EFFECT OF ETHNIC CONFLICTS ON MANAGEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CONFLICT-PRONE REGIONS: A CASE OF THE LOWLAND AREAS OF BARINGO COUNTY, KENYA

BY JERONO KIPROP-MARAKIS

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION (EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND
POLICY STUDIES) UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET, KENYA

DECLARATION

Declaration by Student

The thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for any other academic award in any institution and shall not be reproduced in part or full or in any format without prior written permission from the author and/or University of Eldoret.

Jerono Kiprop-Marakis	
EDU/S/PHD/009/15	Date
Declaration by the Supervisors	
The thesis has been submitted with our approv	al as the University Supervisors.
Prof. Ferej K. Ahmed	Date
Lecturer, Department of Technology Educa	tion
University of Eldoret, Kenya	
Dr. I vdio Kinkoooh	Doto
Dr. Lydia Kipkoech	Date
Lecturer, Department of Educational Mana University of Eldoret Kenya	gement

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family for their love, understanding and support during the many long hours when I have had to sit and write this thesis, my late father for sending me to school, my mother for her fervent prayers and my siblings for their kind words of encouragement.

ABSTRACT

Kenya is made up of different ethnic communities with diverse cultures. This diversity brings about competition for scarce resources among the different groups resulting in ethnic polarization. Ethnic conflicts between communities have led to the violation of fundamental human and community rights. In addition, learning and instruction have been interfered with by ethnic conflicts because the environment is insecure, unhealthy and unsafe. However, schools can be used as bridges for building peaceful coexistence between communities. This study looked at the effect of ethnic conflicts in the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions in Kenya. The main study objective was to examine the prevalence of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions in Kenya. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to; determine the effect of ethnic conflicts on management of students in secondary schools, analyse the effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management in secondary schools, establish the challenges faced by secondary school administrators and examine intervention mechanisms to conflicts employed by the management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. The study was significant in adding to the body of knowledge and in the generation of strategies for peaceful coexistence between communities. The study was guided by the Systems Theory founded by Ludwig Von Bertalanffy and Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of needs Theory. The study was carried out in the lowland areas of Baringo County, specifically in the areas around East Pokot (Tiaty), the lower part of North Baringo bordering East Pokot, and around Marigat (Baringo south) which suffer frequent violent ethnic conflicts. The communities living in this region are Tugen, Pokot, Illchamus and Turkana. The study was anchored on pragmatism philosophy which permits use of quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches. The target population for the study consisted of 22 principals, 88 executive members of Board of Management, 205 teachers and 88 student leaders. The sampling methods that were utilised in selecting respondents for this study were both probability and non-probability. Questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect data. The study used both inferential and descriptive statistics to analyse data. Data was presented in frequency tables, graphical illustration and narrations. All respondents for the study acknowledged the existence of ethnic conflicts that were manifested through cattle rustling and displacement of people from their homes. The study found that ethnic conflicts affected the management of students in that it led to incidents of absenteeism, truant behaviour and decreased academic performance among others. The study also established that ethnic conflicts resulted in teacher absenteeism, lack of syllabus coverage and high teacher turnover in schools. From the study it was clear that ethnic conflicts sometimes led to incidents of death of teachers and students and destruction of school facilities. In terms of strategy, the study found that the school management had started securing schools through perimeter fencing and engaging security personnel to provide security for students and teachers. Findings in the study concluded that ethnic conflicts had effect on the management of both students and teachers in secondary schools in Kenya. The study recommends that the government assists school management to put up more low cost boarding schools in the lowland areas. Further, the school Board of Management of different schools need to work together with county, national government and other non-governmental institutions to create awareness from time to time in students and community members on the value of peace for sustainable economic and social development.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xii
CHAPTER ONE	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background of the Study	1
1.3 Statement of the Problem	6
1.4 Research Objectives	8
1.5 Research Questions	8
1.6 Research Hypothesis	9
1.7 Justification	
1.8 Significance of the Study	12
1.9 Scope and Delimitation of the Study	13
1.10 Limitations of the Study	13
1.11 Assumptions of the Study	14
1.12 Theoretical Framework	14
1.12.1 Systems Theory	15
1.12.2 Maslow Theory of Needs	17
1.13 Conceptual Framework	21
1.14 Operational Definition of Terms	24
1.15 Chapter Summary	24
CHAPTER TWO	26
LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction	26
2.1.1 Concept of Conflicts	26
2.1.2 The Concept of Ethnicity in Conflicts	27

2.1.3 The Concept of Ethnic Conflict	28
2.1.4 Ethnic Conflicts in Baringo County	32
2.2 Conflicts and Education	34
2.3 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Management of Student in Schools	40
2.4 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Teacher Management in Schools	55
2.5 Challenges Faced by School Management due to Ethnic Conflicts	60
2.6 Intervention Mechanisms to Ethnic Conflicts by School Management	67
2.7 Summary	76
CHAPTER THREE	79
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	79
3.1 Introduction	79
3.2 Research Philosophy	79
3.3 Research Design	81
3.4 Study Area	82
3.5 Target Population	83
3.6 Sampling Design	84
3.6.1 Selection of Principals	85
3.6.2 Sampling of BoM Members	86
3.6.3 Sampling of Student Leaders	86
3.6.4 Sampling of Teachers	87
3.6.5 Sample Size	87
3.7 Research Instruments	88
3.7.1 Questionnaire for Student leaders	89
3.7.2 Questionnaire for Teachers	90
3.7.3 Interview Guide for Principals	90
3.7.4 Interview Guide for BoM Members	91
3.8 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments	91
3.8.1 Validity of the Research Instruments	91
3.8.2 Reliability of Research Instruments	94
3.9 Data Collection Procedures	96
3.9.1 Administration of Questionnaire to Student Leaders	97
3.9.2 Administration of Questionnaire to Teachers	97
3.9.3 Interview with Principals	97

3.9.4 Interview with BoM Members	98
3.10 Data Analysis Procedures	98
3.11 Ethical Issues in Data Collection	100
3.12 Chapter Summary	101
CHAPTER FOUR	102
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	102
4.1 Introduction	102
4.1.1 Instruments Return Rate	102
4.1.2 Background Information of the Respondents	103
4.2 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Student Management in Secondary So	chools
	108
4.2.1 Student Response on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts	108
4.2.2 Responses from Teachers on the Level of Ethnic Conflict	112
4.2.3 Principals Responses on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts	115
4.2.4 BoM Members' Responses on the Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts	116
4.2.5 Students Responses on the Effect of Conflict on their Education	117
4.2.6 Teacher Responses on the Effect of Conflict on Management of Stu	idents
	121
4.2.7 Principals Responses on the Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Student	
Management	126
4.2.8 BoM Members' Responses on the Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on	
Management of Students	127
4.3 Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management in Secondary School	s128
4.3.1 Students' Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Mana	gement
	129
4.3.2 Teachers Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Mana	igement
	133
4.3.3 Principals Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Man	agement
	137
4.3.4 BoM Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Managen	nent.138
4.4 Challenges faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflicts	139
4.4.1 Students Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management d	uring
Ethnic Conflicts	140

4.4.2 Teachers Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management	during
Ethnic Conflicts	143
4.4.3 Principals Responses on Challenges Faced by School Managemer	nt during
Ethnic Conflict Periods	146
4.4.4 BoM Responses on Challenges Faced during Ethnic Conflict	147
4.5 School Management Intervention Mechanisms to Ethnic Conflicts	148
4.5.1 Student Leaders Responses on Interventions Made by School on	
Management of Ethnic Conflicts	149
4.5.2 Teachers Responses on Interventions Made by School on Manage	ment of
Ethnic Conflicts	152
4.5.3 Principals Responses on Interventions Made on Management of E	Ethnic
Conflicts	156
4.5.4 BoM Members Responses on Interventions Made on Managemen	t of
Ethnic Conflicts	157
4.6 Chapter Four Summary	158
CHAPTER FIVE	160
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
5.1 Introduction	
5.2 Summary of the Findings	160
5.2.1 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Student Management	160
5.2.2 Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management in Secondary S	
	162
5.2.3 Challenges Secondary School Management Face during Ethnic Co	
	164
5.2.4 School Management Intervention Mechanisms to Conflicts	165
5.3 Conclusions	166
5.4 Recommendations of the Study	168
5.5 Suggestions for Further Research	
REFERENCES	
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION	
APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENT LEADERS	
APPENDIX III: OUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS	

APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PRINCIPALS	.198
APPENDIX V: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR BOM MEMBERS	.200
APPENDIX VI: SECONDARY DATA	.202
APPENDIX VII: UNIVERSITY RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER	.203
APPENDIX VIII: NACOSTI RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER	.204
APPENDIX IX: NACOSTI RESEARCH PERMIT	.205
APPENDIX X: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION BARINGO COUNTY	
RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER	.206
APPENDIX XI: BARINGO COUNTY COMMISSIONER RESEARCH	
AUTHORIZATION LETTER	.207
APPENDIX XII: BARINGO COUNTY MAP	.208
APPENDIX XIII: LOCATION OF BARINGO COUNTYIN KENYA	.208
APPENDIX IX: SIMILARITY INDEX/ANTI-PLAGIARISM REPORT	.210

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Baringo County Summary Staffing Position	.5
Table 3.1: Target Population	84
Table 3.2: Sampling Frame for the Study	88
Table 3.3 Experts Content Validation Index for Research Instruments	93
Table 3.4: Critical Values for Alpha Values	96
Table 3.5: Data Analysis Matrix	99
Table 4.1: Instruments Return Rate	02
Table 4.2: Demographic Information of Student Leaders	03
Table 4.3: Distribution of Demographic Data for Teachers	05
Table 4.4: Principal's Demographic Data10	07
Table 4.5: Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts from Students Perspective	09
Table 4.6: Responses by Teachers on the prevalence of Ethnic Conflict	12
Table 4.7: Students Responses on the Effect of Conflict on their Education	18
Table 4.8: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Student Management	21
Table 4.9: Teachers' Responses on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts on Students	
Attendance to School	22
Table 4.10: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Student Management as per Teacher	rs
12	25
Table 4.11: Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management	29
Table 4.12: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Teacher Management as per Studen	t
Leaders	32
Table 4.13: Teachers' Responses on Effect of ethnic conflict on teacher managemen	t
1	33
Table 4.14: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Teacher Management as per Teache	rs
1	36
Table 4.15: Students Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management during	3
Ethnic Conflicts	40
Table 4.16: Teachers' Responses on Challenges Faced by Secondary School	
Administrators14	43
Table 4.17: Students' Responses on Intervention Mechanisms by Schools to	
Management of Ethnic Conflicts	49
Table 4.18: Teachers Responses on Intervention mechanisms by Schools on the	
Management of Ethnic Conflicts	53

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs	19
Figure 1. 2: Conceptual Framework	21

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

ASAL Arid and Semi-Arid Lands

BoM Board of Management

CBE Curriculum Based Establishment

CRECO Constitution and Reform Education Consortium

DD Difference in Differences

DFID Department For International Development

DRC Democratic Republic of Congo

EFA Education For All

FDSE Free Day Secondary Education

FGM Female Genital Mutilation

FPE Free Primary Education

GCPEA Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack

GER Gross Enrollment Rate

GoK Government of Kenya

HIV Human Immunodeficiency Virus

IDP Internally Displaced Persons

INEE Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies

KCSE Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

KTTF Kenya Thabiti Task Force

KNCHR Kenya National Commission for Human Rights

KNUT Kenya National Union of Teachers

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

MoE Ministry of Education

NACOSTI National Council for Science and Technology

NCCK National Council of Churches of Kenya

NER Net Enrollment Rate

NG-CDF National Government- Constituency Development Fund

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

PEV Post Election Violence

PEP Peace Education Program

PH Physically Handicap

PSCI Psychological Support and Crisis Intervention

SDGs Sustainable Development Goals

SGBs School Governing Bodies

SGBV Sexual and Gender-Based Violence

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SSA Sub-Saharan Africa

TSC Teachers Service Commission

TSCS Time-Series Cross Sectional

UN United Nations

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF United Nations International Children Fund

UPE Universal Primary Education

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the topic of the study. First, it provides the background on ethnic conflicts and their effect around the world, Africa, East Africa, Kenya and the lowland areas of Baringo County in particular. The background is followed by the statement of the problem, the objectives of the research, the research questions, and the hypotheses of the study. Also covered in this chapter is the justification of the study, the scope, limitations of the study, study assumptions, the theoretical framework and the conceptual framework. The chapter also covers the definition of terms used in the study. Lastly the chapter is the summarized.

1.2 Background of the Study

There are a number of aspects that create tensions between people. This may sometimes lead to conflicts. Wachira (2015) has defines conflicts as a clash that occurs when there is a difference in interests, needs, understanding, beliefs and/or value. It may occur between two people, between groups of people, between communities and even nations. According to Dal Bo and Powel (2007) conflict may arise and if it is not addressed on time, it may lead to violence. Conflicts also arise in personal relationships, in business and professional organizations and between nations. Conflicts can either be between communities that live in a certain geographical area or within a singular ethnic identity.

Researchers (Cukier & Sidel, 2006; Tropp, 2011; Correa, 2013) have documented in their Small Arms Survey that inter-ethnic conflicts and other regional conflicts account for about 500,000 deaths globally, with armed conflict contributing more than half of this number around the world. The breakup of the former Soviet Union in the

1990's was a result of ethnic struggles by smaller communities for political autonomy and freedom from socio-economic exploitation by larger communities (Goodhand, 2003) and this stirred up other societies in Eastern Europe to do the same. In the United States, Martinez (2017) argued that conflicts based on ethnicity continue to occur today in a wide range of settings. Of particular interest are ethnic conflicts that occur in schools due to the impact that they have on students' emotional well-being, academic achievement and the overall school climate.

In Africa violent ethnic conflicts have been witnessed in several countries including Rwanda pitting two ethnic groups; the Tutsi and the Hutu; South Sudan between the Nuer and the Dinka and in other African countries such as Ethiopia, Djibouti, Nigeria, Liberia, Sierra-Leone, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sudan and Kenya (Mamdani, 2009; Warurii, 2015). Some of the factors fuelling ethnic conflicts could either be economic, political or social competition between communities for resources such as grazing rights, water or land (Mayai, 2017). In addition to this, "the divide and rule" policy used by colonial administration in sub Sahara Africa has fuelled ethnic conflicts in Sub Saharan Africa (Mamdani, 2009). When one ethnic group has monopoly of economic resources to the exclusion of others, conflicts are bound to arise. This was the case in Rwanda, where the majority Hutu who were not economically and politically empowered, rose against the minority Tutsi (Mamdani, 2009). Since 1991, there has been mass exodus of Somali nationals to Kenya due to inter-clan conflicts in their country. Mkutu (2008) has documented that 32 people, in every 100,000 people in Africa, die as a result of conflicts.

In Kenya most communities that neighbour each other have been involved in conflicts ostensibly due to incompatibilities that arise because of societal values,

economic and political competition. The conflict-prone regions include the Nyanza region, where the Luo and the Abagusii, have been warring for a long time; the coastal region pitting the Mijikenda against upcountry people with tragic results (Kiliku, 1992; Akiwumi, 1999). At the Tana Delta, there have been deadly ethnic conflicts between the Orma and the Pokomo, over grazing land and water (Mkutu, 2008). The Rift Valley has witnessed ethnic conflicts several inter-ethnic conflicts: the Agikuyu and the Kalenjin community since 1990's and more recently the Maasai and Kipsigis in Narok and Nakuru counties, Pokot, Turkana, Illchamus and Tugen in Laikipia and Baringo Counties, Pokot and Turkana at the border between the two counties and Pokot and Marakwet between Elgeyo-Marakwet and West Pokot counties (KTTF, 2008; Warurii, 2015). The reason for these conflicts has been land ownership in areas (Mkutu, 2008). Other regions that have experienced conflicts include the Luo and the Nandi, and the conflict between the Sabaot and the Babukusu due to cattle rustling.

Baringo County is situated in the North Rift region, which is settled by groups that have identical characteristics since most of them engage in pastoralism. Because of their way of live characterised by nomadism, conflicts in this region has become a norm, due to theft of animals and fighting over land and territorial boundaries (Weiss, 2004). According to Pkalya, Adan and Masinde (2003) those communities that inhabit the semi-arid and arid areas and usually move from place to place are defined as pastoral communities. Livestock (goats, cattle, sheep and camels) are their only means of livelihoods and must therefore, search for water and pasture for their animals. Because the lower area of Baringo County is an ASAL area these resources are hard to find due to the fact that it receives low amount of rain.

In view of this therefore, conflicts between communities because of the minimal resources are bound to arise. Moreover, it is very easy to acquire small arms in the region which flares the conflicts further. Kareithi (2015) has documented the increase of banditry and livestock theft in the North Rift in the recent years. Due to this increase, the general welfare of people living in this region has been affected greatly. Pkalya et al. (2003) study in North Rift of neighbouring communities of Pokot, Turkana, Samburu and Marakwet, found that 70% of those people displaced by conflicts were women and children (below 14 years). In the same study, over 32,000 people had been displaced by the year 2003 in the Kerio valley due to conflicts involving Turkana, Marakwet, Tugen, Illchamus, Samburu and the Pokot communities.

Ethnic conflicts in Baringo County involve communities living in the the semi-arid and arid (lowlands) areas. Because of these conflicts some people have lost their lives while others have lost their properties. In addition, conflicts often lead to fear, mistrust, hunger, starvation, disruption of education among others. Often people in this area are characterised by general hopelessness. Peoples' rights, law and order and public peace are interfered with. The area in Baringo County that receive minimal amount of rain annually and are characterised by harsh terrain was the area covered by the study. This study covered Mukutani area in Baringo South sub-county, and Bartabwa in Baringo North sub-county. In Tiaty sub-county, the study covered Chemolingot, Loruk, and up to Kapedo. The main in habitants of these areas are the Ilchamus, the Tugen, the Pokot and the Turkana. Most of these communities are pastoralist in nature hence; conflicts often arise due to scarcity of the resources.

Ethnic conflicts generally, have effects that affect the society in the long-run. These effects also have impact on the management of schools in this area and strategies have to be sought to make them run smoothly.

The performance of public secondary schools within the three sub counties over the past five years have been below average in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education. This can be attributed to the shortage of teachers that are experienced by schools in this area. The analysis of Baringo County staffing position in secondary schools is illustrated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Baringo County Summary Staffing Position

Lower Baringo	Students	Teachers	Curriculum Based	Teachers	% of
sub counties			Establishment	Shortage	shortage
Baringo North	8641	306	444	132	29.7
Baringo South	5255	169	248	88	35.5
Tiaty	2182	76	112	33	29.5
Total	16078	551	804	253	31.5

Source: TSC County Director (2019)

Data on staffing position showed that the three sub counties continue to face teacher shortages despite the increasing number of student populations associated with subsidisation of secondary education by the government. Data on Table 1.1 indicate that the teacher: student ratio was high. Thus, one of the reasons for this study was to determine whether the shortages of teachers experienced in schools could be as a result of ethnic conflicts. Therefore, the study investigated ethnic conflicts in the lower regions of Baringo County to find out how its effects on the management of public secondary schools.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

A school environment should be one that is inclusive, protective, healthy and secure for learning and instruction to take place. It is an environment that gives every learner equal opportunity to learn and engage, while being motivated to achieve the set goals. A school environment that supports learning, with the requisite infrastructure, (teaching and learning materials), create a positive culture, for quality learning to be achieved. A good learning environment is one that is free from fear, threats, intimidation and anxiety. Conducive school environments build teachers and administrators who are positive, organised, outgoing and confident to address the learner's needs. The high population growth rate in most African countries has resulted in the increased demand for resources. Consequently, peace and security is threatened giving way to an environment that is prone to conflicts, in particular, internal conflicts as communities compete for scarce resources.

Due to ethnic conflicts the numbers of children who do not attend school have increased. Ethnic conflicts have led to an increase of children who repeat classes, those who drop out of school and wastage (Kenya Thabiti Task Force, 2008). According to Baringo County Education Report (2019), there were 62 secondary schools in the three lower sub counties of Baringo with an enrolment of 8800 (54.7%) boys and 7278 (45.3%) girls, making a total of 16,078 students as at May 2019. Secondary school net enrolment rate for the Countystood at 45.3% (Baringo County Integrated Development Plan, 2018-2022). In Baringo County the perennial conflicts between pastoralist communities have made the school environment to be insecure. The safety of both the learner and the teacher was not assured. According to Dryden-Peterson (2009), ethnic conflict sometimes may lead to death of students and teachers, displacement, theft and destruction of school property. All these may affect students'

attendance to school, the productivity of teachers and the management function of school administrators.

Ethnic conflicts in Baringo County involve pastoralist communities living in the lowlands areas of Tiaty, Baringo South and part of North Baringo sub-counties. The major communities living in the lowlands are the Pokot, the Turkana, the Illchamus (also referred to as Njemps) and the Tugens. Their main sources of living are livestock (sheep, camels, goats, and cattle) except the Tugen and the Ilchamus who practice both pastoralist and subsistence farming. For the nomadic communities, water and pasture accessibility for their livestock are vital for their survival (Kumssa, 2009). Ethnic conflicts in Baringo County are mainly perpetrated by the pokot community (Schilling, Opiyo & Scheffran, 2012).

Most studies have been carried out on conflicts in most North Rift Counties that practice pastoralism such as Turkana, Samburu and Marsabit (Kiraithe, 2015; Pkalya et al., 2003; Greinner, 2012; Kitpuru, 2010). However, studies on the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of schools in Baringo County were minimal leading to this study. Moreover, studies that have looked at the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of schools have not been done.

