer to God are shown in the tables below:

Table 1: Some of the Muslim Names for God

Names	Meaning
Al awwal	God of the beginning
Al akheri	God of the end
Al wakil	The judge
Al wahab	The giver
Al mujib	The one who answers
Al karim	The generous
Al rahman	The giver
Al rahim	The giver

Table 2: Names used by Christians to refer to God

Name	Meaning
Yahweh	God
Elohim	Eternal creator
Shalom	God of peace
Shamma	God who heals
El-Shaddai	Our all sufficient God
Nissi	The Lord my banner
Rapha	The Lord our healer
Honeenu	The Lord our maker
Eloheeka	The Lord thy God
Jire	The Lord will provide
El.Olam	The everlasting God
Elyon	The Lord most high
Adonai	Sovereign Lord.

Buddhists have a god called Nirvana – God of peace and happiness. These are just but a few of the many names that refer to God in different context. One may then ask why people who ostensibly believe and worship the same God cause terror against fellow human beings. Is it the attitudes that various religious groups harbour against the terrorists? In 1998, when Al- Qaeda attacked the US Embassies in Kenya, and Tanzania, there were no Kenyan Defense Forces in Somalia. The Boko Haram (in Nigeria) which has claimed over 10,000 lives since its founding in 2002 is claimed to be related with Al- shahaab and Al –Qaeda. They share an ideology. The Jihadist groups share an ideology that is embedded and influenced by the Quranic phrase; "Anyone who is not governed by what Allah has revealed is among the transgressors".

The above ideological phrase and other phrases form part of the language used in contexts that fan terrorist acts. The language is acquired together with an attitude towards those with divergent religious views. The phrases or Quranic verses are learnt in religious contexts and associated with respectable people considered as role models. Language is also learnt by traditions and by associating with respected people who shape our world view based on shared ideology and heritage which in the context of this article is religion. Any ideology, religion or politics is carried out using language since language is the medium of communication. Language expresses thoughts and perception. Thoughts have close connections with beliefs (what one thinks to be true or false), attitudes (what we like and dislike) and values (what we think as being right/ wrong or/ good / bad).

Language in itself can be a useful tool in meeting our various needs. At the moment, we need security in Kenya and peace in the World. It is only in our expressive ability that we may get information regarding the source of insecurity. Only if words are felt, bodily presences, like echoes or waterfalls, can we understand the power of spoken language to influence, alter and transform the perceptual world David Abram (1997: 89). Other religious groups especially the Christians feel comfortable with the language they use to describe their own identities but have issues with the labels others place on them. They fail to evaluate their utterances and actions that probably impact negatively when viewed by people who belong to other religious groups. To nurture peace, each individual needs to evaluate his/her speech and foster positive attitude. Language attitudes can bring us together or separate us. Language attitudes affect intercultural contact and tourism leading to withdrawal, isolation and can generate terrorist attacks.

Selected highlights of recent terrorist attacks

Recent terrorist attacks in which language attitude has come into play have been identified in this article. They include; the West-Gate terrorist attack in Nairobi-Kenya, the Charlie Hebdo attack in Paris-France and the Garissa University College attack in North-Eastern Kenya.

The West-Gate Shopping Mall attack in Nairobi, Kenya

The attack on the upmarket Westgate Shopping Centre in Nairobi unfolded at around noon in Kenya when the building was packed with shoppers and people having lunch. The Multi-storey Mall was said to have been attacked by Muslim militants. According to some reports, the attackers attempted to separate Muslims and non-Muslims using Koranic phrases. Victims narrated how some Muslims were allowed to leave the Mall unharmed. Below is an image of the attackers inside the mall.

An image of the attackers inside the Westgate shopping Mall as

captured on CCTV (Source: BBC)

According to reports broadcast in major local and international media such as Aljazeera and the Kenyan TV Network, (KTN) the Islamist group Al-shabaab claimed responsibility for the incident, which it characterized as a retribution   for the Kenyan military's deployments in the groups home country of Somalia. Other Media outlets had suspected the insurgent group's involvement based on earlier reprisal warnings it had issued in the wake of 'Operation Linda Nchi' from 2011to2012. The focus of this paper however, is the language attitudes that the Muslim militants used to separate non- Muslims from Muslims. This is because the attackers had told Muslims to leave and non-Muslims would be targeted. The victims were asked to name the mother of the Islamic prophet Mohammed while others were asked to recite Shahadah. The Militants called it a meticulous vetting process meant to separate the "Muslims from the from the rest." Gunmen were seen at CCTV talking on mobile phones and bowing down in Islamic prayer between the attacks.

Charlie Hebdo attack in Paris , France

It was 11:30 local time (10:30 GMT) on Wednesday 7 January 2015 when two masked gunmen burst into Charlie Hebdo newsroom offices where a weekly editorial meeting was taking place. The men opened fire and killed the editor's police bodyguard and other four cartoonists along three other editorial staff and a guest attending the meeting. Witnesses said they had heard the gunmen shouting… "we have

avenged the prophet Muhammad" and "God is Great" in Arabic. Later, two Jihadist flags were found in the getaway car that the two gunmen used to escape from the scene of attack. One of the two gunmen was a convicted Islamic who had been jailed in 2008 for Militant activities. Below is an image of the attack.

An image showing the Charlie Hebdo Attack in Paris – France (Source: BBC)

The Garissa University College Attack

The Garissa University attack happened on 2nd April 2015 at 05:30 (local Kenyan time) (UTCT 03:00) targeting non-Muslim students. Its characteristic features were hostage taking and mass shooting. The motive of the Al-shabaab was Islamic, extremism and territorial claims. A spokesman for the group said that his men released Muslims but held Christians hostage. He further reported that the militant's mission was to kill those against the 'Shabaab' and that 'Kenya is at war with Somali in reference to the deployment of Kenyan troops in Africa Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM). Another spokesman asserted that Al-shabaab attacked the institution because it was "on Muslim land colonized by non-Muslims" Later Al-shabaab issued a statement in English targeting the Kenyan public. Part of the statement warned, that Kenyans would be targeted in their workplaces, residences, schools and Universities for condoning oppressive government policies and by failing to speak out against them as well as reinforcing their policies by electing them.

An image showing Garissa University College

(Kenya) after the attack (Source: Aljazeera)

Based on the chronology of the attacks, one can argue that the attackers and the target population are at war and that this war is attitude-driven and language attitude is at play.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Language is the non- kinetic tool that may be used to fuse together people with diverse religious ideologies. Peaceful co-existence and positive language attitudes among various religious groups, if well cultivated, will encourage demilitarization and bring back intra-group and intergroup understanding. Indeed, security starts with the language attitudes towards the other person.

A number of recommendations are made. One, positive religious language attitudes between Christians, Muslims and indeed other religious groups need to be nurtured at all times in order to keep the dialogue box open. Two, politically sensitive words should be avoided so as to create a secure Kenya and indeed a secure global village. Three, security agents need to work closely with language experts, interpreters and teachers in order to enhance positive attitudes among members of various religious groups. Four, those with information on the state of security should not be threatened. Instead, society should encourage inter-religious communication agents who are neither fanatics nor militants to negotiate for peace among religious groups.