The objective of the study, therefore, was to examine the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of learners in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. The study also examined the effect of ethnic conflict on teacher management, the challenges faced by school management as a result of conflicts and the different approaches employed by these institutions in preventing the ripple effects on schools. The study's aim was to come up with intervention strategies and policies that can be employed by schools to prevent the adverse effect of ethnic conflicts on their

management. It aimed at giving recommendations to the stakeholders in the sub-County, the County and the national government in general on ways that could be employed to eradicate ethnic conflicts and the modes of building peace within and between the different communities living in this area.

1.4 Research Objectives

The main objective of the study was to examine the effect of prevalence of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in the lowland conflict-prone region of Baringo County in Kenya. More specifically the study aimed at:-

- Determining the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of students in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County
- Analysing the extent to which teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County, are affected by ethnic conflicts.
- 3. Establishing the challenges brought about by ethnic conflicts to secondary school administrators in the lowland areas of Baringo County.
- 4. Examining intervention mechanisms to ethnic conflicts, that secondary school management in the lowland areas of Baringo County have employed in schools.

1.5 Research Questions

Generally, the study aimed at answering the question: what is the effect of prevalence of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone region of Baringo County in Kenya? The following specific questions guided the study to achieve its objectives.

1. What is the effect of ethnic conflict on the management of students in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County?

- 2. Do what extent does ethnic conflicts in the lowland areas of Baringo County affect teacher management in public secondary schools?
- 3. What challenges that have been brought about by ethnic conflicts do secondary school managers in the lowland areas of Baringo County face?
- 4. What intervention mechanisms do secondary school management in the lowland areas of Baringo County employ to mitigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on their schools?

1.6 Research Hypothesis

Null hypothesis H_0 is that which the researcher tries to disapprove, reject or nullify. It is a predictive statement of possible outcomes of a study. This study had two hypothesis testing objective one and two, stated as follows:

- H0₁: Ethnic conflicts prevalence has no significant effect on student management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County.
- H0₂: Ethnic conflicts have no significant effect on teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County

1.7 Justification

The purpose of the study was to explore the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone areas, specifically the lowland areas of Baringo County. The (United Nations, 2016) acknowledged the failure by most countries, the world over, to achieve the Millennium Development Goal (MDGs) on Universal Primary Education (UPE) and by 2013 more than 59 million children and 65 million adolescents were out of school. Most governments the world over, have invested heavily in secondary school education (UNESCO, 2005). In Africa the demand for secondary education is increasing rapidly (Verspoor, 2008).

UNESCO (2011) had estimated secondary school Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) at 39.6%, against 70% global secondary school GER, with most of those enrolled attending school irregularly and/or failing to complete.

Goal number four of The 2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) strives to ensure education that is inclusive and equitable, to be able to enhance opportunities that one can utilize for a lifetime (United Nations, 2016). In addition, Goal sixteen is on promotion of societies that are inclusive and peaceful and those that value individual rights to life. It envisages good governance at all levels of government, respect to the law and accountability for sustainable development.

Being one of the countries that signed the 2030 Agenda, the Government of Kenya (GoK) has invested substantial resources on projects to promote education programmes in the country. The Free Primary Education (FPE), the Free Day Secondary Education (FDSE), the computer programmes in schools, as well as, electrification of almost all primary schools in Kenya, dubbed the 'Last mile', are some of the areas that consume huge sums of money, standing at approximately Kshs. 29 billion annually. The FDSE, in particular, is meant to benefit students who come from poor backgrounds to access secondary school basic education, thereby increasing transition and completion rates. The government has also supplied all public schools with textbooks and has employed more teachers. World Bank Report (2005) indicates that secondary school learning is vital for the development of human capital of any country because it ensures acquisition of knowledge and skills necessary for civic participation and economic success.

In the North Rift region, Baringo County is one of the counties whose secondary school enrolment rates at 45.3% (Baringo county CIPD, 2018), are far below the

national average of 57.6% (UNESCO, 2020). With the provision of textbooks by the government, learning and instruction is expected to be more effective. The school administrators are also expected to find it easy to run the institutions. However, this can only happen in an environment that is conducive for all the players in the field.

The findings of this study are beneficial to the government (policy makers), to come up with policies for addressing school factors that are affected by ethnic conflicts in the region and in other parts of the country. The non-governmental organization (NGO's), donors and other interested parties benefit from the findings of the study because it provides an insight of the situation in the region, in order to inform their support in the area. Ethnic conflicts have a bearing on the national and regional stability because of cross-border trade and relations. Therefore, without peace in the lower areas of Baringo, all spheres of community development including education is hampered. Further, the study aimed at showing how ethnic conflicts have led to low secondary school completion rates in the area. The study was carried out in order to come up with policies for addressing school factors that are affected by ethnic conflicts in the region.

The study was to provide information on how secondary schools management can work together with the local communities to foster peaceful coexistence in order to meet the 2030 Agenda, Goal sixteen, on peaceful and inclusive societies and eradication of poverty. It aimed at generating workable solutions towards prevention and management of ethnic conflicts in the area as well as other regions that are prone to conflicts.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The study was significant both in theory and practice. Theoretically, the research findings were important in the generation of new knowledge which will help in improving policies in Kenya particularly peace building policies. Practically, the findings are important to stakeholders not only in the lowland areas of Baringo County but also in other regions that are prone to ethnic conflicts. The County and the national government can apply the findings and recommendations to bring the communities together in an effort to find a lasting solution for peaceful coexistence.

It is useful to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO's), the international community, donors and other well-wishers in understanding the effect of ethnic conflicts on schools and the intervention strategies that could be applied to address the problem. It is useful to the national government because it is an eye opener for understanding the effect of ethnic conflicts on schools in the lowland areas not only in Baringo County but also in other regions of Kenya that experience ethnic conflicts.

The findings are important to the Ministry of Education (MoE), the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards both at the County and the national level. They are also important to other education providers because it provides a more understanding of the underlying problems and challenges that the administrator, the teacher and the learner undergo in conflict-prone areas with a view to generating policies to address them. It is important in informing planning, decision making and implementation of educational policies in other conflict-prone regions of Kenya, Africa and the world.

The scientific research findings are important in answering the researcher's curiosity and interest and in so doing, fulfil the inquiry as well as fill the research knowledge gap. The study also provides suggestions and recommendations to policy makers in dealing with challenges arising from ethnic conflicts in conflict-prone regions in Kenya and particularly in areas with other underlying challenges similar to those of the lowland areas of Baringo County.

1.9 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The study on the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of schools in conflict-prone regions was carried out in Baringo County. Specifically, it targeted public secondary schools the lowland dry lands of the county. The lowland areas of Baringo County were selected for the study since this is an area that has had perennial conflicts over the years. The study was delimited to the lowland areas notably Baringo South mainly inhabited by the Ilchamus, Baringo north, inhabited by the Tugens and the whole of East Pokot. East Pokot has almost all the other ethnic groups that is, the Tugens, the Ilchamus, the Turkana and the Pokot.

1.10 Limitations of the Study

The limitations that were encountered while carrying out the study include data inaccessibility, lack of cooperation and unreturned questionnaires. The researcher started by seeking approval from the relevant authorities before beginning the data collection process. Letters were sent to institutions prior to the visits. On the schools that were not cooperative in filling the research instrument and principals who refused to be interviewed, the researcher had to visit the school more than once. In addition, research assistants from the locality were recruited to assist during the school visits since they were familiar with the community and the terrain of the area. The few

questionnaires that were not returned by the respondents were filled in by the researcher visiting more schools.

1.11 Assumptions of the Study

The study on ethnic conflicts in the lowland areas of Baringo County and its effect on the management of secondary schools was conducted with the assumption that the time allocated for the study was sufficient. It was assumed that the respondents were available and co-operative to provide accurate, reliable and sufficient information. The study also assumed that there would be no conflicts in the study area throughout the study period and this was attained since calm was there during data collection period. In addition, the study assumed that data collection exercise would be smooth and the study plan implemented as intended. Further, the study assumed that, the student leaders selected represented their fellow students in answering the research questions.

1.12 Theoretical Framework

Theories are formulated based on a collection of interrelated ideas. According to Kombo and Tromp (2009), theories are a set of prepositions that have been reasoned out and are derived from ideas and supported by data or evidence. They provide a generalized explanation to an occurrence and provide tentative answers to theoretical problems, questions and issues during the duration of research until the researcher is able to confirm it practically through research. Theories serve as bridges between research and education. This study is guided by Systems theory and Maslow theory of needs.

1.12.1 Systems Theory

One of the theories guiding this study was the systems theory. The systems theory was founded by Biologist Ludwig Von Bertalanffy in 1945 and improved by Ross Ashby (1964). Ludwig (1968) furthered the theory terming a system as a set of interacting elements that are complex and open to interact with their environment. Additionally, systems are in continual evolution mode and can acquire qualitatively new properties through emergence. This theory intimates that systems thinking is two-way; part-to-whole and whole-to-part where various elements interact in order that they fit together to become one.

The key concepts of systems theory is that an organization entity is made up of interrelated and interdependence parts. The interrelationship usually is between two components; the input and output. The inputs are those things that enter the system from the outside (environment) whereas the output are those that leave the system and enter the environment. Systems theory belief an organization, just like a system can either be open or closed. More often however, organizations are treated as open systems which interact with its environment by way of inputs, throughputs and outputs. Organisations such as schools are open systems, thus are subject to effect of the environment in which they are located. The relationship between the school and the environment is emphasised by the systems theory. According to Hanson (2004), schools receive from the environment inputs, such as, material and human resources, community expectations, values and societal demands. These go through the production process in order to transform them. The product of transformation is then exported into the environment with added value. In the case of a school, the product is new knowledge for the students and revised value sets. Therefore, they exit the system when they are completely transformed in a positive way.

Since schools are part of the larger environment, anything that happens within it has a great effect on them. When there is ethnic conflict between communities, schools are affected mostly. Schools serve as refuge centres when they have not been destroyed by bandits. Learners and the teachers alike are also affected because they are unable to attend school, are traumatised, killed or maimed. Some of the people who participate in the violence are young children who are supposed to be in school where values, such as, nationalism and unity in diversity, can be inculcated in their minds in order to dissuade them from participating in attacking other ethnic groups.

According to Kipkoech and Limo (2017) systems in schools can be used to inculcate certain basic values and attitudes that can teach children to be honest and respectful for self and others as a matter of principle, and at the same time be in a position to differentiate between wrong and right. According to Katz and Kahn (1969) the attributes present in an open system, such as, a school include its ability to transform energy to produce something new and export the product to the environment. Schools have the ability to effectively and efficiently change the mind-set of the young men if the environment (ethnic community) is willing. The society, on the other hand, can establish structures that can be used as mechanisms for solving differences.

However, in the lowland areas of Baringo County, getting the school going children to attend school and remain in school is a daunting task. Schools in this area were not able to get the needed resources internally and have to enter into partnerships with the environment in order to get the required services and inputs. Conflicts result in the scarcity of resources and an unpredictable environment which threaten the autonomy of the organization (Hoy & Miskel, 2013). The government, through the education system, need to put more effort in coming up with mechanisms that would enable it be

in charge of the environment. Hence, institutions of learning can be used as powerful agents of change in the larger environment. These institutions can build processes and structures that reflect the values, ideologies, cultures and norms of the society. The teachers' curriculum may contain subjects, such as, nationalism and conflict management so that they are well prepared for the challenges that they may experience in the environment as they carry out their mandate.

Therefore, the people in charge of planning the education system in the country may need to relook critically in to the current system and see whether it has the ability to counter the challenges arising in the environment. Challenges, such as, violent ethnic conflicts between communities living in the lowland areas of Baringo County, may be beyond the capacity of the system (schools) to manage or eradicate. But if the environment can allow the children (input) to attend school, it is possible to change the mind and value sets of the young men and women leading to a more peaceful coexistence between the ethnic communities in the area. This will lead to better management of schools in the lowland areas of Baringo.

1.12.2 Maslow Theory of Needs

This study was also guided by Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1987). According to the theory of needs, individuals are universally motivated by the same basic needs. Maslow took this idea and created his now famous hierarchy of needs. Beyond the details of air, water, food, and shelter, he laid out five broader layers: the physiological needs, the needs for safety and security, the needs for love and belonging, the needs for esteem, and the need to actualize the self, in that order. This study was focused on the first and second layer; psychological and safety needs layers.

According to this theory, if these fundamental needs are not satisfied then one will absolutely be motivated to satisfy them. Higher needs such as social and esteem are not recognized until one satisfies the needs basic to existence. Once survival needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. According to the Maslow hierarchy, if a person feels threatened, insecure or unattached, needs further up the pyramid will not receive attention until that threat or insecurity has been resolved. During this phase the search for permanent shelter that is comfortable and safe takes precedence.

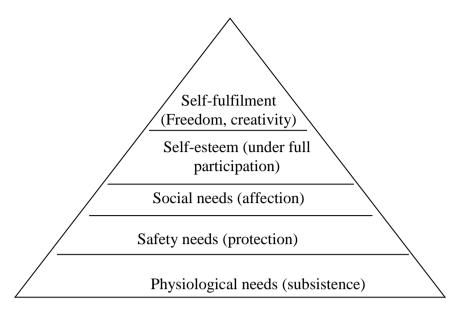


Figure 1.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Needs

Maslow believed in the fundamental similarity of the human experience. Although people may achieve needs in a culturally specific (or culturally proscribed) manner which is idiosyncratic, the needs which must be satisfied are universal in nature. Maslow further asserted that certain human needs are more fundamental than others, and satisfaction of these basic needs is necessary before higher needs can be addressed (Maslow, 1980).

Human needs are universally expressed, they are not culture specific. Every man, woman, child is intrinsically aware of them. If these human needs are not satisfied, it becomes a major catalyst to violent expression of a need-based-conflict. This is what is known as Non-negotiable human needs, and include, recognition, identity, security, autonomy and affection. Any form of Relative Deprivation of a particular need leads to conflict. They are both universal and non-historical. While needs themselves are generic, their satisfiers are contextually, politically and culturally specific. It is not easy for an outsider to prescribe what will fulfil the need requirements of another individual or community requirements for need fulfilment have to be identified by the

insiders themselves. When the basic human needs are not fulfilled, it leads to frustration, protracted conflict and dysfunctional development. Burton (1990) says that deep-rooted conflict is caused by the failure to secure basic human need (e.g. identity, belonging, recognition and security). Draman (2003) opines that a state dominated by a single communal group that is not responsive to the needs of other groups in society may lead protracted social ethnic conflict. Conflict in such a situation becomes persistent and does not go away until the basic needs are met. The basic needs highlighted by Burton include acceptance to effective participation in political, economic and decision making institutions and security (boldly integrity, nutrition and housing).

This study showed that low participation of students and teachers in secondary education is because they opted to fulfil their lower human needs of security, for example, at the expense of education which is ranked higher in the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Lower needs must be satisfied (and take precedence over) higher order needs. Therefore, the attainment of the most basic needs of oxygen, food, water, and maintenance of body temperature (food, shelter, & clothing) and protection from harm, supersedes the need for law and order during times of ethnic conflict.

When students and teachers do not have their safety needs met, they develop basic anxiety and may become neurotic adults. If their physiological needs and safety needs are satisfied, then students and teachers can focus on their educational responsibilities. In relation to the study, teachers and students need security to learn, proceed and even complete their instructional tasks. Currently, education is a basic need of any student; however, if the environment to which education is provided is not conducive, a

student may not learn leading to low transition and even dropout cases while teachers will seek transfer to other schools.

1.13 Conceptual Framework

Orodho (2009) defines conceptual framework as those principles and ideas that are wide and are acquired from parts of research that are relevant to be used to formulate the presentation at hand. It strengthens and keeps the work under study on check while giving substantive links from the literature to the study's objectives and questions to be answered. Conceptual framework is, therefore, a point of reference for the study to review literature, discuss methodology and analyse data. It provides reference points for discussion of literature, methodology and analysis of data.

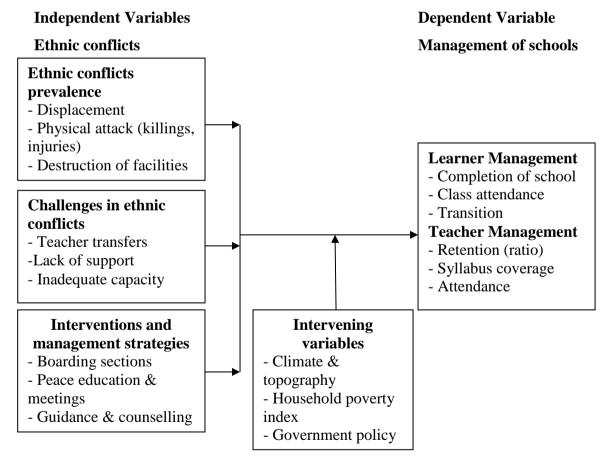


Figure 1.2: Conceptual Framework

Source: Author (2019)

This study looked at the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions specifically, in the lowland areas of Baringo County. Ethnic conflicts have an effect on schools particularly, on students, teachers and the school management. Justino (2015) noted that conflict exposure to students affected them in many ways. These include injuries and direct killings and other effects that make it difficult for them to attend school. Conflicts lead to malnutrition, ill health, missed future opportunities and a state of difficult general well-being (Buvinic, Das Gupta, & Shemyakina, 2014). Ethnic conflicts also lead to displacement of populations, fear and sexual harassment. In this case it became an uphill task for the education of children to be attained and the likelihood of them dropping out of school and grade progression was also very high in the areas affected by conflict (Shemyakina, 2011).

Social institutions, such as, schools and markets, as well as, other infrastructure are destroyed during ethnic conflicts. As a result, provision of education is hindered, due to instability of the communities. It also leads to forced displacement or people running away from conflict areas thereby affecting children's education. It also affects the management of teachers in these schools in carrying out their duties and their core function of teaching. This may, in effect, lead to poor school outcomes because the learning process is retarded (Adan & Orodho, 2016). Generally, conflicts destroy and retard the education standards and the quality of education offered is affected (United Nations, 2013).

In addition, teachers are unable to carry out their mandate of teaching in an environment of conflict, resulting in low syllabus coverage. Some teachers seek transfers and others fail to attend school regularly due to the conflict factors. Besides

this, school administrators who oversee the running of the schools are also affected by the vice in their effort to manage the schools in conflict-prone areas. Schools are sometimes forced to cut their school hours or be closed indefinitely. Lack of support from the local leaders and inadequate capacity for the administrators may prove to be a big challenge. Due to these challenges schools are required to look for strategies to mitigate the effect of conflicts in order to continue existing.

If ethnic conflicts are eradicated in the lowland areas of Baringo County, the consequences would be an increase in school attendance and completion rates, quality teaching, effective school administrators and peaceful communities. Furthermore, County and the national governments can work together with the political elites in the area to assist in improving the economic and social livelihoods of the communities. This can be done through opening up more boarding facilities, collaboration between security agents and opening up other business opportunities so that people do not rely solely on livestock. In this way poverty (Agenda 2030-Goal number one) will be eradicated. The necessary communication infrastructure, need to be put in place to make the area accessible. In this way neighbouring communities can be able to coexist peacefully.

In the model are intervening variables defined by; climatic conditions of the area, topography of the area, household poverty index and various government policies pertaining to teacher and student management in schools. Considering variations exist in these aspects, they were assumed to have little or no effect on the relationship between independent and dependent variable.

1.14 Operational Definition of Terms

Conflict: refers to a struggle or a contest between people with opposing ideas, beliefs, values or goals.

Conflict-prone regions refer to those areas that are dubbed 'volatile' because of the ethnic conflicts that tend to erupt in to violence, in this study these were the lowland areas including,,,,

Ethnic group refers to a group of people with common characteristics that distinguishes them from other people in the society. Members of an ethnic group may have ties of ancestry, culture, language, nationality, religion or a combination of all.

Lowland areas: describes the areas covering Tiaty, North Baringo and Baringo South

Sub counties which are characterized by low amounts of rainfall and
harsh terrain and often experience violent ethnic conflicts. The upper sub
counties of Baringo Central, Mogotio and Eldama Ravine have a fair
amount of rains and do not experience conflict.

School Management: refers to people mandated to organize and coordinate activities of a school in order to achieve desired objectives consisting of the principal, deputy principal and senior teacher and the BoM. In this study school administrator is used concurrently.

1.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the background information to the study on how violent ethnic conflict affects management of education with specific reference to secondary schools. The problem statement has been explained, objectives listed together with research questions and hypothesis. The justification for the investigation has also been done and together with the significance of the study in practice, theory and policy.

The scope of the study has been described together with the limitations encountered and assumptions of the study. Theories that guided this study and conceptual framework have been well illustrated. The operationalization of key terms as used in this investigation has also been done. Chapter two presents the review of literature, chapter three focuses on the methodology followed during identification and collection of data. Chapter four provide the findings of the study while chapter five provide a summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed literature that is related to the topic under study. The chapter reviewed the works of the researchers, scholars, newspaper reports and journals, and related it to the topic. The literature was reviewed in line with the objectives of the study.

2.1.1 Concept of Conflicts

The meaning of the word 'conflict' has not been agreed upon by different scholars and thinkers. One scholar defines conflict to be a violent and armed confrontation between groups and between the states, or between two or more states, and wherby some of those involved in this confrontation are injured or killed (Nahima, 2005). This definition takes conflict to be any confrontation (that may be armed) mainly pitting two or more groups that result in to loss of life and maiming of some people. Another definition by Wallenstein (2005) takes conflict to be a fight between two groups of people as a result of competition for scarce resources. The definition focuses on the struggle by the groups of people who are in conflict but mentions nothing about armed confrontation.

However, Raslan (1986) defined 'conflict' to be an opposition that is consciously undertaken by one human group over another or more groups due to incompatibility of goals, values and interests between the different human groups. The definition does not elaborate on the magnitude, structure and the equipment used during conflict, but its focus mainly is on the clashing arising from interests. This study adopted the definition of conflicts to be those factors that create tensions between people that

sometimes lead to armed confrontations resulting in death, injuries and displacement of some communities. The study looked at conflicts also as competition for scarce resources by the diverse ethnic communities that sometimes lead to tensions. This competition among the different groups brings about ethnic polarization (Schilling, Opiyo & Scheffran, 2012). Conflicts can either be external or internal. It can also be constructive or destructive depending on actors and consequences arising from it respectively.

2.1.2 The Concept of Ethnicity in Conflicts

"Ethnicity" comes from the Latin word "Ethnos" synonymous to the word "Nation". According to Morris (1968:13) the International Encyclopaedia of the social Sciences defines it as "a specific group whose culture differs from that of the larger society in which they live, and whose members believe to be associated with ethnic, national, or cultural ties". Ethnicity has been defined by Vanhanen (2012) to be those groups of humans that have their members sharing specific elements that are physical in nature, such as, history, religion, culture, language, or race. This study defines ethnicity as an entity or group that has an association that is ethnic, religious, cultural or religious in nature.

Some identifiable basic features of an ethnic group include the feeling of belonging: a vital component in the establishment of the ethnic entity. The belonging is derived from the group members' historical association among themselves while the unity of language, culture and religion becoming auxiliary factors (Maestri, 2017). Another feature of an ethnic group is a culture that is unique. This is where the ethnic group has a feeling that their culture is not comparable with the cultures of other people who neighbour them in the country. The manifestation of cultural uniqueness is clearly

seen through their interaction with the other entities in the environment where they inhabit. The third feature is compulsory membership. Wahban (1999) observes that compulsory membership is where one does not have the liberty to choose which group to belong to, but membership to the group comes as a result of birth. The last feature is regionalism: which indicates that particular regions with large political units could have an ethnic group concentrated there (Basha, 1998).

Ethnicity and racial group are different in that a racial group is usually seen as an association that has something to do with kinship and blood connection and take all members to have a common origin. An ethnic group, on the other hand, is usually taken as a group of members sharing one origin, and have specific cultural traits. It may have a relationship with those groups sharing specific cultural traits that differentiate them from other entities in their communities, although they may not be sharing a common origin (Gally, 2017). The definitions of ethnicity and conflict described above will be used to define ethnic conflict.

2.1.3 The Concept of Ethnic Conflict

Ethnic conflict arises when various ethnic entities who are inhabitants of one state, seek to force their religion, language, and culture on the other groups. This happens especially if the ethnic entity is strong, and is in a position to make the other groups to adopt their vision (Smith, 2001). Ethnic conflict can also be taken to mean any undertaking by ethnic minorities, religious or national groups that result in sustained violent conflict in an effort to force governments to make changes in the status quo (Bruce, 2004).

Sometimes, ethnic conflict may arise because the vulnerable group is attempting to defend their cultural peculiarities from the ruling majority's attempt to force their

culture and vision on them, particularly if the legitimacy of the ruling majority is not recognised. Other times, the party in power may try to silence the opposing groups resulting in a rebellion. If the authority in an attempt to quell the rebellious group decides to counter it using excessive force, civil war may arise as a consequence. A state of instability in any nation reflects a political system that may be in office illegally (Gally, 2017). Ethnic conflicts generally, are a phenomenon that has existed since time immemorial, not only, in developing countries, but also, globally.

According to Narayan (2002), the world has experienced increasing incidents of ethnic conflicts ranging from instances of disquiet and unrest spread out in different regions to outright warfare. There are numerous examples of ethnic conflict instances in the recent past, such as, the Kurdish ethnic war in their quest to break away from Turkey and Iraq, guerrilla wars in Nicaragua and El Salvador and Chechnya insurrection, to name but a few (Duffy, 2003; Fearon, 2003). Large modern nations have had territorial historical conflicts with other ethnic groups such as the United Kingdom and China, France with the Bretons, Spain with the Basques and the Americans with the indigenous people (Mohammadzadeh, 2016). In Asia similar ethnic problems have been experienced particularly in Iraq, Turkey and India. Other countries that have experienced best-known and deadliest examples from the late 20th and early 21st centuries include Darfur, Chechnya, the Balkans, Rwanda, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip in Israel.

In Africa, most conflicts that arise among the different groups have an ethnic dimension. According to Ali (2004), about a third of the countries in Africa have experienced large-scale political violence or war since attaining independence. Andreas (2010) also noted that the greatest number of armed conflicts within the last

four decades (1960-1990) have taken place in Africa. Gleditsch, Wallenstein, Eriksson, Sollenberg and Strand (2002) also observed that the last decades, have seen close to three-quarters of the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) countries, go through armed conflicts situations. According to Befkadu and Diribssa (2005), one of the most conflict-prone regions on the continent, is the Horn of Africa.

Conflicts are largely internal thus referred in terms of ethnic conflicts. Apart from politics and ethnicity which bring about conflicts, people in the Horn of Africa are known to be pastoralists in nature, and they keep moving with their livestock, in search of pasture and water. The continuous movement of the pastoralist lead to unending warfare between the local communities, while others are forcefully removed from their homes. At the heart of Africa-violent struggle are racial conflicts which have existed for centuries in the continent. Countries in Africa, such as, Congo, Rwanda, Somalia, Nigeria and Darfur continue to experience violence fuelled by ethnic conflicts. Despite the progress made towards ending the long-lasting wars in the region, it remains to be one of the most volatile areas in the world (Dereje, 2010; Medhine, 2003).

In Kenya, political party membership is often based on ethnic groups. Thus, very often political party supporters, clash with other parties who are of different tribes. The clashes between party supporters, further the animosities and intolerance between different groups. The Constitution and Reform Education Consortium (CRECO, 2012) baseline report that looked at the conflict situation in the 47 counties in Kenya, reported that the country suffers from high incidences of violence in most of the counties (Kituku, 2012). The report noted that 'border conflicts, ethnic intolerance,

proliferation of small arms, poverty, weak security, political party zoning, competition over land and other resources brought about ethnic violence' (Kituku, 2012).

Kenya's conflict situation is catalysed by poor governance, minimal presence of security, and underdevelopment of marginalized areas, that have resulted in the emergence of weapons, armed groups, and jihadist ideology (Sharamo, 2014; TSA, 2014). Between 1997 and September 2013, the highest levels of violence were experienced in the Rift Valley (Dowd & Raleigh, 2013). These conflicts persist even today in the pastoralist dry-lands of the North-Rift counties of Elgeyo-Marakwet, Turkana, West Pokot, Baringo, Samburu, and Trans Nzoia. Other areas that have suffered marginalization by the state and experience violence quite frequently are the counties in the North Eastern region namely Isiolo, Mandera, Garissa, Marsabit, Wajir, Lamu and Tana River (Ombaka, 2015).

Ethnic violence in Kenya is normally between communities. According to Dowd & Raleigh (2013) and TSA (2014) conflicts in Kenya are much higher than elsewhere in Africa. According to (Dowd & Raleigh, 2013; Okumu, 2013), the perpetrators are usually the militias whose identity is based on the community and it involves cycles of attacks and counter attacks. The local conflicts are also driven by the movement of herders from one place to another in their search for pasture and water for their animals and competition between communities over land ownership and land use (TSA, 2014; Kenya National Commission for Human Rights, 2012).

In addition, political agendas have been known to fuel tensions among communities resulting in ethnic violence, as the political leaders fight for access to power (Dowd & Raleigh, 2013; Scott-Villers, Ondicho, Lubaale, Ndungu, Kabala and Oosterom, 2014; KNCHR, 2012). These violent conflicts have been seen in form of

displacements, massacres, ethnic violence, revenge attacks and cattle rustling (Sharamo, 2014; Okumu, 2013). The cultural custom of cattle rustling for dowry payment, prestige and the new 'commercial' cattle raiding for mass sale to urban markets, involve excessive violence (Okumu, 2013).

The post-election violence of 2007 in Kenya came about due to politicians promoting negative ethnicity during the campaigning period. According to KTTF (2008), the major factor contributing to the post-election mayhem was the tribal prejudice whipped up during the 2007 campaigns. Charged emotions with negative ethnicity during that period, was especially high in areas where diverse communities lived in towns. Poor leadership was another cause of violence particularly when the incumbent president (Kibaki) was accused of serving his own interests and that of his ethnic community, while the other communities were left out. In some instances, the incumbent (political leader) tend to incite his community (supporters) to violent conflict with the other ethnic group, especially during the electioneering period so that voters of his opponent are displaced or run away for fear of attacks.

2.1.4 Ethnic Conflicts in Baringo County

Ethnic conflicts in Baringo County were not different from the ones elaborated above. They occur mostly in the lowland areas mainly inhabited by the pastoral communities. By virtue of their location (vastness of the area, rough terrain and harsh climate) they lack a strong presence of government authority as they have poor development of communication infrastructure (Kipturu, Kapai & Nabuya, 2010). Competition resources, that is; pasture, water and salt licks are some of the sources of conflicts especially during the dry season. Another issue that brings about conflicts is that of boundaries among the neighbouring communities. For instance, Kapedo town which

is at the border between Turkana and East Pokot has always been a subject of contention between the two communities. The Pokot have claimed the centre to be theirs, since the Turkana were foreigners who settled in the area because of the relief food that was being distributed in the area (Wangechi, Njenga & Manyasa, 2013).

The practice of bride wealth payment that is usually paid in form of livestock has continued to fuel the raids and related conflicts within the communities in this area (Kiraithe, 2015). The need to accumulate wealth for bride wealth has, therefore become a motivation for raids and violent attacks by the Pokot against the other communities. On the other hand, a higher proportion of younger men are turning frequently to raiding due to diminished livestock wealth as a result of climate change. In most pastoralist communities, rustling activities are recognized by culture as bravery. These raiders, who steal other community's livestock, are largely portrayed in their ethnic community as role models and heroes (Lokira, 2007). This makes it difficult for the vice to be eradicated.

Songs and feasts are held in honour of the successful raids, and these raids have been used to buy honours for age group, thereby becoming a motivation for each age group to intensify raiding, to gain recognition in the society. The social control mechanisms against this behaviour in the society, age set and family level are inadequate or severely limited to address the vice (Wudil, 2019). It is significant to note that young men are openly praised for their aggression by their political leaders and occasionally issue threats to unleash the 'warriors' to counter their political opponents. From this observation, the study looked at the prevalence of ethnic conflicts in the lower regions of Baringo County, Kenya.

2.2 Conflicts and Education

Education is the cornerstone of a holistic sustainable development of all children across the world (Save the Children, 2008). It is placed almost together with the basic needs of food, clothing and shelter in conflict and crisis situations. Lange and Dawson (2008) further noted that, education is a foundation for progress and one of the human development building blocks. It is an important factor in bettering the lives of people because it increases their chances of contributing to economic, social and political development of the society (Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies, 2004).

Traditionally, schools have been seen to constitute the society's' main agents of socialisation (Davies, 2004), and are rooted to fulfil an essential collective function. Conflicts and disasters often destroy the normal lives of young people who are thrown in to unfamiliar and hostile realities, out of the safety nets of schools and family. Education is therefore, seen as a protector of children lives' because it creates a safe space (INEE, 2004). UNICEF (2012) has documented ethnic conflicts in addition to tsunamis, wars, floods, earthquakes, and other emergencies to be some of the factors, that affect access to schooling and wreak havoc on society. The impacts of ethnic conflicts on education to some extent are similar internationally.

As noted by Collier, Hoeffler and Rohner (2006), civil wars compared to international wars are more likely to devastate a country, and are likely to destabilize state institutions including schools. The functioning of education systems is impaired by wars and military conflicts, which often lead to the destruction of the original facilities in schools. Violent conflicts have caused millions of children not to attend school. UNESCO (2002) and Bensalah (2001) both agree that conflicts and their

consequences are the greatest hindrances to the achievement of the EFA goals for many of the affected countries.

To re-establish peace in an area affected by conflicts over a long period is quite difficult. Evidence from the World Bank Report (2003), indicate that even after conflicts have been eradicated, the economic and social costs of wars, remain high and can be felt over several years thereafter. A substantial literature exists that debate the consequences of armed conflicts and their long-term negative effect. The American bombing in Vietnam is one such evidence that indicate a similar conclusion (Miguel and Roland, 2006). The study by Miguel and Ronald in Vietnam found that wars had a negative effect on literacy, infrastructure development, poverty rates, and population density and consumptions levels. This study on ethnic conflicts and management of secondary schools in Baringo County is in concurrence with the study by Miguel and Ronald (2006) because the results showed that there was a negative effect of conflicts on the running of schools.

One of the factors that contribute to deterioration of education in conflict-affected countries is conflict. A good example is the negative effect of Rwanda's genocide on the schooling of children. (Akresh & de Walque, 2008) have demonstrated the strong negative impact of violent conflict on children's schooling, that resulted in the decrease of completion rates by 18.3%. According to Bird (2007), the first victims of wars are often young children. In the last decade alone, about two million children died within the SSA region, as a consequence of armed conflict. Six million others have been maimed, or permanently disabled or are living with injuries. O'Malley (2010) has pointed out that, the education sector in countries affected by military conflict is often a target of the belligerent parties, because it is one of the more visible

institutions in the civil society. Quite often, an attack on the state can be done indirectly through attacking the education system.

Education access during emergencies and during the transition period following a crisis is most at risk. The earlier findings from the various scholars pointed to a link between education and ethnic conflict (Davies, 2004; Sommers, 2002). However, recent findings point to a link that is complex (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2012; O'Malley, 2010 and O'Malley, 2011). The cross-sectional studies (Dupuy, 2008; Thyne, 2006; Dixon, 2009; Coenders & Scheepers, 2003) on education and conflict point to a relationship that is negative comparing the risk of conflict and the levels of education. This study on conflicts and management of secondary schools in Baringo County agreed with this finding and concluded that, conflict constraint the supply of education in a number of ways, ranging from physical damage to education infrastructure, to physical harm to the students and teachers.

Smith (2010), intimate that, education can be a part of the solution, and driver in the midst of conflict. Davies (2005) is in agreement to the later and indicates that, the school systems in some countries are to blame for sowing the seeds of war and conflict. Coenders et al.(2003) attempt to explain the negative link between education, ethnocentrism and out-group prejudice. The link is attributed to the socialisation theory and its central thesis, as the pacifying effect of the values, norms and modes of behaviour, often transmitted by the educational systems.

Similarly, other scholars (Davies, 2005; Lange and Dawson, 2008) support the view that schools under certain conditions might contribute to violence and conflict than they do to peace. For example, in Cyprus, the education system is segregated in structure along ethnic lines that was inherited from the British rule, thus confirming

the view by some scholars (Makriyianni & Psaltis, 2007; Vural & Ozuyanik, 2008; & Canefe, 2002) on the instrumental role played by education as an underlying cause in the emergence of conflict. This may be true owing to the fact that conflict may arise out of neglect of some areas by the state or by the inequalities brought about by education.

In California, United States, Martinez (2017) research focused on understanding how conflicts happened, based on ethnicity/race among Latino learners. Nine students were selected to participate in the interview process. Analysis of data was performed using consensual qualitative research methodology. The respondents said that conflicts that occurred in their institutions consisted of physical, social exclusion and verbally. The main causes of conflict were due to rejection or denials of respondents Latino identity and disparities in values, between respondents and their fellow students. From this situation of conflict, student experienced difficult emotions and feelings because of the need to prove their Latino identity or apologise for not being Latino enough. Nevertheless, despite the situation, the participants made positive personal changes with regard to their academic success.

According to the Global Monitoring Report (2011), the education of children in conflict-affected countries, is at risk with over twenty-eight million children of primary school age being out of school. This accounts for about a half of the world total. The study that was carried out by Smith (2010), with the title 'armed education and conflict' compared effect of conflict on different levels of education. The findings pointed to a deeper or more lasting effect on post- primary education. Lai and Thyne (2007) carried out a cross-rational study to compare enrolments at different levels of education in conflict-affected countries. The study by Lai and Thyne observed that

enrolment suffers comparatively more at secondary and tertiary levels than primary school because secondary school-age youth are old enough to be used as soldiers. In this study that examined the effect of conflicts on secondary school management, carried out in Baringo County, there was a similar trend whereby boys would be used during the holidays to go for cattle raids.

In East Asia, Justino, Leone and Salardi (2014), analysed the impact of Timor East violence on outcomes of education. They focused on how violence affected attendance and completion rate of children. The study was comparative in nature since it looked on the conflict in periods; that is high and low intensity. They found out that the short – intensity impact on educational outcomes were mixed. Further in the long term, they found out that children (boys) died as a result of being exposed to violence that had lasted over 25 years. The gap created by Justino et al.'s (2014) research was that it was comparative in nature while this study on effect of ethnic conflict on the management of schools in Baringo County was non-comparative.

In agreement with this study on effect of conflicts in Baringo are the study findings by Gates, Hegre, Nygard and Strand (2012) report that indicated that countries in conflict-affected regions experience declines in secondary school attendance and attainment. This study on ethnic conflicts and its effect on secondary school management confirmed that wars and conflict result in displacement and death of family's breadwinners, leaving the youth to take up the roles of household heads, spouses and/or workers. The people who are internally displaced, as well as, refugees also, cannot access education easily. Education remains to be of low priority in situations of conflict. Hence, some of the lowest literacy levels and the largest gender inequalities in the world are in the conflict-affected countries.

Omoeva, Moussa and Hatch (2018) researched on the impacts of armed conflict on educational inequality and years of schooling. The data used was collected from ethnic power relation databases and Uppsala conflict data programme. They found out that conflict worsened educational performance and significantly increased educational inequalities. They concluded that when ethnic conflict persisted, educational outcomes were negatively affected. The research by (Omoeva et al., 2018) created a gap because the researchers utilized secondary data to conduct their investigation while this study used primary data.

DFID's (2001) document on the "causes of conflict in Sub-Saharan Africa" intimate that today, the targets of military activity revolves around the health centres and schools. Take the case of Mozambique, for example, where the civil war resulted in the destruction of over 40% of schools and health centres. The document concludes that because of the civil war, the consequence was that, large numbers of young uneducated men assisted in creating the circumstances that continued to keep the conflict alive.

World Bank (2005) indicated that the provision of secondary school education is vital in human resource development, as it ensures acquisition of knowledge and enabling skills, necessary for civic participation and economic success. The demand for education, especially in African countries, is increasing rapidly and is attributed to the need for countries, to break away from low growth equilibrium (Vespoor, 2008). In Kenya, secondary education, according to the World Bank (2005), education is significant for development, because of the private and social benefits attached to it. It is a critical tool for generating opportunities for social and economic transformation. Moreover, it provides an important connection between primary schooling,

opportunities for further training and the world of work. Therefore, education makes it key in the preparation of human capital development and provision of life opportunities (Onsomu et. al., 2006).

Education can be used by countries to get themselves back on track, even after long episodes of crisis. Education is not only, a tool for recovery, but also, a basic human right. It can be used to recover school institutions and systems destroyed during emergency and all its related benefits. UNICEF efforts in promoting awareness of the importance of education in countries emerging from crisis, have received support from the international community. In view of this, UNICEF together with partners and donors created the 'Back on Track' fund in 2006. The fund is meant to rebuild education systems and put in structures that prevent re-emergence of crisis as one of the strategies. It also assists countries that are in the process of normal development away from crisis (UNICEF, 2012). The review of the above conceptual and empirical information reveals that ethnic violence affects education in different ways. Therefore, this study looked at how ethnic conflicts affected the management of both students and teachers in secondary schools located in Baringo County's lower areas.

2.3 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Management of Student in Schools

Armed conflict situations that take place around the world lead to attacks on education and schools (World Bank, 2003). These attacks particularly destroy students' chances of accessing education, reduce school hours and cause destruction of school infrastructure (Human Rights Watch, 2012). An environment that is riddled with fear and violence make it hard for the children to attain quality education and result in general lowered education standards (United Nations, 2012). According to Human Rights Watch (2012), "attacks on education (school infrastructure, teachers

and students) encompass the full range of violations that place children at risk and deny them access to education". The Global Monitoring Report (2011), indicate armed conflicts between countries and communities, place schools and children in a precarious position because they are usually taken to be legitimate targets.

DFID (October, 2001), publication "children out of school" have highlighted conflicts affecting more than seventy countries of the world. The report estimates that about fifty per cent of children, who are out of school, live in those countries that are just coming out of conflict or from crisis. Justino (2016) has discussed how conflict may curb the demand for education. The youth who would otherwise attend school may become combatants, joining the military or rebel groups by choice, conscription or coercion. Fear also may keep the youth out of school, when travelling to and being at school become unsafe. This places children at the risk of violent attack, forced recruitment and sexual assault particularly where schools, teachers and students are targeted (Lai &Thyne, 2007; O'Malley, 2010). This study, which was done in Baringo County was on effects of ethnic conflicts on management of secondary schools in the county. It confirmed that conflicts make it difficult for school administrators to know the whereabouts of their students, because of irregular attendance and this sometimes resulted in truancy, since there was no means of knowing whether the students were absent because of conflicts or truancy.

Davis (2005) document on 'schools and war', state that wars tend to make attendance to school difficult, and limit the activities that children can engage in, even in situations where schools are available. Their economic and social roles are changed. This is actually true because wars and conflicts result in the loss of family and community members, leading to disintegration or dysfunctional units. Consequently,

some children assume the role of household heads, spouses, soldiers or workers (Witsenburg & Adano, 2009). Young men and boys are sent to search for work while young women and girls are made to be domestic workers, young brides (child marriages) and mothers. All these issues limit school attendance and may result in school drop outs. In fact, Smith (2010) agrees and observes that children and adolescents may need to prioritize income generating activities over attending school during or after a conflict. In addition, trauma-affected students have trouble participating in school and learning.