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PART III: SECURITY AND NATURAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN FOREST MANAGEMENT FOR SUSTAINABLE PEACE BUILDING IN MAU COMPLEX: AN IMPLICATION FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION INITIATIVE IN KENYA

Songok, J. R, Ong'unya, R. O & Nabwire, J. L

Abstract

Over the last 60 years at least 40% of all intra-state conflicts in the have been linked to natural resources. Forests form a greatest part of the natural resources on earth and are considered a life support system. Many people from different cultures and engaged in various land-use practices live in or around forests. Such people are all in some way dependent on forests. However, studies show that many local forests are on the verge of destruction due to human activities like deforestation, logging and population pressure. Legal initiatives such as the declaration of state forests, national parks or wildlife reserves have been instituted. The Mau Forest Complex in Kenya particularly is the largest indigenous Montane forest in East Africa. It serves as a critical water catchment area in Kenya. However, increased competition between and amongst the users of the forest as well as with the government have become a basis for tension and conflict. Besides, there have been incidents of forced evictions affecting thousands of families. This has escalated the conflicts in the region. This paper analyzes the influence of community involvement in forest management for sustainable peace building in the Mau Forest Complex. Existing literature on the topic was analyzed and presented thematically. The paper concludes that the local communities' participation in forest management is inevitable for peace building in the Mau Forest Region, Kenya.

Key words: Forest Management, Sustainable Peace Building, Conflict Resolution

Introduction

Natural resources, both renewable and non-renewable, offer enormous potential for helping people in the developing countries escape from poverty and build resilient societies (UNEP & UNDP, 2013). Forests are part of the broader natural resources; they form the greatest part of the ecosystem on earth and are considered life support systems (Cunningham *et al.* 2003). However, conflicts involving forests management appear to be increasing in number. Research shows that natural resources (such as forests, minerals and land among others) play a key role as a root cause of conflict, as a financing source for conflict, and/ or a source of motivation for engagement in conflicts (Ali et al., 2005; Homer-Dixon 1991; Kaplan 1994; UNEP, 2011; UNEP & UNDP, 2013; UNEP 2007; Maystadt, Calderon & You, 2015). UNEP and UNDP, (2013) describe mismanagement of natural resources as an impediment to peace building and recovery. Increased and often differing competition, interests and values regarding their management, and high demand for forest related products and services (including carbon sequestration and environmental services) between the resource users have become a basis for tension and conflict (Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego , 2012; UNEP & UNDP, 2013). Conflicts as a result of natural resource management can occur at various but interacting levels; at local level, (intra-household/family, the village or community level) or at county/provincial level (within a national territory, e.g. control over

the revenues generated in an individual province) or at Regional / International level (conflict over issues such as riparian rights e.g. the Nile Basin) (UNDP-ECHA, 2013).

Forest conflicts form the greatest part of a broader natural resource management conflicts and are often associated with land-use and livelihoods conflicts centered on community-outsider conflicts (Barney, 2007). In fact, poorly managed forest conflicts are barriers to sustainable development. Forest conflicts also hinder poverty eradication as well as access to information regarding rights which restrict the ability to influence local situation, government policy, national and regional development (Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego, 2012).

Natural resources underlie many key peace building interventions (UNDP-ECHA, 2013). For example, effective natural resource management provides opportunity for peace building, through economic growth, employment and sustainable livelihoods recovery among others (UNEP & UNDP, 2013). Conflicts often affect the voiceless, poor and indigenous groups in various countries; hence there is need for dialogue between stakeholders, as well as identifying successful conflict management methods (Halder *et al.* 2012).

There have been concerns about the natural resource management strategies. The need to reconsider the role of community in resource use and conservation is inevitable for peace building. The UNDP-ECHA, (2013) report indicates that where communities and stakeholders are not included effectively, are marginalized or excluded from decision making concerning the natural resources management, opposition to forest management is likely to occur and the communities may develop strategies of violence as a coercive measure against the government as a means for addressing old grievances and mounting opposition.

Along the same lines, Yemshaw (2007) observes that in many parts of Africa, community involvement in forest management is still new and its progress is uneven across the region. According to Larson and Ribot (2007) forestry policies in the developing world were inherited from the colonial governments and the elites whose interest was to maximize and extract profit. The policies have remained biased against rural communities who live in forests in spite of reforms (Larson & Ribot, 2007). Mau forest complex in Kenya has lost about 107,000 hectares, or 25 percent of its forest covers through: irregular and unplanned settlements, illegal logging and charcoal burning, change of land use from forest to unsustainable agriculture and change in ownership from public to private. This has contributed to the on-going conflict between the government of Kenya and the farmers/new settlers and Ogiek community who are believed to have lived in harmony with forest biodiversity since time immemorial in the Kenyan Forests (Olang and Kundu 2011; Siringi 2010). The farmers/new settlers living in Mau Forest were allocated land by the previous KANU regime and given land title deeds by the government of Kenya while other groups of settlers are believed to have encroached into the forest illegally (GoK 2009; Siringi 2010).

Kenya lacks policy guidelines for a coordinated approach to peace building and conflict resolution and as a result many interventions have been reactionary in nature and have in certain situations exacerbated the conflicts. Although there have been evidence of forest degradation, there is no evidence that the Ogiek undertake the practice and therefore the government's good intentions of displacing the Ogiek is considered to be contrary to the aim of conserving the critical resources in the Mau Forest Complex. The eviction has thus resulted to conflicts currently experienced. It has changed the Ogiek's lifestyles and the people have been more impoverished *(Lenning, 2009)*. This paper therefore explores forest management

and conflicts in communities, community involvement in forest management and peace building and their implication for conflict resolution in Kenya.

Forest management and conflicts in communities

Competition and violent conflict over land management and more specifically, forest management in Africa and elsewhere in the developing world is generally increasing (Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins 2008). Studies show that natural resources play a key role as a root cause of conflict, as a financing source for conflict, and/ or a source of motivation for engagement in conflicts (Ali et al., 2005; Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins 2008; UNEP, 2011; UNEP & UNDP, 2013; UNEP 2007; Ali et al., 2005; Maystadt, Calderon &You, 2015). According to UNDG –ECHA (2013) conflicts normally occurs where there are attempts to control or gain access to natural resources. FAO (2000), observed that the exploitation of high value natural resources, such as oil, gas, minerals and timber, were often cited as a key factor in triggering, escalating or sustaining wars around the world. Thomson and Kanaan 2003; Global Witness 2004& Ross 2004 states that the higher the dependence on natural resources, the greater the vulnerability to conflict.

The Sierra Leone conflict that existed before 1991 and persisted for many years was arguably aggravated by concerns regarding unfair distribution of the benefits from natural resource extraction (UNEP, 2010). Local communities had limited or controlled access to forest resources that they might have been depending on for their livelihoods (Brown & Crawford, 2012). In addition, in some regions where there was limited community involvement, there was distrust of conservation authorities and perceptions of unfulfilled obligations as well as lack of clarity as to the roles and responsibilities of local and traditional authorities (Brown & Crawford, 2012).

In Côte d'Ivoire, revenues derived from natural resources were used to finance conflict by both the government and the main opposition group to the government (Forces Nouvelles) (UNEP & UNDP, (2013). A study by International Organization for Migration and the United Nations Development Programme (2010) in UNEP &UNDP (2013) indicated that inadequate as well as inaccessible land in Uganda made it difficult for former Lord's Resistance Army combatants to reintegrate into their original communities.

A study by International Organization for Migration and the United Nations Development Programme (2010) in UNEP & UNDP (2013) indicated that inadequate as well as inaccessible land in Uganda made it difficult for former Lord's Resistance Army combatants to reintegrate into their original communities. Table 1(adopted from UNEP & UNDP, 2013) shows many recent armed conflicts that have been linked to forest resources management.

Table 1: UNEP & UNDP, 2013: Resources Implicated in Conflict in Various Countries

Country	Duration of conflict	Natural resources implicated in conflict
Indonesia-Aceh	1975 - 2006	Timber, natural gas, marijuana, wildlife
Colombia	1984 - present	Oil, gold, coca, timber, emeralds, palm oil, land
Democratic Republic of Congo	1996 - present	Copper, coltan, diamonds, gold, cobalt, timber, tin
Cambodia	1978 - 1997	Timber, gems
Liberia	1989 - 2003	Timber, diamonds, iron, palm oil, cocoa, coffee, rubber, gold
Philippines	1969 - 2012	Land, sugar cane, timber, gold, copper

In Table 1, timber is seen as the common cause of conflicts in all the stated countries. A study in Indonesia also showed that the local communities, farmers and many ENGOs blamed the Government of Indonesia (GoIN) and the provincial governments of Kalimantan and Sumatra for their ineffectiveness to manage the oil palm conflicts. They GoIN was accused for helping the palm oil companies expand the oil palm plantations illegally by converting natural forests and farmlands (Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego, 2012). A study by Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego (2012), showed that the core cause of conflict in Indonesia, Kenya, Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, and Venezuela was the violation of local and indigenous people's rights by both conservation and developmental activities.

Community involvement in forest management and peace building

Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego , (2012) established that forest-related conflicts started with agenda setting, which were usually the issues over which people expressed their resentment at the very beginning of a conflict. The next stage was the escalation of the conflict, which quite often led to violence while the third stage was the conflict management stage where the conflicting parties generally agreed over conflict management approaches through negotiations. Various strategies have therefore been employed to prevent and stop conflicts over natural resources over the past many decades. For example, EU-UN partnership, coordinated by the United Nations Inter-agency Framework for Preventive Action and its partner agencies was established in 2008 to improve national capacities for preventing conflicts over natural resources and land (UNDG, 2013). All UN member states and the UN system were also called upon to focus on issues of natural resource ownership, allocation and access as part of peace building (UN, 2010).

Studies have shown that conflicts relating to forests are carefully resolved when the government mobilizes the local capacity through the use of local approaches such as customary laws, local leadership and negotiation skills (Siringi, 2010). Developed countries such as US, Canada and Australia employed consensus-building to resolve disputes over the allocation of scarce 'environmental resources (Conroy et al., 1998; ICIMOD, 1996). In North American the process involves consensual stakeholder negotiation, facilitated by an impartial third-party mediator (Warner, 2000). In Fiji, consensus building enhanced the capacity of communities to develop a dialogue with each other, either directly or indirectly, to find a way forward based on consensus which generated mutual gains for all parties with the minimum of

compromise and trade-off (Warner, 2000). Emphasis was placed on strategies for conflict prevention, targeted at the local level, both in post-conflict and pre-conflict situations. Good governance, democratic involvement and strengthening of civil society were the common local conflict prevention strategies employed (Warner 2000).

In almost all African countries, new policies and legislations are being either evolved and/ or implemented to enhance the participation of local communities in the management of forest resources (Wily 2002). However, Yemshaw (2007), observed that in many parts of Africa, community involvement in forest management is still new and its progress is uneven across the region. While sanctions regimes and other international instruments have attempted to address the issue of conflicts in some cases, they are very blunt tools with which to address the complex relationships between armed groups and natural resources. Report by UNEP & UNDP, (2013) showed that in Eastern DRC, Aceh, Indonesia and Rwanda, where livelihoods were based upon access and rights to natural resources, peace building process also depended on the access and rights to natural resources.

Ndoye & Tieguhong (2010) have argued that there was need for a balanced approach which takes into account the interests of both rural communities and timber companies in the process of forest exploitation in Congo Basin. The approach would require, among other things, the development and implementation of sustainable forest management plans by timber companies, exclusion from harvesting of timber species that are important to local communities, compensation of timber companies for compliance with management plans, and the involvement of rural communities in monitoring the activities of timber companies (Ndoye & Tieguhong, 2010).

Baker et al. (2003) also observed that the Sierra Leone land dispute was a source of conflict, largely because agriculture had to compete with other uses, such as diamond mining. Brown & Crawford, (2012) suggested that effective management of natural resources may play a role in peace building and development in Sierra Leone by strengthening natural resource governance; developing sustainable livelihoods; creating employment opportunities; generating tourist revenue; and promoting dialogue, trust-building and cooperation.

Report by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (2009) stated that land disputes in Liberia threaten the country's stability. However, Liberia's government acknowledged communities' historical lack of rights and benefits, and aimed at empowering the communities to fully participate in the sustainable management of forests (GOL 2006a, 34–35 in Beevers. 2012).

Community involvement in forest management and peace building: the Kenyan Situation

In Kenya, forestry and agriculture are vital for social-political organizations. For example, in 2007, Kenya's agriculture and forestry contributed 22.7% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the largest contribution of an individual sector (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, Economic Survey, 2008 in Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins, 2008). On the other hand, Kenya's forests are fast degrading due to human population growth and ever-increasing pressure on forest resources (ACTS/ACC, 2011). Land issues, that is, ownership, access and use have been considered a fundamental aspect of structural conflicts and have often degenerated into physical violence in different parts of Kenya   (Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins 2008).

Efforts to combat conflicts as a result of land issues have been undertaken at both local and national levels including forced eviction but this efforts have had little success. The conflicts experienced in Garsen Division, Tana Delta District of the then Coast Province as a result of the establishment of a Jatropha plantation by the Canadian company Bedford Fuels was as a result of incompatible uses of the land, where the proposed plantations of Jatropha would dramatically alter the traditional uses of land by the local people such as riverine forests as well as the abundant occurrence of birds and mammals in what conservationists called a biodiversity hotspot. Although a majority of the local farmers, belonging to the Pokomo ethnic group supported the project, views from 'squatters' (farmers occupying the land with no land titles) and nomadic pastoralists were not considered. In addition NGOs such as the Nature Kenya and the UK-based Royal Society for the Protection of Birds (RSPB) strongly opposed the project arguing its negative impact in the wildlife (especially birds) and in the traditional livelihoods of the local communities (Halder, Arevalo, Puentes & Mola-Yudego, 2012). In the Mt.Elgon region, gazetting of the forest was linked to conflicts and the state had generally failed to be a neutral arbitrator in those conflicts, generally taking the side of one party or another (Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins, 2008).