Several scholars have theoretically looked at the impact of conflicts on secondary education accessibility. Justino's (2015) report highlights that conflicts have the most impact on children. These impacts range from irreversible effect on nutrition, schooling, future opportunities, health, and the general well-being to injuries and direct killings. Exposure to violence, therefore, compromises children's ability to attain education because; they are more likely to drop out of school in conflict-affected countries, more than countries that do not experience conflict. A number of researches have proven that the effect of conflict exposure on children lead to the reduction of years spent in school (Akresh& De Walque, 2008; UNESCO, 2010), leading to restriction to grade progression (Justino, et. al, 2014; Shemyakina, 2011). In a conflict-prone area, expected returns to schooling are significantly reduced by ethnic conflict since education is unlikely to be viewed as a value-enhancing commodity (Dabalen & Paul 2012; Fredriksen 2009).

Apart from the effect of conflicts on schooling, conflict also has a long-term consequence on the economic lives of households. Conflicts have been seen to deter investment, due to loss of property, thereby reducing productivity levels, resulting to

an increase in poverty levels (Wahu, 2013). The decrease in the ability to acquire financial resources to most households, forces them to withdraw their children from school, because they are unable to pay school fees or meet other education related costs (Dryden-Peterson, 2009). Ethnic conflict has also been attributed to displacement of populations, destruction of educational infrastructure; including schools, death of teachers and students and schools being closed indefinitely, making it difficult for children in this area, to perform well in terminal examinations.

In their research, Kibunei and Timaiyu (2010) documented that as a consequence of ethnic violence; most children did not complete their schooling and ended up dropping out completely. Other causes of children dropping out of school are the unavailability of schools after they had been burnt or looted during the conflicts. In other circumstances, schools are turned in to safety camps (Mokoro & Mesgen, 2010). According to UNICEF, (2012) access to schooling is affected by tsunamis, wars, flooding, earthquakes, and other emergencies like ethnic conflicts which wreak havoc on the society. The consequence of ethnic conflicts over a long period of time, is the displacement of school-going children. The nature, intensity, contributory factors and duration of conflicts can affect education significantly.

Several studies have indicated the negative effect of conflict on school attendance. An example is the study by Shemyakina (2011) where municipal level data (1992-1998) was used to examine the impact of Tajikistan civil conflict on school attendance. The study established that conflict has more effect on the schooling of girls in terms of access. The study showed that exposure to Tajik civil war had a large negative effect on girls, but had little or no effect on boys' school enrolment. The study concluded that households facing uncertainty, such as, conflict are more inclined to investing on

education for boys rather than girls. Sommers (2002) observed that most children who should be in school in war-affected areas, are hard to find, difficult to enrol into school, and hard to keep them in school until they complete their basic education. Other exemplary case is the instructive World Bank study on "Education Reform in a Post-conflict Setting".

Valente (2011) studied the impact of conflict intensity on education in Nepal using intra and inter-district variations of both male and female students. The results revealed that, the intensity of conflict had a small positive effect on female educational attainment, whereas male schooling was not significantly affected. Another study (Singh and Shemyakina, 2013) examined adults who were between 6 and 16 years at the time of the Punjab insurgency. It was to determine the gender-specific effect of violence on their educational attainment. Findings indicated a negative effect of the insurgency on the attainment of education of girls. For one standard deviation (SD=1), women from the affected group attained about 0.69 fewer years of education, with increase in the number of killings between 1981 and 1993.

Marques and Bannon (2003), used the example of Central America to analyse in detail, the effect of the many years of civil war in El-Salvador, Nicaragua and Guatemala on their respective education systems. The study then compared their education systems with the development of enrolment rates in the "peaceful" Costa Rica: "The results indicated that, the Guatemalan and Salvadoran education systems had fallen behind their Costa Rican counterpart, as a result of the protracted strife lasting over a decade. Nicaragua's enrolment gains were impressive, and were placed second after Costa Rica (Sommers, 2002).

Shany (2016) analysed the impact of terrorism on students' academic achievement. The study's findings showed that a fatal terror attack occurring shortly before an exam had a significant adverse effect on students' exam achievement. The effect was transitory and concentrated in the 5 days preceding the exam. The increase in the physical distance between the student and the attack location had a positive effect on student achievement. On the other hand, student failures increased with the number of fatalities that occurred after a terrorist attack. The findings also indicated that the effect of terrorism resulted in psychological stress that affected the cognitive performance of students. The research further revealed that students' learning and examination performance was temporarily impaired by terrorism, which had a lasting effect on human capital accumulation. This research was conducted in a different geographical setting, and the conflict was based on religion as opposed to this study in Baringo County that was based on ethnic conflict.

In the Middle East, Bruck, Di Maio and Miaari (2014) studied how conflict between the Israeli and Palestine, affected the various education outcomes for Palestinian high school students, in the West Bank during the 2nd Intifada (2000–2006) war. The study exploited within school variation in the number of conflict-related Palestinian fatalities during the academic year. Their findings showed that conflict reduces the probability of a student passing the final exam and the total test score. The probability of being admitted to university was also minimal. Conflict effect varied with the type of conflict and the timing of the violent events the student was exposed to. It was not significant for students in the upper tail of the test score distribution. Evidence suggested that the worsening in the student's psychological well-being and conflict-induced deterioration of school infrastructure, was due to direct exposure to violent situations.

A research by Buvinic, Das Gupta and Shemyakina (2014) was conducted to check on the impact of armed conflict on girl child schooling from several countries. The study relied on the review of three empirical studies. When analysing the studies, they found out that in some settings, armed conflict negatively affected boys schooling compared to girls. However, in other cases, girls schooling were found to be negatively affected by armed conflict making them drop out of school. The difference created in Buvinic et al. (2014) study is that they relied on secondary sources of data while this study on effects of conflicts on secondary school management in Baringo County used primary sources of data to arrive at conclusions.

In Tajikistan, Shemyakina (2011) investigated how 1992 – 1998 violent conflict affected schooling outcomes. The researcher collected data form households using questionnaire as instrument of data collection. It was found that girls in the affected regions were less likely to complete their mandatory schooling. Further girls' enrolment in school was affected by exposure to conflict. Shemyakina study found that boys were not significantly affected by conflict as compared to girls. The gap created in Shemyakina research is that, it was comparative in nature, but this study on effects of conflicts on the management secondary schools in Baringo County looked at how students (irrespective of their gender) educational outcomes were affected by conflict. The results from the study in Baringo County on effects on conflict on the management of secondary schools indicated that conflicts had a negative effect on the performance of students in conflict areas and both boys and girls were similarly affected.

In Turkey, Kibris (2015) looked at the relationship existing between civil conflicts and educational achievement. The researcher collected 2005 university entrance exam

scores as indicators of academic performance. The study result showed that there was negative association between civil conflict and educational achievement among Turkish students from Kurdish region. The difference created from Kibris and this study is that they focused on a larger population (1.6 million) data while this study on effects of conflicts on secondary school management in Baringo County focused on 22 public secondary schools.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, (Poirier, 2011) measured the impact of war on a sample of 43 countries in Africa from 1950 to 2010 using a time-series cross-sectional (TSCS) database. The conflicts mostly in form of civil wars were shown to affect educational performances of the countries studied negatively. High populations of children were not attending school and this was particularly prevalent in secondary schools during periods of conflict.

In East Africa, Akresh and De Walque (2008) studied Rwandan conflict and how they affected pupils' enrolment. The Net Enrollment Rate (NER) in 2007, in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), was approximately 72% (UNESCO, 2010). In some countries, such as, Eritrea or Niger, enrolment rate was as low as 50%. The literacy rate in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) was averaged at 60%. However, Chad and Sierra Leone had enrolment rate not exceeding 40%. The same report indicated that almost a half of the seventy-two million children worldwide who were not attending school lived in SSA.

Most African countries failed to reach the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 2015, despite the expanded primary enrolments (Easterly, 2009). In 2011, Save the Child conducted an in-depth survey among 300 youth, in Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo on factors that hinder accessibility to education. The respondents stated that the prevailing conflict in the area disrupted household livelihood strategies,

such as, farming which in effect contributed to low household income. The study in Eastern Democratic Republic of Congo reported that households in the area could not safely access their farms and thus, unable to generate finances from farm produce that would have been used to pay school fees. Furthermore, displacement of people and loss of personal property through looting led to total poverty. Most school children dropped out of school or attended irregularly due to lack of school fees. Africa and the developing world are home to most of these ethnic conflicts though the exact figures vary from country to country (Opongo, 2006). Akresh and De Walque (2008) however reported different findings in a study in Rwanda. The research that studied the effect of the 1994 genocide on schooling in Rwanda, established that school enrolment and attendance for boys was more affected than girls' because boys were more likely to be drawn into the conflict.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, seven in ten children starting primary school survived to the last grade (Kathryn & Pauline, 2005). Grade progression, entry and completion of primary education are closely linked to household circumstances. A broad set of policies with the objective of reducing underlying vulnerabilities, can be put in place to lower the risk of dropout. Cash transfers for poor families can be increased to assist in promoting prospects of education. In Nigeria, Ojukwu (2017) investigated how the academic performance of secondary school students in Imo state, is affected by insecurity of school environment. A thousand students; 500 male and 500 female students were issued and responded to a self-structured validated questionnaire designed for the study. Ojukwu study findings revealed that the academic performance of secondary school students is significantly affected by the insecurity of the school environment.

Musa, Meshak and Sagir (2016) carried out a study in Gombe Metropolis on how adolescents' perceive the psychological security of school environment, emotional development and academic performance in secondary schools. The sample consisted of four public and private secondary schools in Gombe Metropolis. A total of 239 secondary school students (107 males and 133 females) were selected through the stratified random sampling to participate in the study. The findings indicated that, adolescents perceived the psychological security of secondary schools' environments as insecure. The study further concluded that, there were significant relationships between emotional development and academic performance of adolescents with insecurity of school environment.

A study by Ojukwu and Nwanma (2015) examined the impact of insecurity of school environment on the behaviour of students in secondary school in Nigeria. Self-structured validated questionnaire designed for the study was issued to over 200 students. The findings revealed that, Isiala-Ngwa North and South Local Government Areas were significantly different (p < .001) with regard to the insecurity of their schools, with northern schools having a higher rate of school insecurity. Furthermore, the analysis of data revealed no significant difference (p > .05) between the insecurity of private and public schools although private schools turned out to be slightly more insecure. Ojukwu and Nwanma (2015) research was conducted in a different geographical setting which is different from the Kenyan setting where the study on effects of conflicts on management of secondary schools in Baringo County was carried out.

Still in Nigeria, Hamman and Muhammad (2017) carried out a study of senior secondary school students in Maiduguri metropolis, Borno state. The population of

the study were all the secondary schools in Maiduguri. The study sought to determine the level of student's school phobic behaviour as a result of school environment insecurity. The findings from the study, indicated that students' school phobic behaviour on insecurity of school environment, had no impact on secondary school students and that there was no significant difference in school phobic behaviour with regards to gender.

Education progress in several countries has been disrupted by violent conflicts leading to poor retention of pupils in school. On the front line of armed conflicts, are schools, children and teachers who are seen as legitimate targets rendering their retention impossible (Kathryn & Pauline, 2005). In twenty-four countries of the world, the use of child soldiers is reported in countries such as Chad, Central African Republic, Somalia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Child soldiers recruited from schools are common. Equally, rape and other forms of sexual violence are used widely as a tactic of war in many countries. The fear and insecurity associated with sexual violence keep young girls, out of school (Dyan & Kristopher, 2006).

Bird, Kate and Higgins (2009) conducted a qualitative study in Northern Uganda. They found out that, the Northern region lagged behind in school retention compared to the rest of the country. Due to the widespread poverty brought about by conflicts, households in the region were unable to retain their children in school. The National Council of Churches of Kenya (NCCK) for instance, had estimated that over 10,000 people in Trans-Nzoia District had been displaced by clashes by 1994. In Bungoma and Narok districts a similar number were out of school. According to Kaufman and Chaim (1999) there was widespread disruption of education activities in all the clashes - prone regions in Western Kenya, Rift Valley and Coast provinces.

Children in conflict situations face profound and lasting disadvantage in education due physical injury, psychological trauma and stigmatization (KTTF, 2008). A study by Wairagu (2007) in Turkana County established that frequent raids of Turkana's cattle by the Pokot led to overnight poverty in the District. As a result, households were unable to meet school costs resulting in decreased school enrolment rates and high drop outs in the District. According to UNESCO (2010) few children attend primary school in conflict-prone areas due to frequent displacement, fear and students' recruitment into armed conflicts.

The study by Kathryn and Pauline (2005) in Northern Ireland, Europe, was conducted over a decade ago which is a long period and therefore, a similar study would help new information on effect of ethnic conflict on the management of secondary schools. This study on effects of conflicts on the management secondary schools in Baringo County would help to validate the findings by Kathryn and Pauline (2005). Dyan and Kristopher (2006) focused on civil conflict in Chad, Central African Republic, Somalia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Bird et al. (2009) conducted a qualitative study in Northern Uganda. A similar study on the effect of ethnic conflict on schools in Kenya would be very useful as it would show the difference between civil conflict in those countries and ethnic conflict in Kenya.

Conflict affect the quality of education that children receive and their chances of success is decreased. Parents are affected too and they live in constant fear for their children because sometimes schools are targeted. Other risks associated with conflicts that have long-term consequences for children and their futures include sexual violence and child recruitment. Due to the higher incidence of sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), girls in nearly every conflict-affected country are particularly

vulnerable (Bird, Kate &Higgins, 2009). The long-term consequences of staying out of school for long periods or dropping out completely, translates into lost opportunities for young people living through conflict. Literature also indicate that conflicts affect attainment of secondary education, more than primary education because secondary schools require more specialised resources which may not be accessible during conflicts (Shemyakina, 2011; Swee, 2009).

Katam (2004) assessed the condition of the environment and state of facilities and equipment; evaluated content coverage, performance and staffing; and determined attempts that had been made to curb cattle rustling to enhance curriculum implementation. Descriptive survey design was adopted in the study to elicit data. The study targeted population which consisted of 16 primary schools, 114 primary school teachers, 16 head teachers and one district education officer. Results indicated that development of both physical and instructional materials was found to be poor in the cattle rustling area of Tot Division, Marakwet East sub-county in Elgeyo-Marakwet County, Kenya. This was attributed to insecurity caused by cattle rustling menace, which hindered adequate provision of educational materials by the community and the private sector. Cattle rustling had also affected student enrolment, with schools experiencing high and sudden dropout rates. Teachers' adequacies, on the other hand, were affected by desertion of duties and transfers to safer areas outside the Division.

Mudege, Zulu and Izugbara (2008) research carried out in Nairobi, Kenya, among urban slum children, discussed how school enrolment and attendance were influenced by perceptions of personal security. Their study focused on threats of crime, physical harm, community and domestic violence. Children suffered from a number of fears including fears of attacks on the way to and from school, fear of going through unsafe

routes, fear of possible attacks while in school or at home, and the general feeling of insecurity. The paper concluded that the existence of insecure neighbourhoods impacted negatively on the schooling of children in urban slum areas. The study suggested policies, such as, psychosocial support for children affected by insecurities both at home and at school, to be put in place in slum neighbourhoods in order to address these fears emanating as a result of insecurity. The study in Baringo on the effects of conflict on school attendance by students had similar results, indicating fear of attacks when travelling to school, as one of the factors that limit school attendance and performance, due to increased absenteeism rates.

Wangechi, Njenga and Manyasa (2013) study in Nakuru County, Kenya, was to find out the effect of armed ethnic conflict on education of children and the role of peace education in schools. The objective of the study was to find out the effects of ethnic conflict on the education of children in Nakuru County. The study by Wangechi et. al adopted a case study based on qualitative procedures. From Wangechi's et al. study in Nakuru County it was revealed that, people were maimed, killed, displaced, and lost property. Wangechi et al. study also established that learning resources were burnt down, children dropped out of schools and teachers fled schools. There were also emotional repercussions amongst the children and this affected their education. Educational resources could not reach the schools as roads were barricaded and teachers fled the region for fear of their lives.

Lolchuraki (2013) investigated how cattle rustling influenced the quality of education in public secondary schools in Samburu East District, Samburu County, Kenya. This study was conducted at Uaso boys' secondary school, Wamba Boys High School and Wamba Girls High School, all in Samburu East District. The study targeted a

population of 809 students, 46 teachers and 3 principals. The respondents felt that the students performed averagely and this was represented by 52% while 43% performed poorly and only 5% of schools performed well. The second objective was to establish how student retention rates in public secondary schools was affected by cattle rustling. The results indicated that 24% students said cattle rustling caused students to drop out of school, 22% said it caused low performance. 18% of the students said it resulted in poverty, leading to lack of school fees making them not to attend school. 17% of the students said it caused absenteeism and low attendance to class. While 16% of the students revealed that it caused the death of students. Only 3% said that cattle rustling resulted in low student concentration in class. The difference created from Lolchuraki (2013) study was that, the study focused on quality of education and cattle rustling while this study on effects of conflicts on secondary schools in Baringo County looked at the management of secondary education in the face of conflicts.

According to Cheptile (2015) delivery of secondary school services in conflict-prone areas, is often disrupted during conflict and this has great impact on school attendance. In a research conducted in several countries across Africa, through longitudinal research design, Poirier (2011) confirms this fact and concludes that secondary school enrolment is affected by conflicts. The explanation for this is that secondary school going children, are old enough to join the conflicts and some are quite mature, to be able to understand the pain of losing their family or community members. Therefore, some students may drop out due to psychological trauma that comes with conflict experiences.

Nkuene (2015) investigated how ethnic conflict influenced pupils' participation in education in public upper primary schools in Tigania East Division, Meru County.

Ethnic conflict in Tigania East Division, Meru County, Kenya, has reduced pupils' enrolment, retention, attendance and pupils' participation in primary education. Quality education accessibility in the area has been significantly reduced. Descriptive survey research design was employed in the study. The study's target population were 27 public primary schools in Tigania East Division. 27 head teachers, 185 teachers and 2700 pupils in class 6, 7 and 8 formed the sample of the study. The study findings in Tigania East Division indicated that ethnic conflict negatively affected teacher pupil ratio to a great extent. Consequently, the conflicts have negatively affected the pupils' participation in education. The ethnic conflicts significantly contributed to low pupils' enrolment. Ethnic conflicts between the communities in the Division therefore, have bred insecurity, making schools unsafe for learning. Consequently, pupils' enrolment significantly reduced. Ethnic conflicts therefore, contributed to low pupils' retention in schools significantly. Nkuene study was done in primary schools while this study on effects of conflict in Baringo County, focused on secondary schools management in the face of conflicts.

2.4 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Teacher Management in Schools

Schools play an important role during and soon after a conflict. This is because they serve as refuge centres when people are displaced from their homes. The role of the teachers cannot be under estimated in the school (UNICEF, 2012). After conflict teachers play an important role in bringing the children back to school and in providing the psychosocial support. They also determine the learner's outcome in a very big way. Despite this fact, teachers in conflict-affected countries are exposed to intimidation, persecution and torture. They are sometimes injured or killed. More often, teachers have been forced to flee their communities and schools due to persecution and intimidation against them or against their own families. Teachers

have sometimes become targets of violent attacks like in the case of Cambodia where close to 80% of teachers were killed, during the reign of Pol Pot because they perceived them to be a threat to his rule (Smith, 2003).

In Nepal, 28 teachers were killed after a state of emergency was declared in 2001. These situations of war resulting in death create sufficient intimidation and threats that can result in mass exodus of teachers to places that are perceived to be safe (UNESCO, 2010). Whenever there is an attack on teachers, several children are affected indirectly. Save the Children Report (2011), indicated that whenever there was a decrease in the number of qualified teachers, the learning outcomes for children in conflict-afflicted countries were significantly affected. There is a long-term effect on the enrolment and retention of children in the conflict-affected areas whenever teachers are absent from a classroom (Toros, 2013). As a consequence, children could be in school but no learning is taking place due to high teacher pupil ratio where one teacher serves over a hundred pupils.

Sometimes there is loss of teaching staff due to mass exodus of teachers as they seek job opportunities elsewhere or due to death, resulting to an increase in teacher to pupil ratio. In addition, many non-local teachers sought to transfer to other schools that were perceived to be safe. Only a few teachers were left to offer learning in conflict prone areas (Thuo, 2010). Moreover, teacher shortages occur mostly during times of conflict and recruiting and retaining secondary school teachers may be more challenging during such times. In fact, UNICEF (2012) notes that finding qualified secondary school teachers is more difficult even during times of peace in some contexts.

Smith (2003) in DFID report on 'education, conflict and international development' stated that teachers' performance went down whenever there is war and instability. Just like their students, teachers may suffer trauma, violence and sexual abuse which had a negative impact on their mandate. Machel (2001) observed that, teachers may be forced to work for little or no pay at all, because they are vulnerable to political pressure. Such situations on teachers, affect their ability negatively.

Ring and West (2015) observed teacher quality, to be the primary driver of variation in student learning outcomes in refugee and emergency settings. However, few studies have examined the factors that motivate or de-motivate teachers in these contexts. In their studies, they used secondary source materials from academic experts and grey literature from United Nations agencies and Non-Governmental Organizations. They identified seven key areas that affect teacher retention in refugee and emergency situations. These were teacher recruitment, selection and deployment, certification, incentives, professional development, the teaching environment, social recognition, management structures and status.