Management responsibilities for trust lands in Kenya are vested in county councils and the Commissioner of Lands with minimal consultation with local communities but with many outright legal abuses, and more generally a systematic prioritization of economic, rather than social objectives, to the detriment of local livelihoods (Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins, 2008). MENR (2007), shows that despite the attempts by the government to involve the local communities in forest management through formation of Community Forest Association there have been a challenge including mismanagement, disintegration and heterogeneity between members of the association causing more conflict and varying interest.

Mau Forest complex is an important water catchment area but the forest has shrunk by one-quarter over the last 20 years *(Lenning, 2009)*. There were concerns about the permanent environmental damage hence residents were required to leave the forest. Incidents of forced evictions have been therefore reported in different areas of the Mau Forest since 2004, (Amnesty International, Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions Kenya Land Alliance, Hakijamii Trust, Kenya National Commission on Human Rights,2007; GoK, 2009). The Ogiek People's Development Programme (OPDP), in partnership with Minority Rights Group International (MRG) fought to avoid the eviction of the Ogiek community. They argued that they had lived sustainably in the area for centuries and that the environmental damage was the result of destructive logging carried out by corporations and newly arrived illegal squatters *(Lenning, 2009; Sang 2001)*.

A study by Oluwafunmilola (2011) showed that displacement of the Ogiek community from the MFC while it was good intentioned it was detrimental and expensive. This is because it impoverished the community as a result of being displaced from their habitation while resettling the displaced indigenous people seemed to have increased the risk of conflicts between the settlers and the host community due to resource scarcity (Oluwafunmilola 2011).

Under international law, there can be no justification for forcibly evicting tens of thousands of women, men and children and exposing them to a range of serious human rights violations (Amnesty International, Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions Kenya Land Alliance, Hakijamii Trust, Kenya National Commission on Human Rights,2007). The policy and legislation used to manage forest resources were developed in 1957 by the colonial government, and changed only slightly after independence in 1968 (GOK 1994). The policy and legislation was considered repressive and inconsiderate to less advantaged members of the various communities because it concentrated authority of forest management to the Government

excluding many other stakeholders who had interest in the forests.

The current policy on peace building and conflict management in Kenya provides for the promotion and establishment of institutional framework for peace building, and conflict management. The policy fosters partnerships between government, private sectors, grassroots communities, civil society and regional organizations for sustainable peace conflict transformation and national development. However, Ongugo (2007) established that there was no uniformity in the way in which the benefits and costs of involving local communities in the management of forest resources were to be considered. In 1994 the government developed a strategic plan for forestry development which recommended for new policy to govern forest management. However, it took several years (10 years) before a new policy and law; that would make forestry governance all inclusive and not a preserve of the Government to be developed and a further three years before the Forests Act 2005 came into being (GOK 2007; Walubengo 2007). In addition, rules and guidelines were yet to be finalized (Ongugo and Mugo 2007). The delay in their development demonstrated the vested interest in the forestry sector, which had dogged pro-poor and pro-people forestry governance in Kenya.

In addition, the current Constitution of Kenya does not provide explicit protection against forced eviction, but there is a wide range of rights in the Bill of Rights that can be interpreted to provide such protection, namely: right to life (and its protection of rights to shelter), security of the person and the protection of the law, right to freedom of movement, protection for the privacy of the home and other property and from deprivation of property without compensation, protection from deprivation of private property, right not to be discriminated against on the basis of sex, race, tribe, place of origin, residence or other local connections, political opinion, colour or creed.

At the local level, for example, customary land tenure regimes in operation were contradicted or curtailed by local bye-laws while at the national level, the existing land policies, laws, and administration systems were undermined by corruption and were difficult, if not impossible, to implement (Wakhungu, Nyukuri & Huggins, 2008). The issue of settlers in the Mau Forest in Kenya must be handled with extreme sensitivity and through a just mechanism. Unless justice and compensation are handled to the satisfaction of the settlers, the government could easily be laying the grounds for armed conflict that could have major repercussions on the stability of the Kenyan state (Siringi 2010). Oluwafunmilola, (2011) recommended for a participatory approach to conservation involving all the stakeholders in conserving the forests while removing the poverty element that results from access denial.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Forest management has been a source of conflict in the Mau region. Displacement as a result of forest management without involving the community has been considered a source of conflict. Countries such as US, Canada, Australia, Sierra Leone and Congo Basin established policies that ensure participation of local communities in forest management. Most of these countries employ consensus-building to resolve disputes over the allocation of scarce 'environmental' resources. Kenya's policy on Peace building and conflict management provides for the promotion and establishment of institutional framework for peace building, and conflict management that fosters partnerships between government, private sectors, grassroots communities, civil society and regional organizations for sustainable peace conflict transformation and national development, should be implemented to the end. In addition the current

Constitution of Kenya should provide explicit protection against forced eviction as well as community involvement in forest management so as to promote peace building in the region. All stakeholders should be involved in negotiation and dialogue process in forest resource management so as to be part of the solution to the conflicts. There is also need for policy makers to include the compensation and resettlement of all victims living in Mau forest (especially the indigenous (Ogieks) and local communities (farmers/new settlers).

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ROLE OF FOOD AND NUTRITION SECURITY ON PEACE, CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND NATIONAL COHESION IN KENYA

Nguka Gordon, John Okoth, James Bill Ouda, & Judith Achoka

Abstract

Food is a basic need required by human beings at any level of development and in any situation. It is the source of nutrients that provides and contributes to the very existence of human beings and also forms the basis of life. The overall emotional, psychological, physical, cognitive and psychomotor development of the human being is dependent on consumption and coping strategies with regard to food availability to the household and the larger community. In fact, food may form the reason for conflict and also has the capacity to provide the answer for conflict resolution. In any conflict situation or disaster, food security variables get compromised. Partly for the reason, the United Nations has dedicated two of its affiliate organizations (WFP and FAO) to food distribution and production respectively. IFPRI (2014) argues that food security–related policies and programmes build resilience to conflict in so far as they are expected not only to help countries and people cope with and recover from conflict but also to contribute to preventing conflicts and support economic development more broadly. This article seeks to explain why there is a need to place a higher priority on food security and offers insights for policymakers regarding how this can be done. to do so. To understand the relationship between conflict and food security, the article builds a conceptual framework of food and nutrition security as was applied in four case studies on Egypt, Somalia, Sudan, and Yemen. The article begins with a survey of the literature by examining the links between food and nutrition insecurity and conflict. It then presents a common framework that conceptualizes the links between resilience, conflict, and food security.

Key words: Peace, Conflict, Violence, Food and Nutrition Security, Resilience, Policy

Introduction

Globally, the concept that security is shifting from the traditional approaches to a more humanistic approach has brought in a new paradigm of looking at national security. In this article, aspects of globalization are explored and broadly conceived to include human-rights norms, humanitarianism, and alternative trade all of which might influence peaceful and food-secure outcomes in Kenya. In a period spanning more than two centuries, authors who are for and against free global economy have debated whether the uncontrolled flows of goods, services, and capital may make the world more or less peaceful and food secure. Arguments for are that, as nations increase the business, monetary, communications, and cultural ties that bind them, they are unlikely to go to war (see Schneider, Barbieri, and Gleditsch 2003 for a summary of these positions) a concept that is applicable to the Kenyan situation that is a home to more than 42 tribes. A counter argument is that as global economic liberalization deepens, then so are the socioeconomic inequalities within and between countries which then lead to conflict frequently (see, for example, Danaher 1994; Lappé, Collins, and Rosset 1998; Shiva 1999; Bello 2001; Araghi 2000; on the ills of financial globalization, see Stewart 1993; Smith 1994; Addison 2005) a fact which may not be confirmed in the case of Kenyan situation.

Commonly, both sides disagree over whether more open trade in agricultural commodities may provide a "way out" of poverty for developing-country farmers and economies or divert their poverty problems.

Many of the factors depend so much on situations. What is not in contention is that trade in primary commodities is associated with most wars of the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s, either as the cause or source of conflict, or as means of payment for arms and armies (Collier 2003). Because conflict contexts are integrally linked to food insecurity (Messer, Cohen, and d' Costa 1998; FAO 2000), the connections between global, regional and national trades and conflicts are a concern for food and nutrition policymakers at both the national and county level of governments in Kenya, who are especially interested in agricultural commodities, which have been left out of most globalization–conflict models (Collier 2003).

Purpose and methodology of the review

A review of literature (Messer 1994, 1996a; Messer, Cohen, and D'Costa 1998; Messer and Cohen 2001; Messer, Cohen, and Marchione, 2001) demonstrates that most wars of the late 20th century and early 21st century are "food wars," meaning that food is used as a weapon, food systems are destroyed in the course of conflict, and food insecurity persists as a legacy of conflict. Food insecurity as used here can denote food shortage, lack of access to food, under-nutrition, or some combination of the three and can also be a source of conflict. The main purpose of this review is to demonstrate how globalization, including trade in primary agricultural commodities but also global norms and institutions promoting humanitarianism, human rights, and alternative development and trade, is connected to conflict and food insecurity and how this replicates in Kenya and her devolved system of governance. The entry point to explore these connections is to examine cases of food wars for a single year, to see whether and how the associated country-level attributes of conflict, food security, and trade in agricultural and other primary commodities support globalization-and-peace, globalization-and-war, or neither hypothesis. Because no previous studies explicitly attempt to explore the links among all three factors, a second way to consider the relationships is to summarize and integrate the analytical frameworks and findings of the many previous studies that have dealt with any two of the three factors: conflict and food and nutrition insecurity, conflict and globalization, and globalization and food and nutrition insecurity.

The literature review fills gaps and critiques certain conclusions of the existing conflict-transformation literature, which emphasizes conflict typologies and historical trends. A third approach is to sketch particular country-level, historical contexts where widely grown and traded agricultural commodities, such as sugarcane, coffee, tea and cotton, and widely kept animals especially among the Kenyan pastoralists community appear to have contributed to conflict, to see what lessons these cases suggest for agricultural and livestock policy.

A fourth and final perspective is to consider where globalization, regionalization and nationalization and at the devolved Government levels of Kenya widened in concept to include humanitarian operations, human-rights norms, and alternative trade organizations, appears to have contributed to more peaceful and food-secure outlooks and outcomes. The article concludes by suggesting how greater scrutiny of the local and country level conditions of agricultural and livestock production and trade especially in Kenya, and this broader globalization concept, might be useful for formulating more comprehensive agricultural and livestock, globalization and localization, and conflict models for research and policy to be applied at both the national and the county levels of Government.

Food insecurity as a cause or correlate of conflict

Studies of the political economy of war seldom look directly at food insecurity as either a cause or a consequence of conflict. This is due both to the complexity of the evidence of causation and also to the changing conceptualization of conflict. During the Cold War, scholars and politicians focused on the struggles for land and access to subsistence underlying peasant wars of the 20th century (Wolf 1969). U.S. food aid helped friendly governments maintain food security and political power (Wallerstein 1980; Cohen 1984). Agricultural modernization efforts, notably the Green Revolution in parts of Asia and the U.S. government's Alliance for Progress in Latin America, were framed and presented as alternatives to the "Red Revolution" of peasant uprisings (Wallerstein 1980).

After the Cold War, concern shifted from "war studies" to "peace studies," which analyze the causes of conflict and its prevention, management, and transformation. Some focused on perceived environmental scarcities and their consequences, including food insecurity, as either underlying or trigger causes (Homer-Dixon 1999), whereas others stressed political–cultural identities (Rupesinghe 1996; Paarlberg 2000; Gurr and Harff 2000). In yet another reframing, modelers associated with the World Bank's project on the Economics of Civil Wars, Crimes, and Violence (Collier and Hoeffler 1998, 2000; Collier 1999, 2000, 2001, 2003) considered the economic motivations for war, arguing that conflict was precipitated in some cases by "greed" (the desire to control resources), and in others by "grievance" (the perception of unfairness by those receiving the shortened of contested resources). They concluded that in most active conflict cases, greed trumps grievance (Collier 2000). The studies looked at contexts that take into account levels and sources of national and household income, ethno-linguistic fractionalization, natural resource endowments, and population size. But the studies do not focus on the root causes of conflicts, only at how warring parties pay for them (Collier 2003).

Scholars at the International Peace Research Institute in Oslo (PRIO) likewise found that natural resource abundance tends to fuel civil war. They do not find a link between resource scarcity and internal conflict (de Soysa 2000, 2002). None of these authors, however, attempt to put multiple factors and frameworks together, to see where food insecurity and globalization, taken together, affect conflict potential.

Political studies of the economic correlates of war—or of motives and opportunities of the combatants—have also found conflict associated with factors closely related to food insecurity, such as high infant mortality (Esty et al. 1995, 1998); extreme poverty, inequality, and declining per capita incomes (P. Collier 2003); and intergroup competition over land and water (Markakis 1998; Homer-Dixon 1999). However, most such studies do not deal with food insecurity or agricultural trade as a direct causative or correlative factor in conflict. A partial exception is the work of Nafziger and Auvinen(2000), which found that, between 1980 and 1995, poverty, low growth in incomes and food production, high inequality, and inflation, combined with high military spending and a tradition of military conflict, heightened countries' vulnerability to humanitarian emergencies. But this study did not specify the precise pathways through which these factors might combine and lead to conflict.

A review of country case studies indicates that both greed and grievance are implicated in intergroup competitions over resources. Examples include the conflicts that are frequently experienced in the Northern Kenya, including access to cash crops and resources to produce and profit from them, but also development and emergency aid (Messer, Cohen, and Marchione 2001). The trigger conditions

for violence may be natural, such as a prolonged drought (as in Ethiopia in 1973–74) (Shepherd 1975); economic, such as a change in price of the principal food (rice in Indonesia) (Fuller and Falcon 1999) or cash crop (coffee in Rwanda) (Uvin 1996), and the typical situations that are in the Arid and semi-arid land areas of Kenya which deprives the affected population of its perceived just standard of living; or political, such as the denial of access to land or social welfare programs in Chiapas, Mexico (G. Collier and Quaratiello1999).