Jnawali (2012) research in Nepal, examined the relationship association that existed between education and conflict. The research examined the significant role that the Nepal people played on education during war. Narrative inquiry approach was employed in the research. 8 schools from 4 Districts formed the target population and the instruments for collecting data that were used included; narrative writing tasks, focus group discussions and interviews. Children and their parents, head teachers and teachers were the respondents forming a sample of 427 people. The findings from Jnawali's research indicated that teachers and learners bared the brunt of conflicts with most of them being maimed and abducted by the security forces and Maoists. In

some instances, Maoists faction recruited fighters from schools. From the study it was clear that conflict resulted in loss of teachers' motivation.

Obiechina, Abraham and Nwogu (2018) investigation in Nigeria, was carried in public secondary schools in Anambra State, to investigate perceived impact of insecurity on teachers' productivity. Descriptive research design was adopted by study. The target population for the study was 258 public secondary schools in Anambra State. 611 teachers were selected using the stratified random sampling technique. From the study it was clear that insecurity in the environment disrupted learning and teaching, as well as, other school activities.

Amalu and Abuo (2019) investigated 86 secondary school principals in Calabar Education Zone, Nigeria, to determine the psychosocial variables and sustainable safety environment. A survey research design was employed by the study. All the principals were sampled using the census technique since the population was not large. Findings from the study indicated there was no significant relationship between psychosocial variables (principals' attitude to security issues, school-community relationship, provision of security measures,) and sustainable safety environment in secondary school. Although the study by Amalu and Abuo did not find any significant relationship between psychosocial variables and sustainable safety environment, the study carried out in Baringo County on conflicts and management of secondary schools, disagreed with these findings because the results indicated that students and teachers were traumatised by the experience of war and conflict.

Another study by Loku (2013) was carried out in private and public secondary schools in Central Equatorial State of Juba County in South Sudan. The study examined factors affecting the provision of quality education. Both descriptive survey

and naturalistic designs were employed by the study. The target population consisted of all teachers, head teachers, students, parents/guardians and community members/leaders. Loku's study findings revealed that teaching and learning materials in schools were inadequate. It also indicated that trained and professionally qualified teachers, were few because they lacked motivation as a result of low remuneration. Loku suggested measures that the government of South Sudan could use to curb the problem. This included; employment of more teachers who are professionally qualified and trained and better remuneration of teachers to increase motivation.

In Kenya, Wahu (2013) carried out a research in the Tana Delta District to investigate the influence of insecurity on students' ability to access secondary school education. Descriptive survey design was employed. The target population were teachers, students, and principals of 5 secondary schools selected using random and stratified sampling. During the time of data collection, there was medium level of insecurity. The study found that insecurity, in form of physical displacement of parents and teachers, had impact on students' access to secondary school education. This insecurity situation sometimes resulted in student dropping out of school. In addition, teachers in some schools were forced to merge classes since they were few.

A study on the influence of insecurity on syllabus coverage in public primary schools in West Pokot County, Kenya was carried out by Kaliakamur, Thinguri and Chui (2018). The study employed the mixed methodology design and targeted the County Director of Education, 4 Quality Assurance Officers, 465 BoM members, 80 head teachers and 611 teachers. The study found that insecurity hampered syllabus coverage in the County. Peace talks between the local warring communities was suggested by the study to curb insecurity. Kaliakamur et al. (2018) research created a

gap because their study was only focused on syllabus coverage, while this study on effect of conflicts in Baringo County went further to look at other teacher management aspects. The results from the study on effect of conflicts on the management of secondary schools in Baringo County agreed with the study by Kaliakamur et al. on inability of teachers to cover the syllabus, in conflict-prone areas. In addition the study indicated that teachers rarely attended school during times of conflict, and there was a high teacher turnover in the affected area.

2.5 Challenges Faced by School Management due to Ethnic Conflicts

School administrators are responsible for inculcating a positive school culture that is conducive to learning and student development. They are responsible for improving infrastructural quality and the management of human and other resources and processes in the school (Jnawali, 2012). Among the many responsibilities of school administrators, one that is paramount is safety and security of all staff and students. The administrator must also ensure all school assets and equipment are safe to promote effective teaching and learning process (Thomas, 2011). The administration also plays the supervisory role for teachers and students. Sometimes schools may be sited in zones of war or instability, leading to a disconnection from the larger school system and may be lucky if they were not attacked or looted (Smith, 2003).

In most cases conflict may directly, constrain the education supply due to education infrastructure physical damage (UNICEF, 2012). This usually happens when schools are attacked directly or when the military or rebel groups occupy school facilities (GCPEA, 2014; O'Malley, 2010; O'Malley, 2011). A good example is Rwanda during the peak of the genocide where schools were closed and school buildings destroyed (Akresh & De Walque, 2008). General school maintenance, or repairs after

an attack or occupation, may not be possible where roads are damaged and supplies are unavailable. The challenge for the administration of the school is keeping the school running in spite of erased community support undermined by conflict that forces the community members to leave (Justino, 2016).

Additionally, teachers are sometimes forced to join the armed forces while others may be killed or injured as a result of conflict. Some teachers may choose to leave the profession because they view schools to be unsafe, leading to a reduction in the teaching staff (Jones & Naylor, 2014). Furthermore, conflict diverts funds towards military spending, leading to a reduction of funds meant for education (Lai &Thyne, 2007). The overall economic declines during war (Blattman & Miguel, 2010), leave less funds for education and other public expenditures. For example, one report estimates that education expenditure dropped by 3.1-11.4% during conflicts in Pakistan and by 26% during conflicts in Nigeria (Jones & Naylor, 2014).

Paola, Magee and Fyles (2017) study reviewed the main threats that girls' education faced in conflict-affected contexts and interventions that would help reduce the barriers to girls' education during conflict. The review was based on consultations with key practitioners of education-in-emergencies. From the study, seven main threats to girls' education in conflict contexts were identified. The threats affecting girls education were multiple and did not arise in isolation and sometimes occurred simultaneously, forming complex barriers to safe, quality education and deepening girls' vulnerabilities in conflict settings. There are several other threats to girls' education in conflict settings, such as challenges in menstrual hygiene management, lack of water and sanitation facilities (Tahir et al., 2015).

In Pakistan, Iqbal, Khalil and Khan (2017) study was to sensitize the teachers about the social conflicts and their resolution and to investigate education role in addressing social conflicts. All the male secondary school teachers of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa constituted the population of this study. A sample of 560 teachers was selected randomly. It was found that education regarding social conflicts resolution did not exist formally in their education system and did not provide/inculcate practical skills for the social conflict resolution. Teachers were also not trained in social conflicts resolution skills.

In Iraq, Barnett-Vanes, Hassounah, and Shawki (2016) did a survey of all Iraqi medical schools and a cross-section of Iraqi medical students about their institutional and student experiences of medical education amidst on going conflict. The objective of the survey was to better understand the current resources and challenges facing medical schools. In addition, the study aimed at finding out the impacts of conflict on the training landscape and student experience. An electronic survey was instituted to cover deans of all Iraqi medical schools registered in the World Directory of Medical Schools. The electronic survey was also administered to medical students from three Iraqi medical schools. The findings indicated that medical schools were facing challenges in staff recruitment and inadequate resource provision resulting in compromising on the quality of training. Medical students were experiencing added psychological stress and low quality of teaching. Majority of the medical students intended to leave Iraq after graduation.

A research was conducted by Jones and Naylor (2014) in Nigeria to establish the extent to which conflict influenced education. The researchers collected data from various sources. They found out that conflict resulted in recruitment of some students

and teachers to the armed forces. There was population displacement due to interrupted education and there was reduced access and learning by students in schools. Jones and Naylor (2014) study created a gap since data was collected from secondary sources while this study on effect of conflicts on the management of secondary schools in Baringo County collected data from primary sources.

In Burundi, Dunlop (2015) examined how ethnic difference and conflict in schools was incorporated through the formal education system over three time periods: the three pre-civil war (Independent Republics), civil war (1993-2005), and post-civil war. It examined the planning documents and education policies from each of the time period. This was then compared to the remembered, lived experiences in schools, which were collected using semi-structured interviews from ten Burundian immigrants who were living in Canada at the time. From the study, destructive conflict and passive conflict, in particular conflict avoidance, were identified to have been present in Burundian schools during the independent republic. Direct violence in the 1990's could have been as a result of the avoidance of interethnic conflicts in schools that were not addressed. The study suggested that interethnic difference and conflict in schools could be eradicated through constructively engaging students. This could be done through critical dialogue and incorporating multiple experiences, resulting in sustainable peace in the country.

Ignace (2014) conducted a study on the strategies used by school heads to manage conflicts in secondary schools. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were employed in the study. Findings from the study indicated that head teachers had little knowledge and skills on the management of conflicts. A few heads however employed some conflicts management strategies that they were familiar with. On the

effectiveness of the strategies employed to resolve conflict in public secondary schools, all heads of school indicated that they had made efforts to manage conflicts but they were not sure of their effectiveness.

In South Sudan, Mayai (2017) exploiting on space variation to estimate exposure to violence, studied the causal impact of South Sudanese civil war on primary school enrolment. School enrolment was taken to be a measure of human capital accumulation. Findings were based on the difference-in-differences (DD) methodology. There was a statistically significant relationship between enrolment and war. Generally, averages of 85 children per year (representing 18.5% of total enrolment) were lost in schools located in the war zones. The low enrolment of girls' was unrelated to the war. The findings were not surprising owing to the existing social barriers such as gendered domestic roles, early marriages, and out of wedlock pregnancies that for long, have impeded female educational opportunities in South Sudan. These effects were robust to a number of specifications, including holding constant school-level fixed-effect, and adjusting for the standard errors.

In Uganda, Najjuma (2011) explored whether Peace Education Programme (PEP) was effective in conflict affected areas. The study was also meant to provide insight into the reality of a post-conflict context in Northern Uganda, as far as, current practice of peace education in schools is concerned. Interviews, observation and documentary analysis (qualitative methods) were adopted to investigate PEP impact on pupils' attitudes, behaviour, knowledge and skills and its effectiveness. The findings showed pupils were in the know about the dangers of using violence. They had knowledge of the non-violent conflict resolution alternatives. However, PEP did not influence pupils to change their attitude to non-violent conflict resolution strategies. Hence, pupils

were not able to develop self-control, empathy, competences and skills for non-violent conflict resolution.

Rusoke (2015) qualitative study sought to know how children with disabilities were educated in zones of conflict in Uganda. Data was generated using a critical, constructivist and grounded research style. Findings revealed the nature and extent of the challenges experienced by children living in conflict settings. It included rampant poverty, forced displacement, weakened leadership and dehumanisation. The study discovered people with disabilities often experienced rejection in their communities. Disabled children were more likely to be side lined in the provision of services such as education.

A research carried out by Kareithi (2015) on inter-ethnic conflicts in the North Rift counties of Kenya, indicated that ethnic conflicts led to large congregations of households in restricted regions for security reasons. Coupled with this, is the widespread dispersion of human population and livestock which had impact on school attendance since students move with their families. In Baringo North and Baringo South over ten schools remained closed for over six months due to insecurity (Daily Nation, 5/9/2017). This closure affected more than 4000 learners who were forced to remain at home because the schools were located in the 'volatile' areas. The teachers union KNUT branch of Baringo County ordered their members to withdraw services after some teachers were murdered by armed bandits.

Some schools in the low land areas of Baringo lost properties such as iron sheets and solar panels meant for charging the laptops. The children in the lowland areas are expected to compete fairly with other children in different parts of the country yet they learn under very harsh conditions. The numbers of pupils keep fluctuating in

areas such as Mukutani, because villagers keep on fleeing the area due to frequent attacks by the pokot. A report by Standard Digital (16/7/2017) indicated that learning had been paralyzed in the Mukutani area of Baringo South as a result of bandit attacks.

Because the children had moved with their parents to an Internally Displaced Persons (IDP) camp, there was an influx of pupils in a nearby school. Those who could not get places in the schools near the IDP camps were taught by their teachers who were also in the camp having fled the area together with the villagers. Learning and teaching at the camp was more challenging because both the teachers and the pupils lacked teaching and learning materials and stationery. Classes were held under trees and teachers used charcoal as writing material while the pupils wrote on the ground. In addition, more pupils were displaced by the IDPs situation because their schools was converted in to a refugee camp. Few studies have focused on the Kenyan scenario and therefore the study sought to establish the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools, in lowland areas of Baringo County.

Lokwete (2013) investigated the challenges the parents of children with disabilities from the pastoral communities face in conflict zones. The study was undertaken at Kacheliba Mixed Integrated Primary School for the Physically Handicap (PH) in Kacheliba Division, Turkana County, Kenya. The population studied comprised parents of children with disabilities sampled out using snow ball method, and purposively selecting special teachers and regular teachers from Kacheliba Mixed Integrated Primary School, Kacheliba Division. Findings from the study revealed that myth, superstition, and self-blame arose from the prevailing societal attitudes about disability. Cattle rustling and insecurity intensity influenced the decision by the

parents to enrol and retain their children in school. However, frequent closure of the school as a result of insecurity sometimes forces learners with disabilities to drop out of school. Parents of children with disabilities need involvement in the provision of special education because parental support was viewed to be a critical ingredient in addressing concerns of insecurity and in fulfilling schooling needs of children with disabilities.

Adan and Orodho (2016) focused on establishing the challenges that Board of Management members (BoM) faced in implementing educational policies in public secondary schools in Mandera County. The study was conducted in five secondary schools involving 30 BoM members and 5 principals. The study used focus group guideline to collect data from BoM members while interviews were used to collect data from principals. From the study, majority members of BoM did not have requisite skills to manage schools. This made it difficult for them to conduct monitoring of curriculum and management issues in schools. They also faced challenges addressing the issues brought about by inter-clan conflicts and Al-shabaab attacks. Their study mainly focused on Board of Management members only while this study carried out in Baringo County, Kenya, went further to include teachers and student leaders in order to get their perspective on the challenges school administrators faced in conflict areas. The study results indicated that conflicts affected students, teachers and the school administration in their different roles as learners, instructors and managers.

2.6 Intervention Mechanisms to Ethnic Conflicts by School Management

A great challenge for education is to prepare pupils to learn to live together in the society. The major role of innovative education is to make the world a better and safer place to live, survive and grow. Many questions have been posed on global challenges

such as HIV/AIDS, mental health, poverty, refugees, violence, atrocities, genocide, and small arms proliferation, refusal of civil rights, war and justice. According to UNICEF (2012) gender violence is an epidemic and one of the worst forms of human rights violations that lead to psychological, physical and sexual trauma. Educational institutions can be used to address peace through programmes that focus on security, dignity, self-worth, equality and fundamental freedoms of individuals. These concerns can be addressed through education policies, that advocate for school communities that are free from violence, while maintain a democratic framework of a friendly school environment (Rodriguez & Sanchez, 2009).

There is need to understand that children and even adults who grow up under conflict conditions are in a position to learn values, prejudices, ethnocentrism and hatred from a variety of contexts. Education is seen as the key solution (Ignace, 2014). Positive educational programmes can be developed to teach children causes of conflicts and ways and means of addressing and preventing them. Education can teach children about rights and responsibilities, democracy and social justices. Therefore, education needs to focus on values such as diversity, tolerance, empathy, self-control and respect. It can be used to address the roles of competition between communities, to regulate aggression and to advocate cooperation in the society (Bird, Kate & Higgins, 2009).

According to Baron (2001) the effect of ethnic conflicts on children and conflict prevention can be mitigated through the use of education, as a tool for reconstructing lives after a conflict. Of paramount importance is the fact that children can learn to live cooperatively with one another in school. Measures need to be taken to protect vulnerable children especially girls when conflict is on-going. Schooling thus become

vital in the lives of these vulnerable children, because it provides an opportunity for the communities to cope with the effect of ethnic conflicts. In addition, other effect of ethnic conflicts on children that may include violence, rape, psychological trauma and bereavement, need sound actions to mitigate them in order to avoid its adverse effect.

Education can be used to bridge the gap that exists between the current generation and the past and to successfully construct mutual and progressive reciprocity between contentious groups (Cole, 2012). Baron (2001) suggests that rebuilding the community and the school should be at the centre as a priority. McCorrison (2008) and INEE (2010) agree on the fact that education provides a physically safe space for learning, interaction with peers and psychosocial development. They suggest that education can be used to mitigate the psychosocial effect of conflict, through the creation of stable communities that have hope for the future. In addition, critical problem-solving skills and information learnt at school may assist children and youth to avoid sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV), exploitation, harm and abduction.

Peace building education provides life-saving information to children. Other arguments suggest that rights and responsibilities of children especially through active citizenship, can be promoted through education and this can provide long-term benefits for the society. They need to be inculcated in the curriculum. The Global Monitoring Report (2011), report highlighted children and schools to be increasingly on the frontline of armed conflicts. Classrooms, teachers and pupils are taken to be legitimate targets (O'Malley, 2010). Most critics argue that peace education ought not to be addressed in schools because it contains a political agenda. However, this is the best solution for future generations to rid the world of conflict.

Okrah (2003) observes that the cultural context of a group should form the basis for negotiating factors in conflict resolution as evident in the Akan of Ghana. Interactive process of problem solving, communication strategies and brainstorming can be inculcated together with culture. According to Lincoln (2002), it is possible for an educational setting to introduce new patterns of communication through storytelling, situational role-plays, feedback exercises and interactive improvisations. The main point is the ability to learn how to use critical thinking skills and to control anger. Verbal and non-verbal communication and its power over the negotiation process need to be taken as one of the most valuable skills to address conflict. Communities need to be incorporated in the coping strategies.

Conflicts are usually nurtured from the environment basically through the kind of negative information passed on to children from parents about neighbours. It is of great value if all people (educators, the civil society, parents and pupils) are taught methods of dealing and resolving conflicts (Apollo's, 2012). The basic family unit, particularly parents need to disseminate peaceful methods of dealing with diversity to their children. Pragmatic family life programs should be designed by faith based organizations, to help families impart enduring values in children and youth, including respect for sanctity of life, property, peace and honesty among others (KTTF, 2008).

The vital part of any person's day is spent in educational institutions. Beyond preparing students for careers, educational institutions, should also prepare them for moral values as embedded in the national goals of education (KTTF, 2008). The curricular should be developed in such a way that it incorporates issues of nationhood or patriotism. Faith-based organizations can be approached to design curricular for religious education and pastoral programs. The quota system of admissions to

secondary schools should, be reviewed to avoid a situation where the youth become accustomed to certain geographical regions, making them vulnerable to parochialism and ethnic bigotry.

In Canada, Bartlett (2009) carried out a study at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto to investigate the mandatory School and Society course within the Initial Teacher Education Program. The study intended to explore peace education training within the pre-service teacher education program. A curriculum analysis and reflective case study was the methodology employed in the study. The combination of both methods enabled the author to illustrate the training received from the program and the experiences as a pre-service student. The study revealed that components of a peace education curriculum were observable in the Initial Teacher Education program. However, it was not a formal requirement for graduates to deliver peace education in the schools.

Parker and Bickmore (2012) explored 68 teachers approach to conflict and ethnocultural diversity in their classrooms, using quantitative and qualitative survey. The survey indicated that some teachers expressed certain levels of confidence in addressing conflict. However, most reported they felt lonely, intimidated and most times were unwilling to engage students constructively on the issue of conflict. Several other teachers intimated that, as part of conflict management strategies, they understood their students' diversities. Others however, did not consider the diversities and handled all students in the same way. From the study, most teachers indicated that they needed more education and support in addressing conflict deductively in their schools. In New Zealand, Handjani (2014) studied challenges faced by school managers in secondary schools in South Auckland. The study also sought to find out ways of addressing diversity in order to achieve inclusion of a diverse range of ethnically-related values, cultures and expectations. Qualitative approach consisting of two case studies of multi-ethnic state was employed. Semi-structured interviews were conducted for senior leaders across the two case studies to collect data. Documentary analysis was carried out on the school charter and equity policies in order to gain an understanding of the intent of managing ethnic diversity. Findings revealed that school managers valued ethnic diversity and were committed to improving the academic achievement of all students. Inclusive practices had positive impact on student success.

In Colombia, Gomez (2017) looked at the relationship between civil conflict and educational performance. They used multilevel analysis to perform the process of analysing hierarchical data. Findings revelaed that there was an indirect relationship between intensity of conflict and academic achievement. Gomez noted that schools provided students with a safe environment to play thus offered an alternative to destructive conduct. It also enabled students' access to healthy and nutritious meals while at the same time, they were offered guidance from counsellors and teachers.

In Estonia, Toros (2013) determined whether the designed and implemented Psychosocial Support and Crisis Intervention (PSCI) program worked successfully in Georgia, Caucasus region. The program was to assist teachers to develop sufficient expertise in recognizing and providing appropriate support to traumatized children after the armed conflict of August 2008. The study was performed in the city of Gori, one year after the armed conflict. It evaluated 114 trained teachers from twelve

schools. The results reflect that PSCI program strengthened the capacity within existing institutions in the community. There was a high level of satisfaction among participants and teacher training program was found to be feasible and satisfactory. The program enabled teachers to raise awareness of trauma and gain other relevant knowledge in order to support children to cope better with the aftermaths of the conflict.

In Pakistan, Tahir, Arshad, Muhammad and Ghaffar (2015) study sought to determine the relationship between teachers' performance at secondary schools and conflict management styles. The target population for the study were teachers of secondary schools of the Punjab Province. Two schools of single gender each were conveniently selected from all districts of the Punjab Province. From the analysis there was a significant relationship between secondary school teachers' performance and conflict management styles. A positive correlation was exhibited when teachers' performance were integrated with obliging and dominating styles. However, there were negative effects on teachers' performance when avoidance and compromising styles were used.

In Nigeria, Wudil (2019) investigated junior secondary school students in Nigeria to determine whether students' security consciousness was influenced by the implementation of security education curriculum. The design adopted by the study was descriptive approach. Junior secondary school students formed the target population. Local Government Areas of Fagge, Nasarawa and Ungwaggo in Kano State were sampled for the study. Stratified sampling technique was employed. From the findings students of security education curriculum, were not conscious of security. In addition, the resources for the implementation of the security education curriculum were inadequate in junior secondary schools.