Along the lines of argument above, Ohlsson (2000) recognizes that the conflict potential is especially high when inequalities or environmental degradation or both lead to extreme marginalization of large segments of populations, who suffer loss of livelihoods and face the prospect that new generations will never be able to attain them (Ohlsson, 2000) an exact replica of the Kenyan County Government situations in ASAL areas.

Historically, most individuals, households, communities, and peoples denied access to resources adequate to feed themselves and to live their lives with dignity have failed to rebel because they are (1) insufficiently organized and (2) overly terrorized and repressed. These conditions of channeled frustrations and hopelessness can lead to violence and conflict once there emerges political leadership that can successfully mobilize this discontent in ways that serve a leader's or group's particular political ends, usually articulated as a struggle for social justice or political identity.

Building resilience at the national and county levels of food security requires county-specific policies and a state that includes its citizens in the decision making processes and provides adequate services (the policy dimension). Household-level resilience can be further enhanced through specific programs, from either governments or international partners, to address factors related to the motivation to participate in conflicts and the opportunity costs to do so. Such programs will have to make a contribution toward reducing poverty and under-nutrition and create employment in order to build resilience to conflict.

Policy Implications

Several lessons emerge from the related literature. Conflicts often occur together with, and are related to other shocks such as economic crises, price shocks and natural disasters. In the cases of Egypt and Yemen, conflict was preceded by and likely related to a series of economic shocks, including the 2007–2008 and 2011 global food price hikes. The cases of Sudan and Somalia show that droughts can fuel ongoing conflicts by lowering prices (caused by the simultaneous sell-off of livestock), leading to lower opportunity costs for young men to participate in conflicts. Such interdependencies between different types of shocks often lead to "complex emergencies" and need to be considered in policy and program design.

Increasing subsidies is a favorite policy measure in times of crises, which helps keep poverty and food insecurity levels lower than they would be without subsidies. However, such measures do not qualify as resilience-building because they are not expected to help countries become better off (Nguka and Odebero, 2011). The cases of Egypt and Yemen show that rising subsidies not only have contributed to growing budget deficits but also were not well targeted and, in the case of Egypt, may have contributed to the double burden of malnutrition. Going forward, reforming subsidy systems (for example, by making them more efficient) would lead to savings that could be invested in more targeted food-security and

nutrition interventions as well as job-creating initiatives in poorer areas. This in turn may contribute to creating more opportunities, especially for young people, reducing their motivation for participating in conflict.

According to Besley and Persson(2011), Climate change adaptation should be an integral part of conflict prevention and food-security strategies in part because climate change is expected to significantly increase the likelihood of conflict in the future. The cases of Somalia and Sudan suggest that, for improving people's resilience to weather shocks and lowering the incentive for participating in conflict sustainably, alternative income sources and therefore economic growth and diversification are needed (Nguka and Odebero, 2011). Price information systems, the introduction and expansion of credit and insurance markets, and geographic targeting of social safety nets may also help people better cope with droughts and related price shocks.

Building functioning and effective institutions is essential for building resilience to conflict. In the case of Somalia, the lack of national governance currently limits the range of feasible policy options, particularly implementing public safety-net measures through national income redistribution. Reducing corruption and improving accountability and transparency will be critical in addressing some of the issues that exacerbated tensions and caused the conflict during 2011(IFPRI 2014).Coalition between different groups in favor of peace or conflict, the impact of decentralization on political stability, the sequence of reforms in a transition process, or the leverage of external actors (donors, civil society, peacekeeping missions, and so on) in favoring democratic transition.

From a policy point of view, little evaluation is made on the design of conflict-preventive interventions. For instance, food aid has been found to feed conflict (Nunn and Qian 2014; Besley and Persson 2011) but little is known about the efficiency of other interventions in conflict-prone areas. Given the high costs in terms of economic development, we need to better understand how best to help some counties escape the vicious circle of violence. Surprisingly, little research has been published to the efficiency and complementarity of military operations. Very little is also known on how best to contain the escalation of violence from low-intensity to high-intensity events.

As pointed out in the case of Sudan, the vulnerability of some groups (for example, pastoralist communities) like in the case of the Northern Kenya populations also raises the question of the efficiency of social protection interventions in terms of not only supporting those most in need but also strengthening the sustainability of long-term recovery.

Additional implementation challenges may relate to the integration of returnees (either refugees or internally displaced persons) and ex-combatants. Interventions need to be sensitive to the potential conflicts among these different groups, and they need to be designed in ways that promote reintegration and post conflict reconciliation, rather than contribute to new conflicts (Mabiso et al. 2014). One reality that is in the Northern Kenya is the fact that it is also a home to Thousands of refugees from the neighboring countries for and on behalf of International communities and therefore this paper proposes the need to include the interventions for the host communities as part and parcel of the refugee programs or side by side interventions to eliminate conflicts and disparities in livelihoods that would fuel conflicts.

Agricultural and Livestock Trade, Conflict, and Food Insecurity: Evidence from Case Studies in Relation to the Kenyan Situation

Export cropping can have peace-promoting and positive food security impacts. But the "peace dividend" depends on the types of commodities, the scale and breadth of trade, the structural conditions of production and distribution of benefits, financial terms of trade, and a particular leader's calculation about the costs of warfare versus the benefits of peace, assuming her or his side will win (Dorussen 2002). Nutritional consequences depend on who controls how much of the resulting income and also the relative costs of basic foods. Research suggests that trade reduces conflict incentives only when other internal political stressors are absent, and where trading-partner countries enjoy relatively symmetric economic and military relations (Schneider, Barbieri, and Gleditsch 2003). Otherwise, the revenues from food or cash crop and livestock production may qualify as one of the sources of "greed" or "grievance" in the inception, transformation, and post-war prevention of conflict. Given all these qualifications, it is probably more instructive to examine particular case studies of cash crops, food insecurity, and conflict under particular political–economic conditions. For example, small farmers have succeeded in entering markets for high value added fruit and vegetable exports in such countries as Vietnam and Uganda, where an increase in staples output accompanied the growth in small farmers' export production.

Case studies also show that export cropping contributes to poverty reduction and food security where policies, practices, and institutions assure that small farmers, especially women, have access to land, capital, information, education, and health infrastructure (Watkins and von Braun 2003; Kherallah et al. 2002; von Braun and Kennedy 1994). But international marketing of cash crops such as French beans, grown for export in Burkina Faso and Zambia, involves multiple layers of middlemen and many cultural, health, and environmental considerations for both growers and consumers. As a result, market conditions can shift very rapidly, reducing cash crop incomes relative to food. In the case of Kenya, ASAL area counties would greatly improve their food insecurity by commercializing the livestock production through trading opportunities offered by the United States of America through the AGOA and this would intern improve on household income and help in busting house hold food and nutrition security.

Humanitarianism

Peace-promoting efforts such as the convention banning land mines, the International Criminal Court, and the voluntary guidelines on the right to adequate food developed under FAO auspices, play an active but not yet sufficient role in reducing the destructive forces that produce conflict and food insecurity. Improvements in famine early warning systems and emergency nutrition interventions, building on global integration of information and communications technology and transportation, enhance the international community's ability to detect and respond to food crises. Such efforts are guided by global humanitarian norms that assert the right to assist in zones of armed conflict and the right of noncombatants to be free from hunger (SPHERE, 2003). Such principles help break the links between conflict and hunger, as shown in UN-authorized military–humanitarian interventions in Iraqi Kurdistan, Somalia, and the former Yugoslavia in the 1990s. Humanitarians, citing a global mandate and coming from all over the world have also become important players, introducing a new, global ethic and set of principles for distributing additional global sources of relief food and other aid in conflict or post-conflict zones. Their "livelihood security" framing builds on household strategies for managing risk and vulnerability, taking into account household assets, entitlements, and possible sources of income and

food (Lautze et al. 2003, Drèze and Sen 1989).

The closely related "rights-based" approach furthermore pays particular attention to gender, age, and other social divisions of labor in production, and differences in distribution of food and other resources, to understand who gets what and who is left out, while also attempting to build a framework for participation, by individuals, in rebuilding processes. In contrast to the national and global analyses treated in the rest of this paper, both livelihood and rights-based strategies usually involve analysis and program implementation in smaller-scale social units, not whole countries or regions (Schafer 2002). From this household or small-group perspective, practitioners indicate how relief agencies and peace keepers often contribute to the "war economy." For example,programs established and implemented under humanitarian principles move food to those in need and save lives, but in the process introduce food, vehicles, weapons, and personnel, whose upkeep can also fuel conflict. Or, as in the case of Somalia in 1992, they destroy local food production and markets because international NGO relief operations entered and would not leave. International humanitarian operations then created demand for provisioning and armed protection that favored militarized over peaceful economic interests a situation that seemed to have played in the North Eastern part of Kenya which coincidentally borders Somalia. Food aid introduced a new primary resource available for looting and manipulation. All these developments advantaged agents with arms, who were able to shake down peace negotiators for resources, including land (Collins and Weiss 1997).

Humanitarian interventions and peacekeeping operations often involve external military forces in the delivery of humanitarian assistance and reconstruction activities. In so doing, these operations may usurp the roles of civil society in seeking to negotiate sustainable public services and stable relationships with government authorities (Messer 1996b; De Waal 1997). Military activities, as in the cases of Guatemala's "beans and guns" strategy to pacify highland Maya and Mexico's military-controlled food relief to Zapatista rebel areas, remind recipients who is the dominant power and may serve directly as sources of oppression (G. Collier and Quaratiello 1999). The question of how U.S. plans for reconstruction in Afghanistan and Iraq will avoid such dilemmas remains unanswered. International humanitarians, intending to assist, may incidentally contribute to ongoing hostilities and distrust by allowing village committees, for example, to continue to discriminate against intended beneficiaries of agricultural rehabilitation programs, thereby heightening the potential for renewed or continued conflict (Archibald and Richards 2002). In contrast, rights-based approaches analyze existing social-structural,ethnic, and power relations, in order to deliver services and meet basic needs in ways that include all social agents. A rights-based approach begins with a deep respect for the inherent dignity of all, and requires aid workers to work closely with communities, to help people understand their rights and find ways to articulate rights demands through program participation (ODI 1999). Humanitarian and human rights advocates also make use of global communications technologies such as the Internet, disseminating information about the plight and oppression of people otherwise isolated from global scrutiny. They draw attention to human rights violations and food insecurity. The Zapatista indigenous conflict with the government of Mexico thus received international attention, which arguably prevented a crackdown by Mexican authorities, at least in the short run (G. Collier and Quaratiello 1999).

Information and communications technology can serve war as well as peace. Sierra Leone's Revolutionary United Front coordinated military operations, diamond sales, and arms purchases via satellite phone from bases in the country's hinterland, while ruthlessly keeping the local civilian populace under its

control (Rupert 2000). Indeed, contemporary wars seem to have moved beyond the interstate–intrastate dichotomy to a "trans-state" category, as they rely on international communications, transport, trade, and aid (Collins and Weiss 1997).

Reconnoitering Peace and Food Security

Our findings suggest four points for policymakers to consider in furthering this global "peace and food-security business." Kenya requires peace in order to achieve more food-secure outlooks and reap potential benefits of globalization especially in the Arid and semi-arid Land areas (ASAL). In the Northern Kenya particularly, development assistance, including aid to agriculture and rural development, can deter conflict if it is integrated into the construction of social contexts that promote equity in sharing the national and county cake, a concept whose foundation has already been set on the tenets of devolution in the Kenyan constitution.

First, conflict and food emergency counties overlap considerably. These counties are often the ones that cannot make good use of the "bright side" of free-market globalization—the transnational capitalist outlook of prosperity based on economic growth, liberalized markets, and democratization as in the case of AGOA. However, these counties frequently do make good use of global networking, which sustains civil society agents working for peace. Unfortunately, such networking also sustains power brokers associated with what pro-globalizers view as globalization's "dark side"—international terrorism, financed by trade in arms, minerals and other nonrenewable resources, and drugs, and also the increasing gap between rich and poor that threatens peaceful development in poor counties particularly in the North Eastern Kenya. Donors need to find ways to distribute food and agricultural assistance that will be equitable and not reinforce the local and regional power structures that promise more conflict. The experience of long-term humanitarian and development aid fieldworkers in post-conflict countries, such as Sierra Leone, can help in this regard (Archibald and Richards 2002).

Second, it is not export cropping per se, but rather the structures of production and markets and the food and financial policy context at the county Government level that determine local household incomes and peaceful or belligerent outcomes. Contrasting Central American experiences with coffee production suggest the important role of national government policies in assuring peaceful and equitable results. When the prices of key export crops collapsed in Latin America and Southeast Asia, conflict due to discontent was avoided because alternative livelihood sources and peaceful outlets (such as electoral politics in Brazil) were available. These experiences offer lessons that should be followed up in Africa specifically Kenya in dealing with conflicts in the Northern Kenya and any other conflict prone area within the Country. Third, it is essential to monitor the impacts of global prices of developing countries' key agricultural and livestock exports, such as coffee, cotton, meat and meat alternatives. The idea, articulated recently by P. Collier and his team at the World Bank, of a compensatory fund (P. Collier 2003; see also Adams 1983; Hazell, Pomareda, and Valdés 1986), merits further development. This would help the "losers" from globalization to adjust and diversify their sources of income, so that they can get back on their feet. It remains unclear what institution would run such a fund, however.