Owan (2018) investigated secondary school teachers' job effectiveness and conflict management strategies in Obubra Local Government Area, Cross River State. Six null hypotheses guided the study. Correlation and factorial research designs were adopted by the study. Findings from the investigation in Obubra Local Government Area revealed that arbitration, dialogue, and effective communication strategies respectively, had a significant relationship with secondary school teachers' job effectiveness. Smoothing strategy had no significant relationship to secondary school teachers' job effectiveness. From the study it was clear that; the four conflict management strategies (arbitration, dialogue, effective communication and smoothing) had a joint significant influence on secondary school teachers' job effectiveness.

In South Africa, Siphiwe (2013) case study explored the role that School Governing Bodies (SGBs) had in addressing violence in schools. Emancipatory paradigm and qualitative methodological approach were employed in the study. Findings indicated that there were a lot of challenges that SGBs faced in trying to maintain discipline, curb school violence and to ensure safety of learners. Because of frustration, some learners took the law into their hands in trying to address the injustice because they viewed schools to be slow in addressing acts of violence against them. The learners criticized some SGBs for not following the laid down procedures when charging learners for misconduct. Therefore, SGBs were doubted by the majority of participants as the most appropriate body to deal with school violence.

Abaya (2011), multi-case study sought to understand and describe modalities used by secondary school principals in south western Kenya to build trust with the local communities within the schools' location. Six high school principals were interviewed

and data triangulated with extensive observation data that were collected in naturalistic settings in the schools. The researcher established that principals had tried to close the gap between the community and the school in addition to sustaining high levels of professionalism, competence and morals. Some of the methods used by the principal to close gaps with the community include modelling, genuine interest, mediation and participation in community activities. The principals also used balanced management practices, good instructional leadership and free and open communication with the parents that consequently build trust with them.

In Kenya, Kipkoech and Limo (2017) examined the role teachers and head teachers played in managing and resolving conflicts that arose after the post-election violence of 2007/08. The methodology adopted was both quantitative and qualitative. Descriptive survey research design was employed. Numerical and statistical data were collected together with narratives that drew from personal experiences. Findings showed that teachers became traumatized by conflicts. Their properties were either stolen or destroyed and they also lost their relatives due to post-election violence. The study also indicated that teachers and head teachers played a key role in making students settle in school through counselling, despite the fact that most of them lacked skills in conflict management.

Wanjiru (2018) conducted an intrinsic case study with aspects of ethnography in a primary school in Kenya located in a post conflict community. 71% of the pupil population in the school was attributed to the internal displacement following the 2007/2008 Post Election Violence (PEV). Sixteen pupils between the ages of 9 and 12 years were invited to reflect on what inclusion in education meant for them. They were to focus on their memorable schooling experiences since joining this particular

school. Findings indicated children regarded inclusive education in relation to their own learning and development needs. Access and acceptance in the new school community, social-emotional development, 'peer-keeping' and community-consciousness was enabled by inclusive education.

In Kenya, a comparative study by Waweru, Ndirangu and Orodho (2018) evaluated the significance of peace education intervention strategy to address conflict between Samburu and Kiambu Counties. The study was explanatory in nature involving 707 respondents. The study collected data from senior teachers, BoM members, Quality Assurance Officers, principals and students. They found out that Kiambu County schools implemented more peace education lessons compared to Samburu County, as one method of promoting holistic education. Nevertheless, they concluded that peace education implementation promoted holistic education in schools. The study was comparative in nature involving two counties where one does not experience ethnic conflict (Kiambu) with another experiencing ethnic conflict (Samburu). Therefore, the results would not provide a good picture on the success of intervention measures to ethnic conflicts, because the county that experienced conflict did not implement peace education lessons. Therefore, it was difficult to establish whether peace education helped to ease the problem of conflicts. In this study that was conducted in Baringo County, to find out the intervention strategies employed by the management in the face of conflict, the results indicated that peace education was not implemented. However, messages of peace were disseminated to both students and parents during school assemblies and during parents' meetings respectively.

2.7 Summary

The review of literature has established that ethnic conflicts negatively impact on educational institutions (Save the Children, 2011; Bird, Kate & Higgins, 2009;

Wairagu, 2007; Rodriguez & Sanchez, 2009) among others. The literature further showed different ethnic conflicts effect on general schooling of children especially by rating the genders. Akresh and De Walque (2008) for instance, established that school enrolment and attendance for boys was more affected than girls' because boys were more likely to be drawn into the conflict than girls. Girls, however, were more disadvantaged due to cultural practices such as early marriages, rape and sexual violence. It further showed that governments should commit themselves politically through giving priority to transforming the community using schools as a major agent of change.

The government needs to have a modality for collecting data on effects of conflict and this information can be used as a basis for developing policies and plans, to rebuild communities and schools in the areas affected by conflicts. The international community can be brought in to support the governments' effort in rebuilding these societies. In addition, conflict resolution strategies together with peace education need to be part of the curriculum and be taught at all levels of education in the country. Most studies which had been done in Kenya have mainly focused on other school factors, such as, access and retention. None of the studies reviewed in this chapter, looked at the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools to understand what they undergo.

Moreover, various studies that have been done in the region have focused on large areas, such as, the North Rift, or one Sub County alone without considering other subcounties that are also affected by the ethnic conflicts. This study that looked at the management of secondary schools in the face of ethnic conflict, sought to understand strategies employed by school managers to prevent and mitigate severe effect of

ethnic conflicts on their institutions. Therefore, this study done in the lowland areas of Baringo County, was on the effect of ethnic conflict on the management of secondary schools and was meant to complement the earlier study findings and fill the knowledge gap.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter in the study describes the plan that the researcher followed in order to collect and analyse data. It includes the research design, the target population, sample size and procedures and the method by which data was collected and analysed as well as ethical consideration.

3.2 Research Philosophy

The research philosophy that was utilised in this investigation is pragmatism which puts emphasis on the research questions. Pragmatism advocates that what works to answer the research questions is the nearly beneficial method to investigations according to Suter (2005). Thus a researcher may choose to use a blend of experiments, surveys or case studies and/or whatever enhances the quality of research. Pragmatism is a deconstructive paradigm that supports for the application of mixed methods techniques in investigations, "sidesteps the contentious subject of reality and truth (Alvesson & Karreman, 2011). It focuses on 'what works' as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation. Based on this information the philosophy discards the position among two opposing perspectives. In one perspective, it discards the choice related with wars in paradigm. Majority of studies are related with interpretivism, positivism and not much with criticism.

One of the main characteristics of pragmatism approach is that it discards the disparity between anti-realism and realism, which has been at the heart of debates concerning interpretivism and positivism within social sciences field. For pragmatists, there is certainly no such item as reality, because it is ever evolving, due to our

actions. Therefore, efforts to establish a continuing, external reality are destined to fail. Dewey mentioned this as an effort to establish a reality outside of us, 'spectator theory' of knowledge (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The importance on actions and their consequences develops a space between this philosophical stance and main types of interpretivism since it does away with the notion that, we are at liberty to translate our experiences in whichever means we observe to be good (for instance relativism). As an alternative, our actions have results which are occasionally likely to be predicted and that we develop our lives within the experiences which connects actions and their results.

The concept of 'pragmatism' comes from studies by Peirce, James, Mead, and Dewey Cherry Holmes (1992) cited in Gray (2009). Pragmatism as a world view erupts from situations, actions and impacts compared to precursor circumstances (as in post positivism). The pragmatic philosophy in research, involve utilisation of an approach that appears best suitable to a study problem and not getting entangled to philosophical arguments (Morgan, 2007). Scholars, who use this approach, have the liberty to choose any of the methods, procedures and techniques commonly related with qualitative or quantitative research.

Morgan asserts that pragmatic approach is based on the premise that each approach has its own disadvantages and that distinct methods could be paired. Thus, pragmatism approach obtains on using 'what works' utilising different methods, providing primary to the impact of study question and problem and the appreciating both subjective and objective knowledge according to Morgan (2007). In pragmatist research, the combination of qualitative and quantitative data in one research is justifiable (Gray, 2009). This study therefore used mixed method research approach to

establish the effect of ethnic conflicts on management of secondary education in lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya.

3.3 Research Design

Research design is the makeup of research which shows how other main components of a project relate against each other in trying to answer research question(s). It is known as the plan, outline or scheme that is utilised to produce answers to study problems (Orodho, 2009). It is also an organisation of settings for data collection in a way that purposes to join significance with the objective of the study. Kothari (2004) postulated that it is an outline for measurement, collection and analysis of data from the field. It guides the researcher to put down the number of variables to be integrated in the sample, basing on the target population. It is used in the determination of the sampling procedures and the sample size. According to Kothari (2004), a design that is good is the one which minimises partiality and maximises on reliability of collected data.

Thus, mixed method design that employs qualitative and quantitative research techniques was used in the study, as it was highly appropriate to get adequate and rich data, to answer research questions. Furthermore, mixed methods provides for a detailed knowledge of an incident than would be acquired through one method design. Most studies tend to be qualitative or quantitative compared to quantitative or alternatively. The mixed method research hinges at the centre of this ban since it integrates characteristics of qualitative and quantitative techniques (Kothari, 2004).

Qualitative research explains a phenomenon in its usual condition. It is a skewed way to focus at life as it is lived, in an effort to describe the investigated behaviour and it entails emerging procedures and questions (Lohworn, 2007). Data is gathered in

participants 'environment'. Qualitative research in the current study, therefore, gave a more general comprehension of the effect of violent ethnic conflicts. Moreover, suggestion on the ways of eradicating violent conflicts to ensure peaceful coexistence between the different ethnic groups was collected. On the other hand, quantitative investigation is a way of examining objective theories by testing the relationships between variables which can be quantified. It allows the researcher to analyse data using statistical procedures and arrive at important verdict concerning the population through investigating a study sample.

Therefore, quantitative research that was employed provided a detailed understanding of the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of schools in Baringo County. Most researchers have advocated for the use of mixed method approaches. Reams and Twale (2008) indicate that the use of mixed approach is important in uncovering data and outlook, and in increasing substantiation and producing less partial and extra conclusions that are accurate. Denscombe (2008) is in agreement and says that mixed approaches design increases data accuracy; gives a broader image of the situation under investigation compared to what would be produced through a single method. The utilisation of mixed methods approach in the study enabled gathering of rich data while protecting against bias, in order to improve validity and reliability of the study.

3.4 Study Area

This study was conducted in the County of Baringo, Kenya. The County is located in the Central Rift Region of the country. In terms of size, the County has an area of 11,015.3km² of which 165.0km² is covered by water masses that include: Lake Kamnarok, Lake Bogoria and Lake Baringo (Baringo County Integrated Development Plan 2013-2017). The County borders Samburu and Turkana Counties to the North,

West Pokot and Elgeyo-Marakwet Counties to the West, Uasin Gishu County to the South West, Kericho and Nakuru Counties to the East and Laikipia County to the East. In terms of coordinates, the County is situated in longitudes 35 30⁰ and 36 30⁰ East and between latitudes 0 10⁰ South and 140⁰. The equator passes through the County on the southern regions (Baringo CIDP 2013-2017) Appendix VIII.

The County has six constituencies (sub-counties) which are: Baringo North, Baringo Central, Eldama Ravine (Koibatek), Baringo South (Marigat) Tiaty (East Pokot) and Mogotio. The lowland areas of three sub-counties namely East Pokot, Baringo North and Baringo South were used for the study. Generally, the whole of East Pokot is a lowland area thus the whole sub-County was used. For Baringo South, all wards/locations are in the lowlands except Mochongoi. Baringo North has two wards/locations in the lowlands at the boundary between the Pokot, the Tugen and the Marakwet.

These sub-counties experience low gross enrolment at secondary school level and girls in the pastoral regions have highest rates of dropout. The high school dropout and low transition are attributable to the harsh climatic conditions and retrogressive cultural practices, especially in these lower parts of the County. This has led to high illiteracy levels. In addition, insecurity that is prevalent in the County results in the shutting down of some schools, and many at times, the schools are made the refuge centres for the displaced families. The education infrastructure is also inadequate.

3.5 Target Population

A population is a complete set of individuals, objects or items that have at least a mutual thing amongst them, such as, teachers, students, households among others (Kombo & Tromp, 2009). It is a larger group from which samples were derived for

the purpose of research. The study target was the lowland areas of Baringo County, specifically in Baringo North, East Pokot and Baringo South sub-counties. Two locations/zones from each of the sub-counties which have borne the brunt of many ethnic conflicts were selected for the study. All student leaders (4 per school), teachers, principals and BoM members of public secondary schools in the six locations/zones were integrated in the investigation.

Student leaders were chosen to give the feedback on how ethnic conflict had affected management of schools. Teachers were targeted to provide their insight toward effects of ethnic conflicts on the management of schools. Principals were targeted to provide feedback on the extent to which ethnic conflicts affected the management of their schools. The same information gathered from principals was also sought from BoM members.

This is the group that formed the study population. Table 3.1 showed the target population for the study.

Table 3.1: Target Population

Sub	Location /	No. of	Principals	Executive	Teache	Student
County	Zone	schools		BoM	rs	Leaders
Baringo	Mukutani	2	2	8	19	8
South	Mochongoi	7	7	28	45	28
Baringo	Bartabwa	3	3	12	27	12
North	Sibilo	2	2	8	33	8
Tiaty	Tiaty	4	4	16	44	16
	East Tiaty	4	4	16	37	16
Total		22	22	88	205	88

Source: Baringo County Director of Education (2018)

3.6 Sampling Design

Sampling design indicates how samples were selected for the study (Ritter, 2010). There are two methods of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability

sampling techniques. Probability sampling also recognised as chance or random sampling means that every member of the population has a similar probability or known chance of being included in the sample (Kothari, 2004). Non probability sampling method refers to a technique where samples gathered in a procedure will not give all individuals in the population equal chance of being selected (Lohworn, 2007).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) postulate that, probability sampling is drawn randomly from a target population and is used when the investigator desires to produce conclusions, since it looks for representativeness of the target population. Both probability sampling and non-probability sampling were employed in this study. Probability sampling was chosen because it has less risk of bias and the methods of sampling have a measure of randomness integrated inside them. Therefore, they have a degree of generalizability. In addition, the use of two methods ensures that rich data can be obtained from different categories of respondents to help in answering research questions.

3.6.1 Selection of Principals

Considering the numbers of principals were 22, all of them were chosen to take part in the investigation. The reason for the inclusion of principals was that the study looked at how ethnic conflicts influenced management of secondary schools. School heads were, therefore, in a better position to provide the required information for the investigation. The approach used to choose principals was purposive sampling method. In purposive sampling the researcher handpicks the individuals to be integrated in the sample, based on the reasoning that they possess specific features and characteristics that are required for the study (Oso & Onen, 2009). Purposive sampling enables the researcher to build up a sample that is specific to their

requirements and in most cases it is used to access that subject that possesses rich information concerning specific issues, either through advantage of their expertise functions, experience or even professionalism (Kothari, 2004).

3.6.2 Sampling of BoM Members

In secondary schools, BoM executive members are five including the principal who is the secretary of the committee. Outside the principal, each school had four BoM executive members who were selected through random sampling method. This is a method of ensuring that all respondents have similar probability of being integrated in the study. The total number of executive BoM members was 88 and their identities (codes) were inscribed on a sheet and thoroughly mixed inside a trough. After mixing, the researcher began drawing each code until the required number (26 pieces) was attained.

3.6.3 Sampling of Student Leaders

The assumption made in this study is that each school had one student leader representing each class (from form 1 to form four) irrespective of the streams that a particular institution had. Considering the number was manageable and the student leaders' population was known census method was used to select them. This involved visiting a particular school and requesting the school principal to provide four student leaders (representatives of Form one to Form Four) who were issued with the questionnaire as respondents. This method involved use of purposive sampling method. In purposive sampling the researcher handpicks the students to be involved in the sample based on their judgment of their typicality or possession of particular features that are wanted.

3.6.4 Sampling of Teachers

A sample of teachers from the target population was selected to act as a representative of the whole population. The teachers were chosen using simple random sampling method. Simple random sampling consisted of choosing at random from a register of the population (known as sampling frame) the needed number of respondents. This is a method of ensuring that all respondents have equal opportunity of being included in the study (Cohen et al., 2011). The total number of teachers was 205 and their identities (codes) were inscribed in sheets of paper and thoroughly mixed inside a trough. After mixing, the researcher began drawing each code until the required number of teachers (136) was attained. The selection of teachers involved all 22 schools in the study area.

3.6.5 Sample Size

A sample is selected in study based on the population and the instrument to be used. Basing on the instrument to be used, all student leaders (88) and principals (22) were selected to participate in the study. For BoM members, it was important that 30.0% of the target population were selected for the study as recommended by Gall et al. (2007). For teachers, the study utilised the Cochran's (1977) formula to compute the sample size. The formula was chosen because it allows one to calculate a perfect sample size given a required level of precision, desired confidence level and the approximated fraction of the characteristic visible in the population.

The sample size formula was:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + (Ne^2)}$$

Where:

n =the desired sample size

N = target population

e = desired margin of error taken as 0.05

This can be computed as: $n = \frac{205}{1 + (205*0.05^2)} = 135.53$.

Therefore, a total of 136 teachers from the initial 205 were selected to form the sample for the study. The sampling frame for this study is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Sampling Frame for the Study

Sub County	Zone	Principal	Student Leaders	Executive BoM		Teachers	
		n	n	N	n	N	n
Baringo	Mukutani	2	8	8	2	19	12
South	Mochongoi	7	28	28	8	45	30
Baringo	Bartabwa	3	12	12	4	27	18
North	Sibilo	2	8	8	2	33	22
Tiaty	Tiaty	4	16	16	5	44	29
•	East Tiaty	4	16	16	5	37	25
Total		22	88	88	26	205	136

Key: N-Target, n-Sample size

Source: Author (2019)

3.7 Research Instruments

The following tools were used in the study to collect data from four categories of respondents;

- (i) Questionnaires
- (ii) Interview guides.

The description of each instrument is made in the following sub-sections.

3.7.1 Questionnaire for Student leaders

Questionnaires were developed and administered to student leaders in the study. The questions in the instrument had close-ended and open-ended questions that were designed based on the four objectives of the study. The close-ended questions were used because they were easy to administer and facilitated simple analysis as they were of immediate practicable structure. The unstructured questions were utilised to motivate the respondents to provide rich information without sensing as being held back in providing information. Likert-form questions were applied to solicit respondents' perceptions on how the frequency of ethnic conflicts influenced their education.

Section A consists of demographic information, Section B consists of questions on the ethnic conflict prevalence in the lower areas of Baringo and Section C involves questions on student leaders' views on how ethnic conflicts affect their schooling. Section D contains questions on the extent to which ethnic conflicts resulted in teacher management issues in schools, Section E contains questions on challenges that schools grappled with as a result of ethnic conflicts. Section F contains measures and strategies that school were undertaking to manage education despite prevalence of ethnic conflict. Questions on the prevalence of ethnic conflict were measured on the following Likert Scale: Very High, High, Average, Low and Very Low. Whereas Likert scale questions on effect of ethnic conflicts were measured on the Likert Scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, and Undecided, Agree and Strongly Agree. A sample of student leaders' questionnaire is provided in Appendix II.

3.7.2 Questionnaire for Teachers

The teachers' questionnaire had open and close ended questions. The questionnaire for teachers was designed based on objectives of the study. Section A consists of demographic questions, Section B consists of questions on prevalence of ethnic conflict in the lower areas of Baringo and Section C involves questions on teachers' views on how ethnic conflicts affected management of students. Section D contains question on the extent to which ethnic conflicts resulted in teacher management issues in schools, Section E contains questions on challenges that schools grapple with as a result of ethnic conflicts.

Section F contains measures and strategies that school are undertaking to manage education despite prevalence of ethnic conflict. Questions on the prevalence of ethnic conflict were measured on the following Likert Scale: Very High, High, Average, Low and Very Low. On effect of ethnic conflicts, questions were measured on the following Likert Scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, and Undecided, Agree and Strongly Agree. A sample of teachers' questionnaire is given in Appendix III.

3.7.3 Interview Guide for Principals

Interview guide was utilised to collect data from principals of secondary schools. Interview guide when used enables researcher to extract in-depth information from the principals because they are considered to be more knowledgeable about the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of their schools. Interview guide questions were framed according to research objectives. In addition, some demographic data on principals' period of stay in their current position, gender, and age bracket and education level were also sought. Appendix IV showed the interview guide for the principals.

3.7.4 Interview Guide for BoM Members

The study also utilised a structured interview scheduled for executive members (26) who were sampled in this investigation. This interview schedule was prepared with questions relating the specific objectives of the investigation. The distinct feature of the interview questions for the BoM was that it did not capture their demographic variables. The responses from the instrument were developed to extract feedback from the BoM members on the extent to which ethnic conflict had affected management of their schools. Appendix V shows the interview guide for BoM members.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

3.8.1 Validity of the Research Instruments

Validity refers to quality that a data collection tool utilised in research is right, meaningful, true, correct and accurate (Msabila & Nabila, 2013). Cohen et al. (2007:78) described validity as "...the correctness and significance of suggestions that were based on study outcomes." It is also the level at which outcomes attained from data analysis truly stands for the phenomenon being investigated (Kombo & Tromp, 2009). According to Kothari (2004) there are three categories of validity:

Content validity is a level through which a research tool gives sufficient coverage of the theme being investigated. Content validity is preferable when it consists of a representative proportion of the population. This was established by utilising a group of individuals who judged how well the research data collection tool meets the benchmarks. The validity of the instrument was ascertained by seeking expert help by way of advice, suggestion, clarification and other inputs from the university supervisors, classmates and an established statistician.

The second validity used in this study was the criterion validity. It refers to the capacity to forecast some outcome or approximate the existence of certain prevalent situation. It reflects the success of measure used for some empirical estimating purpose. The criterion validity should posses' characteristics such as relevance, freedom from unfairness, reliability and availability. The instrument should be relevant to the study, free from bias, reliable and available to the study area. Criterion validity encompasses both predictive and concurrent validity in which the former, is the helpfulness of an experiment in forecasting some forthcoming performance, while the later means the worth of an experiment in directly associating and relating to other methods of identified validity. It is denoted as the coefficient of correlation between test scores and specific measure of forthcoming performance.

The third validation method that was utilised in this study is the construct validity. It is the degree to which a test measures what it claims or purports to measure. Construct validity means the extent through which outcomes on an experiment could be explained for, by the explanatory construct of a sound theory. To establish construct validity, a set of other propositions related with the data is gotten from measurement data collection tool. It is then verified by comparing the test to other test that measure similar qualities to see how correlated the two measures are. The instrument for this study was pre-tested in the neighbouring County (West Pokot) involving 2 schools and 30 subjects in order to determine the clarity and suitability of the questionnaires. The results indicated a correlation in a predicted way between measurement on our devised scale and the other propositions, and the conclusion showed that there was construct validity. Those areas in the instrument that were found to be unclear were improved and the unsuitable areas were discarded.

The Content Validity Index (CVI) was used to examine content validity of the research instruments. Expert panel was purposefully selected, using the research supervisors (2) and one lecturer from the Department of Educational Management at University of Eldoret (UOE). The essential criterion for selection was for a high level of expertise with self-management support. The researcher requested the experts to assess the content validity and the number of questions that were valid in the four instruments used. For instance, questionnaire for students had 11 questions, teachers questionnaires had 13 questions, BOM interview schedule had 8 questions while interview schedule for principals had 8 questions totalling to 40 questions. The content validity index (CVI) was calculated using the formulae below:

$$CVI = \frac{Total\ number\ of\ valid\ questions}{Total\ number\ of\ questions\ in\ the\ questionnaire}$$

Table 3.3 shows the results of the content validation computation procedure.

Table 3.3 Experts Content Validation Index for Research Instruments

Instrument	Total No. of	Exp	Exp	Exp	CVI		Decision
	questions	1	2	3			
Student Leaders	11	9	10	9	28	0.8485	Valid
Questionnaire							
Teachers	13	11	10	11	32	0.8205	Valid
Questionnaire							
Interview for	8	8	7	8	23	0.9583	
Principals							
Interviews for BOM	8	8	6	7	21	0.8750	
Total	40	35	37	36	36.0	0.8667	Valid

Key: *Exp-Expert* (there were a total of three experts).

Table 3.3 result shows that the average CVI was 0.8667 for the items measured in the four research instruments. Based on the statistics obtained, the research instruments were deemed valid due to the fact that Polit and Beck (2014) suggested that CVI should be 0.80 or higher.

3.8.2 Reliability of Research Instruments

Reliability is a measure of consistency of the results from a test for instance, if one gives a research instrument to a respondent twice; one expects to get same scores. It is the consistency of outcomes that a data collection tool would provide when performed repeatedly in a study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). An instrument is said to be reliable if it accurately reflects the true scores of the attribute under investigation. According to Kothari (2004), there are two forms of reliability which are worth mentioning. First, the stability feature, that is mainly associated with providing dependable outcomes with repetitive tests of the same individual utilising a similar data collection tool. To establish stability feature, one set of questions divided in to 2 equivalent sets (forms), are used. Both sets of questions contain questions that measure the same construct, knowledge and skill. The two sets of questions are administered to the same sample at different times and reliability is calculated.

Secondly, the correspondence feature which usually looks at how much error would get initiated through various investigators or distinct samples of items being investigated. To measure similarity by two researchers, one balances their observations of the same trials. Therefore, during piloting stage comparison of data from the measurement instrument was done to ascertain their similarities or differences. Reliability of the instruments was then improved by standardising the situation through which experiments took place for instance through minimising the external sources of disparities like fatigue. Doing this improved stability aspect. Equivalence aspect was improved by cautiously planning ways for measurement with no disparities from group to group, by utilising well taught instruments and encouraging individuals to perform the investigation. The sample of items was also increased.

To determine reliability of the instruments in this study, test re-test approach was used. The same questionnaire was administered to ten respondents on two independent occasions within a two-week period under similar conditions. A reliability analysis was performed to measure whether each question indicated in the questionnaires produced the wanted and reliable outcomes. The reliability analysis was performed using Pearson r correlation coefficient that tests the correlation and the relationship between two variables (Ritter, 2010). The worth of the correlation coefficient suggests which degree the change established in single variable relates to transformation in another.

Pearson correlation can be explained in three ways. The first one where the lowest value that Pearson r can have is r=0.00 to mean zero correlation, that is, the variables were not related. Secondly, the highest value r=1.00. This indicates a perfect correlation which means that the variables were completely related in the sample. The last one is where the r values are either positive or negative. For positive values one variable increases while the other increases and vice versa for the negative. Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated using the formula

$$R = N(\sum XY) - (\sum X)(\sum Y) \div \sqrt{[N(\sum X^2) - (\sum X)^2 N(\sum Y^2) - \sum Y)^2}]$$

Note: X and Y are variables

If the Pearson r correlation coefficient has a value above 0.7 then it is accepted because it showed a positive correlation between the variables and is tending near the maximum value 1.0. To establish the statistical significance of calculation, the "critical values" of Pearson r correlation coefficient was used.

Table 3.4: Critical Values for Alpha Values

Items	Alpha values
Items for objective 1	0.9870
Items for objective 2	0.9000
Items for objective 3	0.8054
Items for objective 4	0.7293

Source: Author (2019)

The results from the pilot study indicated the calculated scores were higher compared to critical values from the table, the findings had statistical relevance, and therefore the instruments were assumed to be reliable.

3.9 Data Collection Procedures

After determining research instruments were valid and reliable, permission was sought from Graduate School of the University of Eldoret and a research permit from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Thereafter the study sought approval from the County Commissioner and County Director of Education, Baringo County. Data collection was undertaken after getting permission from principals of the sampled public secondary schools in Baringo County two, weeks prior to administration of research instruments.

After obtaining permission from the 22 principals, all respondents were asked to read the introductory letter and to give their consent on whether to participate in the research or not. Issues that could arise from the respondent perspective were addressed adequately before they started answering the research questions. The period of collecting data stretched to three months.

3.9.1 Administration of Questionnaire to Student Leaders

The questionnaires were administered to the student leaders from the selected public secondary schools in the area covered by the study. From each school, a total of 4 student leaders (representing Form 1 to 4) were chosen and included in the investigation. The researcher requested the sampled leaders to complete the instrument during break time and games time. Questionnaire for student leaders was returned the same day since not so many students were involved. They filled in the questionnaire and returned without indicating their names or their school. A total of 88 questionnaires were distributed to them.

3.9.2 Administration of Questionnaire to Teachers

The questionnaires were also administered to teachers. They were distributed to all sampled teachers in the six zones. Teachers were instructed vividly on what to do. They were assured of their confidentiality and asked not to write their names or that of their schools in the instrument. The completed questionnaires were gathered instantly. Where it was not possible, arrangement was made when to collect them on a later day. In those instances where teachers could not fill the questionnaire, they were given 3 days to fill in after which the researcher came back to collect them. Generally, most teachers returned their questionnaires on the same day

3.9.3 Interview with Principals

Interviews were conducted with selected principals of secondary schools which were sampled in the study. Interview sessions were arranged a week in advance with principals to set an appropriate date to conduct interviews in their offices. However, some of the principals delegated the schedule either to their deputies or senior teachers which was acceptable. This is because of the key management positions they

hold in their schools. Before the interviews were conducted the objective of the research was reiterated to the principals. The interview sessions lasted for approximately 35-40 minutes. The responses from interviews were recorded through note taking and audio devices.

3.9.4 Interview with BoM Members

Interviews were also organised with members of BoM from the sampled schools. The main purpose of this interview was to get detailed information on the effect of ethnic conflict on student and teacher management. In addition, the researcher desired to know the challenges they were facing in spite of the insecurity and intervention measures they had put in place to ensure continued learning. The interviews were arranged two weeks in advance through the help of the principals. The interviews were conducted either in the principal's office or school board room if it was available. The interviews were held face to face and involved recording of feedback in worksheet provided. On average, the interview period with BoM members lasted for thirty minutes.

3.10 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis procedures are those processes that were used to compile information generated from data collection process. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques. According to Cohen et al. (2007) quantitative data analysis is the numerical analysis performed using software such as the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics was used to analyse data through the use of mean, a measure of central tendency. Inferential statistics was utilised to make inferences about the wider population by use of Karl Pearson correlation statistics. The correlation statistics was applied to test the two research

hypothesis from the students' leader and teachers' perspective at 0.05 and 0.01 confidence levels.

Qualitative data were gathered data in a non-numeric construct. Such data involved people and their activities as in this study. The most common forms of qualitative data are what people have said (Cohen et al., 2007). Qualitative data can be analysed either manually or by use of computer-based methods. Qualitative data in this study used computer-based methods to analyse collected data because they are excellent at manipulating text as long as one uses the right software. Findings in this study were presented using frequency tables, graphical illustration and narrations. Table 3.5 showed the data analysis matrix.

Table 3.5: Data Analysis Matrix

Objective	Predictors	Indicators	Measurement	Data source	Tool of
			scale		analysis
Effect of	Displacement	Completion	Ordinal	Questionnaires	Frequencies
ethnic	Physical	of school	Scale	Interview	Percent
conflicts on	attack	Class	Qualitative	schedules	Means
management	Fear	attendance			SD
of students	Facilities	Transition			Correlations
	destruction				
Effect of	Displacement	Retention	Ordinal	Questionnaires	Frequencies
ethnic	Physical	(ratio)	Scale	Interviews	Percent
conflicts on	attack	Syllabus	Qualitative	schedule	Means
the	Fear	coverage			SD
management	Facilities	Attendance			Correlations
of teachers	destruction				
Challenges	Teacher	Retention	Ordinal	Questionnaires	Frequencies
that are faced	transfers	of teachers	Scale	Interviews	Percentages
by secondary	Lack of	& learners	Qualitative	schedule	
school	support	Teaching			
administrators	Inadequate	& learning			
	capacity	activities			
Intervention	Boarding	Retention	Ordinal	Questionnaires	Frequencies
mechanisms	sections	of	Scale	Interviews	Percentages
to conflicts	Peace	teachers&	Qualitative	schedule	
Employed by	education	learners			
the school	Guidance &	Teaching			
management	counselling	& learning			
		activities			

Source: Author (2019)

3.11 Ethical Issues in Data Collection

In a research process the researcher must focus on the application of ethical standards in the planning, collection, and analysis of data, dissemination and use of the results. In planning the researcher must justify the research through an analysis of the balance of the costs, that is, benefits must outweigh the costs. In this study on ethnic conflicts and its effects on secondary school management in Baringo County, ethical consideration was observed. A letter of introduction was obtained from the Department of Educational Management and Policy Studies, under the School of Education of the University of Eldoret.

A research permit was sought from the National Council for Science and Technology (NACOSTI). In data collection, analysis and dissemination of the results, confidentiality was maintained at all times (Creswell, 2007). Informed consent was obtained from the respondents prior to data collection. Permission was sought from both the County government and local administration (County Commissioner) before collection of data commenced in the sub counties where the schools are located.

Permission was also obtained from the County Director of Education (CDE) to allow official data from schools to be availed for the study and for the use of official documents from schools for the purposes of analysis. Letters of introduction to the schools were sent prior to the visits. Confidentiality was observed on all documents and their proper state maintained. The study practised openness and honest to the respondents and fully explained to them the research in advance. Debriefing was done to the respondents about the results afterwards. The study installed measures to curb plagiarism through acknowledging all sources cited and reducing the similarity check percentage to below 20.0%.

3.12 Chapter Summary

The chapter has looked at the research design and methodological procedures that were followed. This study was a mixed method one that targeted principals, executive members of BOM, teachers and student leaders. A sample of the targeted population was obtained through various sampling methods. These respondents were issued with questionnaires, interview guide and document checklists. The instruments were subjected to validity and reliability tests before they were administered to the field. The procedures guiding collection data was followed through observing all ethical guidelines. The data collection process was done and the responses were analysed using various statistical and qualitative methodologies. The results of data analysis are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

The chapter present results of data analysis process. Interpretation and discussions are done after every figure or table. The statistics contains the descriptive and inferential results. Data was collected from teachers and student leaders using two sets of questionnaires while interview guide data was collected from the principals and the BoM through the interview schedules. The study was done in conflict-prone lowland areas of Baringo County and sought to investigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools. The presentation, interpretation of study results follows the research objectives that were to determine ethnic conflicts and its effect on student and teacher management in public in secondary. In addition, the study sought to establish the challenges administrators in the area go through and the intervention mechanisms employed by the school management in addressing these challenges brought by ethnic conflicts in the lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya.

4.1.1 Instruments Return Rate

A total number of 136 questionnaires were issued to teachers, 88 questionnaires for student leaders, interviews were conducted with 18 principals and 20 BoM members from the schools that were targeted in the study. Table 4.1 illustrates the response rate for the study.

Table 4.1: Instruments Return Rate

	Instrument	Sampled	Responded	Percentage
1	Student leaders questionnaire	88	88	100.0
2	Teachers questionnaire	136	109	80.14
3	Principals interview	22	18	81.81
4	BoM interview	26	20	76.92
	Total	272	235	84.71

Source: Author (2019)

The data from the field (Table 4.1) showed that 88(100.0%) response rate was achieved from the student leaders' questionnaire, 20(81.8%) for principals' interview, 109(80.1%) from teacher questionnaire and lastly 20 (76.9%) from executive BoM members' interview. The average rate of responses stood at (84.71%) which is more than (75.0%) acceptable in mixed methods research as recommended by Achilleas (2014).

4.1.2 Background Information of the Respondents

Information was sought from the student leaders, teachers, BoM members and principals with regard to their age bracket, gender type, highest level of education and experience in their current tasks. The demographic information of student leaders who participated in the investigation are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Demographic Information of Student Leaders

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	50	56.8
	Female	38	43.2
	Total	88	100.0
Age bracket	Below 15 yrs	4	4.5
	15 to 16yrs	20	22.7
	16 to 18yrs	60	68.2
	19yrs and above	4	4.5
Form (Class)	Total	88	100.0
	F1	7	8.0
	F2	16	18.2
	F3	50	56.8
	F4	15	17.0
	Total	88	100.0

Source: Author (2019)

Results from Table 4.2 indicates that more 50 (56.8%) of the student leaders were male whereas 38 (43.2%) were female. This showed that distribution of student leadership position in schools in the study area was almost equal. The results from the study were similar to Lolchuraki (2013) study in Samburu County that found that,

male students in secondary schools, were more compared to their female counterparts, due to early child marriages and insecurity which makes majority of girls not to attend school.

With regard to student leaders' age category, 60(68.2%) of them were aged 16 - 18 years. The data showed that majority of student leaders had age ranges from 16 – 18 years in the secondary schools in the study area. Their age was the right one for attending secondary school being above 16 years. This age also made the student leaders mature enough to appreciate the effect of conflict and provide relevant views on the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of their schools. In line with this outcome, Nkuene (2015) found out that students who were above 16 years were at the right age in their education.

Findings on the distribution of student leaders based on their class show that 50 (56.8%) were in Form 3, 16 (18.2%) were in Form 2, 15 (17.0%) were in form 4 while seven (8.0%) were in Form one. The study noted from the data that majority of schools in the study area (Table 4.2)chose leaders who were in Form three as opposed to Form four because this form were not engaged in academic commitments (KCSE) examinations unlike their counterparts in form four. Moreover, Form Ones were not given leadership responsibilities because of their short stay in the schools. Nevertheless, the distribution of respondents pertaining to their class category helped the study to get diverse opinions with regard to how ethnic conflicts have influenced management of schools in Baringo County.

The demographic data of teachers' is provided in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Demographic Data of Distribution for Teachers

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	77	70.0
	Female	33	30.0
	Total	110	100.0
Age bracket	18 to 30 years	77	70.0
	31 to 40 years	32	29.1
	Above 41 years	1	0.9
	Total	110	100.0
Level of	Diploma	19	17.3
education	Degree	89	80.9
	Masters	2	1.8
	Total	110	100.0
Teaching	below 1 year	16	14.5
experience	1 to 5 years	77	70.0
-	6 – 10 years	14	12.7
	11 years and above	3	2.7
	Total	110	100.0

Source: Author (2019)

The data shown in Table 4.3 revealed that majority 77 (70.0%) of teachers were male while 33 (30.0%) of the teachers were female. The data from the results suggests there was unequal distribution of teachers by gender in the study. Nkuene (2015) study indicated a similar finding with 68.0% of teachers in schools being male. The same similarity was also found by Katam (2004) in Marakwet where only 16.7% of teachers in schools were female. Due to the social requirement of raising families, female teachers preferred schools that were considered safer for their own children's sake.

The data on age bracket showed that 77 (70.0%) of teachers were aged 18 - 30 years, 32 (29.15) were aged 31 - 40 years, and only one (0.9%) were aged 41 years and above. From the data in Table 4.3, most teachers teaching in the sampled schools of Lower Baringo were young. This study agreed with Dunlop (2015) research in Burundi which indicated that teachers in conflict regions were mostly young and

middle aged. This could be due to the fact that majority have not started families because they are fresh from college. Another reason could be that they have recently been recruited by the employer to bridge the human resource gap that faces majority of schools in this area of Baringo County.

As seen in Table 4.3, most teachers 89 (80.9%) possessed undergraduate degree level of education. This suggested that most (all) teachers who participated in this study had the minimum required qualifications to teach in secondary schools in Kenya. The study's results were different from Adan and Orodho (2016) research findings that indicated that most teachers in schools in Mandera County had not attained the minimum qualifications to teach in secondary schools. However, it was clear from Adan and Orodho study that most teachers were employed by the BoM to bridge the gap after the TSC teachers ran away due to frequent Al-shabaab attacks and of interclan conflict.

It was also discovered that 77(70.0%) of the teachers had worked as teachers in the area of study for a period ranging from one to five years. The study results were different from Katam (2004) study in Marakwet that revealed that the mean for teachers working experience in the area was seven years. Teachers' length of stay in their current school is significant to understand how ethnic conflicts have affected management of schools.

The study also collected data on distribution of principals with respect to their various demographic characteristics. The information is depicted in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Principal's Demographic Data

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	15	16.7
	Female	3	83.3
	Total	18	100.0
Education Level	Degree	13	72.2
	Postgraduate Diploma	2	11.1
	Masters	3	16.7
	Total	18	100.0
Age	31-35yrs	1	5.6
	36-40yrs	5	27.8
	41-45yrs	8	44.4
	46yrs and above	4	22.2
	Total	18	100.0
Work experience	Less than 1 year	2	11.1
_	1-5 years	4	22.2
	6 - 10 years	9	50.0
	11 years and above	3	16.7
	Total	18	100.0

Source: Author (2019)

The data in Table 4.4 reveal that in terms of gender distribution, majority 15 (83.3%) of school heads in the study area were male as opposed to 3 (16.7%) who were female. This coincides with Lolchuraki (2013) research that found the proportion of school heads was dominated by male gender in Samburu County. The unequal distribution of gender in the leadership position could be due to unwillingness of female teachers to apply for the said positions in the schools due to insecurity. In addition, the number of female teachers applying for the senior positions in secondary schools could be inadequate. With regard to their age bracket, results showed that eight (44.4%) were aged 41 – 45 years, five (27.85) were aged 36 – 40 years, 4 (22.2%) were aged 46 years and above while one (5.6%) were aged 31 – 35 years. This indicated that most (72.2%) of principals in lowland areas of Baringo were middle aged (36 – 45 years) as opposed to being 35 years and below or over 46 years. The study coincides with Nkuene (2015) research in Tigania that found that school principals were aged between 35 – 40 years.

The outcome on educational qualifications bracket showed that 13 (72.2%) had undergraduate level of education. Based on their education level and training, the principals were expected to provide the management strategies that they apply in addressing the impact of ethnic conflicts on education management process in their schools. When asked to indicate their work experience in management positions, nine (50.0%) of school principals indicated that they had been in the position between 6-10 years, four (22.25) had been in the position for one – five years, three (16.7%) had been leading the school for 11 years and above and two (11.1%) had been in the position for less than one year. This showed that most principals had stayed for more than five years in the management positions in their school and, therefore, could offer reliable information on how ethnic conflicts had affected management of schools. In addition, their work experience provided the study adequate information on the challenges that they experienced in their schools and the strategies employed in order to answer the research questions.

4.2 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Student Management in Secondary Schools

The first objective of this study was to determine the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of students in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County.

The study collected information from BoM members, principals, teachers and student leaders.