Further, as Addison and others at the UN University's World Institute on Development Economics have shown, it will be important to factor in monetary policies, exchange rates, and the actions of export marketing boards, all of which can compromise small-farmer incomes and skew production (Addison

2005). Additionally, the "livelihood-security" (Adato and Meinzen-Dick 2003) and "rights based development" (Lungman 2004) frameworks offer positive ways to approach conflict prevention at the local level, but these need to be linked more effectively to political and economic programs at the national level. Some development agencies have begun to think about integrating these approaches into their development activities, as have some bilateral aid donor agencies and development NGOs. At the macro level, aid donors can pressure government leaders to make sure that revenues from trade go into human resource development, such as education and health care, and not into an individual leader's bank account. Presumably, food-security-related investments would also be a productive place to put public resources, although the World Bank studies do not address this explicitly. They do call for international sanctions to help make it less lucrative for rebels to exploit primary resources (Collier 2003).

Globalization can help mitigate or even prevent violence, but activities must be undertaken with an eye to conflict prevention and justice promotion. Examining the specifics of trade in particular agricultural commodities such as coffee, cotton, and sugarcane allows one to see both the "root causes" of hunger and conflict and their interconnections and also the trigger causes. Historically, more localized struggles for control over high-value agricultural commodities especially livestock in the pastoralist community, and for control over the land, water, and labor resources to grow them, are part of many conflict pictures, which have included "blood cattle raiding" as well as "blood diamonds," and white, snowy cotton, not just "snow" processed from coca leaves. Even basic foods, including humanitarian rations and other forms of food aid, can foster competition to control the distribution. These comprise important dimensions of the political economies sustaining prolonged civil wars and civil strife in the early 21st century, as leaders seek to feed their armies and supporters, and deny their enemies nutrition. Assuring fair and equitable access to scarce water and land resources are important considerations in post-conflict reconstruction, which can deter the likelihood of renewed war. The trade regulations and market structure for particular agricultural commodities may also prove important where countries depend heavily on a single export crop that is subject to sudden price declines. These factors also have a bearing on more widespread human-rights violations and livelihood disruptions. They need greater emphasis in development agency assessments.

In the review, revelations include the fact that globalization offers positive norms and values to guide an increasingly interconnected world. However, it will require institutions dedicated to peace, social justice, and sustainable food and nutrition security for all, linked to development processes at both the grassroots and the summit, to make the bright side of globalization an intentional reality through conscious efforts by leaders in Kenya. The flow chart diagram (Fig 1) below shows the conflict resiliency–food security framework.
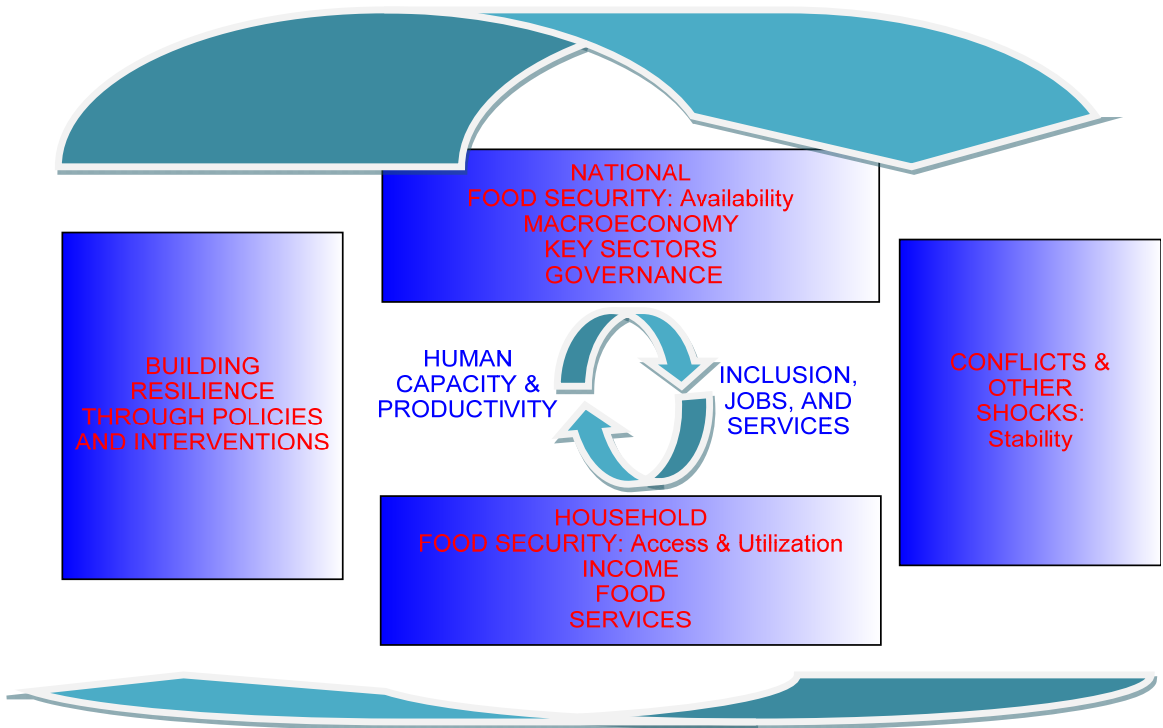
Fig 1: The Conflict Resiliency–Food Security Framework

Conclusion and Recommendations

Several important knowledge and research gaps remain: The article has made considerable progress in revealing the impact of conflict on food and nutrition security and vice versa. Nonetheless, the focus on identification in quantitative analysis may have caused the review to overlook very significant questions for conflict resolution. The political economy of conflicts is not well understood. For instance, very little is known about the role of leaders in favoring a peaceful transition into the new structure of Government in Kenya, the potential coalition between different groups in favor of peace or conflict, the impact of decentralization or devolution on political stability, the sequence of reforms in a transition process, or the leverage of external actors (donors, civil society, peacekeeping missions, and so on) in favoring democratic transition especially in the implementation of the Kenyan new constitution.

From a policy point of view, little evaluation is made on the design of conflict-preventive interventions. For instance, food aid has been found to feed conflict (Nunn and Qian 2014; Besley and Persson 2011). However, little is known about the efficiency of other interventions in conflict-prone areas. Given the high costs in terms of economic development, the need to better understand how best to help some countries escape the vicious circle of violence. Surprisingly, little research has been published to the efficiency and complementarity of military operations.

Further, very little is also known on how best to contain the escalation of violence from low-intensity to high-intensity events. As pointed out in the case of Sudan just like the pastoralist communities in Kenya,

the vulnerability of some groups (for example, pastoralist communities) also raises the question of the efficiency of social protection interventions in terms of not only supporting those most in need but also strengthening the sustainability of long-term recovery.

Additional implementation challenges may relate to the integration of returnees (either refugees or internally displaced persons) and ex-combatants especially within the Kenyan situation. Challenges would revolve around talk about the Al-shabaab recruits who have surrendered under the amnesty given by national government and the Kenyan returnees from Ethiopia especially in the case of Mandera region. Interventions need to be case-sensitive particularly as relates to the potential conflicts among the different groups. Finally, the interventions need to be designed in ways that promote reintegration and post-conflict reconciliation, rather than contributing to new conflicts (Mabiso et al. 2014).

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