4.2.1 Student Response on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts

At first, the students were asked to rate the prevalence of conflict in their regions as either high, average, low or not at all. Their responses are given in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts from Students Perspective

		Н	igh	Av	erage	L	ow	Not	at all
	Prevalence rate of conflict	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Ι	Incidents of Kidnapping	15	17.0	19	21.6	21	23.9	33	37.5
Ii	Physical attack of people	38	43.2	25	28.4	15	17.0	10	11.4
	including students leading to								
	injuries								
Iii	Livestock theft	58	65.9	18	20.5	10	11.4	2	2.3
Iv	Armed robbery	16	18.2	30	34.1	17	19.3	25	28.4
V	Death as a result of ethnic	11	12.5	18	20.5	29	33.0	30	34.1
	conflict								
Vi	Fear and hostility	52	59.1	31	35.2	1	1.1	4	4.5
vii	Displacement of families	54	61.4	16	18.2	13	14.8	5	5.7
vii	Guns and gun shots within	40	45.5	31	35.2	13	14.8	4	4.5
	school and home surroundings								
Ix	Sexual violence	13	14.8	16	18.2	26	29.5	33	37.5
	Total	33	37.5	23	25.8	16	18.3	16	18.4

Source: Author (2019)

The results on Table 4.5 showed that 33 (37.5%) of student leaders indicated that incidents of kidnapping were not prevalent in their areas with only 15 (17.0%) appearing to show that the level of kidnappings was high. The result, therefore, indicated that kidnapping incidents associated with ethnic conflicts were not common in the study area. Secondly, 38 (43.2%) of students said that physical attack of students as a form of ethnic conflict was high, 25 (28.4%) said that it was moderate, 15 (17.0%) said that it was low and 10 (11.4%) said that it was not existing. The result, therefore, showed that the manifestation of ethnic conflicts in the lower regions of Baringo is associated with people, (including) students being injured.

From the results, majority 58 (65.9%) of student leaders agreed that ethnic conflict in their areas involved livestock theft at a higher level, 18 (20.5%) said that livestock theft (cattle rustling) was on average, 10 (11.4%) said that it was low and only two (2.3%) said they have never seen or experienced cattle rustling. This result showed that livestock rustling (cattle, goats, sheep and goats) are the common triggers of inter-ethnic conflict situation being experienced in the study area. This coincides with

Katam (2004) who found out that conflict in Marakwet was a result of theft of livestock by their neighbours, the Pokot.

On the frequency of occurrence of armed robbery as a result of inter-ethnic conflict, 16 (18.2%) said it was high, 30 (34.1%) said that it was moderate, 17 (19.3%) said that it was low and 25 (28.4%) said they have never experienced armed robbery. The result therefore showed that incidents of armed robbery are at an average level in the study area. With regard to incidents of death as a result of inter-ethnic conflict, 11 (12.5%) reported it to be high, 18 (20.5%) said it was at average level, 29 (33.0%) reported it to be low and 30 (34.1%) said that students' death had never occurred in their areas as a result of ethnic conflict. It can be deduced according to the results that incidents of death of students were not as high in the study area as a result of interethnic conflict. This result is different from Kibris (2015) research that showed that a number of students had died as a result of civil conflict in Kurdish region of Turkey. Hence, students' loss of life in the area of study occurred but not prevalent. In Turkey, loss of life was experienced in areas with ethnic conflicts.

The study outcome on fear and hostility due to ethnic conflicts indicated that most 52 (59.1%) of student leaders reported it to be high that in their areas, 31 (35.2%) said that it was on moderate level, one (1.1%) said it was very low and four (4.5%) said they have never experienced fear and hostility. The study showed that inter-ethnic conflict results in hostility among the people living in the study area. This experience of fear and hostility made students not to concentrate in class. The study results also showed that most 54 (61.4%) of student leaders indicated that displacement was high as a result of ethnic conflict, 16 (18.2%) said that it was on average, 13 (14.85) said it was low whereas five (5.75) were not aware of displacement of people as a result of

ethnic conflict. Therefore, there was evidence from the study that families were forced to move from their homesteads to seek shelter elsewhere due to ethnic conflicts. The movement of families affected students' attendance to school. This situation was most prevalent in Baringo South Sub County.

The other outcomes from the study also showed that close to half 40 (45.5%) of students said that they usually hear gunshots renting the air from their homes and schools, 31 (35.2%) said that the frequency of gunshots is at moderate level, 13 (14.8%) said that it was at low level and four (4.5%) have never heard gun shots or seen guns with the civilian. The data, therefore, showed that incidents of gunshots were common in the area. Findings from this study on the management of secondary schools in the face conflicts, were in agreement with the study findings by Shany (2016), research in Israel which found that gun and mortar sounds were common in Jerusalem schools bordering the West Bank.

Lastly, the study results indicated that 33 (37.5%) of student leaders denied experiencing or hearing about sexual violence (rape and sodomy) during the interethnic conflicts, 26 (29.5%) said that the incidents were lower, 16 (18.25) said the incidents were on average and 13 (14.85) said that the incidents were higher. This showed that sexual violence cases associated with ethnic conflicts are few in the study area as reported by student leaders. In general, the student's responses showed that ethnic conflicts are common in lower areas of Baringo and appear to cause life loss, injury, displacement and also fear among students and residents of the said areas.

4.2.2 Responses from Teachers on the Level of Ethnic Conflict

The teachers were requested to denote the prevalence of ethnic conflicts in Baringo County through statements that were measured on a Likert scale of five; Very High, High, Average, Low and Never. The research results are given in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Responses from Teachers on the Level of Ethnic Conflict

	_	Very	High	H	ligh	Av	erage	I	ow	N	ever
		f	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%
I	Incidents of	21	19.1	20	18.2	23	20.9	16	14.5	30	27.3
	Kidnapping										
Ii	Physical attack of	47	42.7	25	22.7	15	13.6	13	11.8	10	9.1
	people including										
	students leading										
	to injuries										
iii	Livestock theft	70	63.6	24	21.8	8	7.3	6	5.5	2	1.8
Iv	Armed robbery	29	26.4	30	27.3	17	15.5	19	17.3	15	13.6
V	Death as a result	29	26.4	18	16.4	13	11.8	30	27.3	20	18.2
	of ethnic conflict										
vi	Fear and hostility	63	57.3	31	28.2	1	0.9	11	10.0	4	3.6
V	Displacement of	58	52.7	16	14.5	13	11.8	18	16.4	5	4.5
ii	families										
V	Guns and gun	53	48.2	31	28.2	13	11.8	9	8.2	4	3.6
ii	shots within										
	school and home										
	surroundings										
Ix	Sexual violence	19	17.3	30	27.3	26	23.6	19	17.3	16	14.5
	Total	43	39.3	25	22.7	14	13.0	16	14.2	12	10.71

Source: Author (2019)

Results in Table 4.6 show that 30 (27.3%) of teachers said that they have never heard of kidnapping incidents in their surroundings, 16 (14.5%) said that it was very low, 23 (20.9%) mentioned it to be on average, 20 (18.2%) said that it was high and 21 (19.1%) said that it was very high. The study findings, therefore, showed teachers were undecided, on the occurrence of incidents of kidnapping of people. This showed that kidnapping incidents were not common in the study area despite prevalence of ethnic conflicts. The study agrees with Buvinic et. al (2014), research from several countries which showed that the prevalence of kidnappings during armed conflict had significantly declined in recent times.

Secondly, teachers who agreed to a higher extent that ethnic conflicts was prevalent, and was manifested through physical attack on people including students leading to injuries were 47 (42.7%). 25 (22.7%) of teachers said ethnic conflicts was was high, 15 (13.6%) gave an average score, 13 (11.8%) rate conflict to be very low while 10 (9.1%) said conflicts had never been experienced in the area. From this finding, 65.4% of teachers were in agreement to the fact that inter-ethnic conflicts occurred through physical attacks that resulted to injuries and sometimes total incapacitation to the victims. This finding was similar to a research in Nigeria by Jones and Naylor (2014) which indicted that students and teachers were targets of attacks in schools and even in their homes.

Majority 70 (63.6%) of teachers in this study also agreed that to a higher level, ethnic conflict that took place led to a high number of livestock being stolen, 24 (21.8%) indicated that the incidents of livestock theft was high, eight (7.3%) said it was at moderate level, six (5.5%) said it was at low level and two (1.8%) said that it had never happened. From the findings the teachers reported cattle rustling incidents to be very high in the lower areas of Baringo at (85.4%). Mostly, the animals were lost as a result of the raids perpetrated by the communities that shared boundaries.

Teachers were asked to indicate whether deaths had occurred as a result of ethnic conflicts. Those who rated it to be very were 29 (26.4%), 18 (16.4%) said that it was high. Teachers who gave an average score were 13 (11.8%) while those who rated deaths due to ethnic conflicts to be low were 30 (27.3%) and 20 (18.2%) of them said conflicts had never resulted in death. The result showed that the teachers who agreed that death had arisen as a result of ethnic conflict, were 42.8%, while 45.2% disagreed with it. From this finding, it was clear that conflicts had resulted to people losing their

lives in Baringo County. Justino et al. (2014) study in Timor East, Indonesia, also found out that school going children, majority of them being boys died as a result of armed conflict during Indonesia occupation.

Fear and hostility associated with ethnic conflict in the area was rated to be very high by teachers at 63 (57.1%), 31 (28.2%) rated them as high. One teacher (0.9%) rated conflicts to be moderate, while 11 (10.0%) and four (3.6%) said it was very low and/or had never experienced fear or hostility respectively. These results indicated that 85.3% of teachers feared for their lives because the communities in the study area were hostile. This finding coincides with Shany (2016) study which established that, as a result terrorist attacks there was a high level of psychological trauma in schools.

Teachers, 58 (52.7%) rated displacement of households to be very high, 16 (14.5%) of them rated displacement to be high, 13 (11.8%) teachers said it was moderate, 18 (16.4%) said it was very low whereas five (4.5%) were in disagreement that ethnic conflicts caused displacement of families. From this data, it was evident that teachers had witnessed displacement of families due to ethnic conflicts in the area with a total rating of 67.2%. This displacement of households affected students' ability to attend school leading to a high incidences of school drop outs.

Data also revealed that almost a half of teachers 53 (48.2%) indicated that, gun shots were heard within their vicinities, 31 (28.2%) said it was high, 13 (11.8%) said it was average, nine (8.2%) indicated it to be at lower level while 4 (3.6%) did not experience or hear any within their locations. This showed that 76.4% of teachers have heard gunshots in their vicinities on regular basis. This could affect learning in that teachers are forced to live in areas that are perceived to be safe from frequent attacks which are far from the schools they teach. Lastly, research findings showed

that 30 (27.3%) of teachers agreed that sexual violence was high due to ethnic conflicts, 19 (17.3%) said it was very high, 26 (23.6%) of teachers rated sexual violence moderately, 19 (17.3%) rated it at a lower level and 16 (14.5%) indicated they have never heard of sexual violence incidents. The result showed that 44.6% of teachers have heard about sexual violence incidents which are associated with ethnic conflicts in lower Baringo. In conclusion to the teachers' responses, it can be seen that 62.0% of teachers indicated the prevalence of ethnic conflicts to be high, 13.0% said it was average and 24.9% said that it was very low. The finding therefore showed that ethnic conflicts are a common problem facing the lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya.

4.2.3 Principals Responses on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts

The principals were also asked to indicate their responses on the manifestation and prevalence of ethnic conflicts in their areas through interview guides. The principals were asked to indicate how ethnic conflicts occurred in their areas. Result from 18 principals showed that, eight said the prevalence was high, seven said that the ethnic conflict prevalence was at moderate level while three said that it was low. Principals No. 6 who indicated that ethnic conflict happened regularly stated that they:

...occur during times of drought resulting in loss (death) of parents of students and displacement of families to internally displaced camps.

This showed that ethnic conflicts tended to happen during the dry season when food for livestock (grass) was inadequate forcing the pastoral communities to move and search for water and grass for their livestock hence leading to conflict situations.

Another principal (No. 11) said that ethnic conflict occurred on rare occasions:

....at least once every year, families are usually forced to migrate to other safer areas during conflicts and move with their school going children.

This showed that ethnic conflicts were associated with mass displacement of families to areas that are safer. This meant that even children going to school were to move from their homes to other areas, affecting their education progress which sometimes is discontinued altogether. Another principal (No. 2) who said the prevalence of conflict was moderate remarked that:

"Conflicts happen severally leading to loss of lives and livestock theft."

Ethnic conflict was manifested through cattle raiding in the study area and those who were mostly affected or killed during the raids, were herders and those who attempted to go after their stolen animals.

4.2.4 BoM Members' Responses on the Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts

The study sought information from executive members of board of management from several schools with regard to the rate of ethnic conflicts in their areas. They were asked to indicate the frequency at which ethnic conflicts occurred in their areas. From their responses, ten said that the ethnic conflicts occurred frequently; seven said that it occurred moderately while three said that intensity of conflict was low. A board member who said that the prevalence of conflict was high (No. 7) indicated that:

...frequently, parents are displaced hence loss of income since animals are stolen and houses burnt."

This meant that ethnic conflicts resulted in destruction of houses and stealing of livestock which is the main source of income for majority of households in the study area. This left people with no choice but to leave their homes and land and migrate to safer regions. Nevertheless, from those who said that the conflict was low, BoM member (No. 20) remarked that:

....not frequently and when it happens, students develop fear and hostility.

This showed that not all areas experienced ethnic conflicts and in such rare incidents, students developed fear because they were uncertain of what would follow. For those who said that the intensity of conflict was at moderate level, BoM member (No. 10) indicated that:

...ethnic conflict occurred mostly during school holidays because of cattle rustling that lead to loss of livestock.

This indicated that students were recruited during school holidays to participate in the raids, which sometimes led to flaring up of ethnic conflicts in the area. When the community use students as raiders to spark conflict, their upbringing is affected since they grow up knowing that raiding of other communities for livestock is the way of life. In addition, cultural socialisation of using cattle as bride price fuelled cattle rustling.

4.2.5 Students Responses on the Effect of Conflict on their Education

The study further wanted to know the perceptions that students had towards the prevalence of conflict and their education processes. The students were therefore asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed on the effect of conflicts on their educational development on the following scale: Strongly Agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided - N, Disagree-D, Strongly Disagree-SD. The research outcomes are summarised in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Students Responses on the Effect of Conflict on their Education

-	Statement	SA		A		N		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%
i	Ethnic conflict had resulted in increased students' absence from school	43	48.9	31	35.2	4	4.5	5	5.7	5	5.7
ii	Student academic performance is affected as a result of occurrence of ethnic conflicts	56	63.6	17	19.3	5	5.7	7	8.0	3	3.4
iii	Some students drop out of school during and after ethnic conflicts	37	42.0	20	22.7	12	13.6	9	10.2	10	11.4
iv	Students repeat class as a result of conflict situation	15	17.0	16	18.2	18	20.5	13	14.8	26	29.5
V	Students sometimes miss to sit for exams because of conflict situation	38	43.2	14	15.9	21	23.9	5	5.7	10	11.4
	Average	38	42.9	20	22.3	12	13.6	8	8.9	11	12.3

Key: f-frequency, %- per cent

Source: Author (2019)

As shown in Table 4.7, close to half 43(48.9%) of the student leaders strongly agreed that ethnic conflicts prevalence increases students' absenteeism, 31 (35.2%) agreed, 4 (4.5%) were undecided, 5 (5.7%) disagreed and 5 (5.7%) strongly disagreed with the statement. The result therefore, indicated that (84.1%) of student leaders agreed that, occurrence of ethnic conflicts, made most of the students to miss school on daily basis. This mostly happens to those attending day schools where some students are attacked along the way and therefore, causing their parents to advise them not to attend school. This observation was supported by Human Rights Report (2012) that showed that in areas that experienced violence, learners were not able to attend school on daily basis. The same observation was made by UN Report (2013) on the situation of education in war torn regions where students' absenteeism cases were high.

Secondly, research result showed that 56 (63.6%) of student leaders strongly agreed that their academic performance is affected as a result of occurrence of ethnic

conflicts. The result, therefore, showed that 82.9% of students agreed that their academic performance is affected when ethnic conflicts happen. The finding in this study in Baringo County coincides with Obiechina, Abraham & Nwogu (2018) study in Anambra state in Nigeria that found that, academic performance of students was negatively affected as a result of insecurity. Even in Kenya, Lolchuraki (2013) established that students' performance in areas with high incidents of cattle rustling was poor.

Thirdly, the study outcomes showed that 37 (20.0%) of students strongly agreed that some students dropped out of school during and after ethnic conflicts, 20 (22.7%) agreed, 12 (13.6%) were unsure, nine (10.2%) disagreed and 10 (11.4%) strongly disagreed. The results reveal that 64.7% of student leaders agreed that some of their colleagues dropped out of school due to ethnic conflict situations. This situation was observed by Justino (2016) work that showed that students tend to drop out of school in big numbers as a result of conflict situation. This made majority of the conflict regions to have high illiteracy levels.

Fourthly, 26 (29.5%) strongly disagreed with the statement that students repeat classes, 13 (14.8%) disagreed, 18 (20.5%) were undecided, 16 (18.2%) agreed and 15 (17.0%) disagreed. The data show that 44.3% of student leaders disagreed that some of their colleagues repeat classes whereas only 35.2% agreed with the statements. This showed that the rate of students repeating classes due to conflict is not as high. However, a significant number of them tend to drop out of school. The findings are different from Smith (2010) observation that patterns of repetition are common in areas with conflict incidents. In addition, Amalu and Abuo's (2019) study showed that some students were forced to repeat classes since they were not able to complete their previous year as a result of insecurity. The divided opinion that student leaders

showed could be due to the government policy of not permitting mandatory repetition in Kenyan schools.

Lastly, there is an indication from the results that 38 (43.2%) of student leaders strongly agreed that they do miss to sit for exams due to the prevalence of ethnic conflicts, 20 (22.3%) agreed, 12 (13.6%) were neutral, five (5.7%) disagreed and 10 (11.4%) strongly disagreed. This therefore showed that 59.1% of student leaders agreed that as a result of ethnic conflicts, some students may miss to sit for their examinations (even KCSE in some cases for those who have been displaced and cannot be traced). This affects the education development of most students hence increased illiteracy levels in the area. In line with study findings, Lokwete (2013) research found out that students who are disabled in pastoral conflict zones were unable to sit for their examinations because of inability to reach their schools. Further, Wangechi, Njenga and Manyasa's (2013) study found out that armed ethnic conflict resulted in students not being able to sit for their examinations resulting in low transition rates to higher levels of education.

Composite data indicated that 65.2% of student leaders were in agreement that ethnic conflicts negatively influenced student educational progress in schools, 13.6% were undecided while 21.2% disagreed. This, therefore, showed that ethnic conflicts negatively contributed to poor student educational management in schools in conflict-prone areas of Baringo County, Kenya. The first hypothesis stated that:

H0₁: Ethnic conflicts have no significant effect on student management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County.

To test the hypothesis, a Karl Pearson correlation was computed at 5% confidence level to establish if the mentioned hypothesis was true or false on the case of student leaders' response and the results given on Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Management of Students

		Ethnic conflict prevalence	Student management
Ethnic	Pearson Correlation	1	235 [*]
conflict	Sig. (2-tailed)		.027
prevalence	N	88	88
Student	Pearson Correlation	235 [*]	1
management	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	
	N	88	88

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author (2019)

The correlation statistics indicated that there was a significant negative effect (r=0.235 and p=0.027) of prevalence of conflict and student management in public secondary schools in Baringo County, the lower areas. The calculated p-value (0.027) was less than the critical value (0.05) leading to the rejection of the null hypothesis and conclusion that there existed a significant negative effect of ethnic conflicts on student management in secondary schools in Baringo County. This meant that increased ethnic conflicts would result in poor student management in public secondary schools. In line with the study findings, Kibris (2015) research among Kurdish students in Turkey found out that their academic progression and achievement was negatively affected by civil conflict. Further, Omoeva et al. (2018) found out that ethnic conflict lowered student academic attainment by 7.6%. This meant that ethnic conflict prevalence affects student academic achievement in examinations.

4.2.6 Teacher Responses on the Effect of Conflict on Management of Students

The teachers were also asked their opinion concerning the prevalence of ethnic conflicts in the area and its effect on management of students in public secondary

schools in lower areas of Baringo County. Through statements measured on a Likert scale of five; Strongly Agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided - N, Disagree-D, Strongly Disagree-SD, and the teachers were asked to indicate their positions. The results are illustrated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Teachers' Responses on Prevalence of Ethnic Conflicts on Students Attendance to School

	Statements	6	SA		A		N		D	9	SD
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
i	Prevalence of ethnic conflicts increases students absenteeism	76	69.1	27	24.5	3	2.7	2	1.8	2	1.8
ii	Student academic performance is affected during ethnic conflicts	70	63.6	36	32.7	3	2.7			1	.9
iii	Prevalence of ethnic conflicts intensify school drop-outs and repetition	59	53.6	34	30.9	11	10.0	4	3.6	2	1.8
iv	Ethnic conflicts leads to destruction of students uniform and books	49	44.5	36	32.7	9	8.2	12	10.9	4	3.6
v	Students cannot sit their examinations as a result of ethnic conflicts	50	45.5	35	31.8	6	5.5	13	11.8	6	5.5
	Average	61	55.3	34	30.5	6.4	5.8	6	5.6	3	2.7

Key: f-frequency, %- per cent

Source: Author (2019)

Result from Table 4.9 showed that 76 (69.1%) of teachers strongly agreed that increased incidents of ethnic conflicts in their areas resulted in increased absenteeism cases. The result henceforth showed that 93.6% of teachers agree that students cannot attend schools on regular basis when there is conflict. This study outcome coincides with UNESCO (2010) monitoring report that showed that absenteeism and truancy cases among students were common in schools that were ravaged by armed violence in various countries of the world. In addition, Akintunde and Selzing-Musa (2016) research established that insecurity made children to miss schools in northern Nigerian areas that were attacked by Boko Haram.

Secondly, 70 (63.6%) of teachers strongly agreed and 36 (32.7%) agreed that their students' academic performance was negatively affected as a result of ethnic conflicts, three (2.7%) were undecided while only one (0.9%) strongly disagreed. This showed that 96.3% of teachers agree that performance of students learning in schools with high prevalence rate of ethnic conflicts is poor. The results were supported by Cheptile (2015) who established that academic achievement of students is affected among students learning in conflict prone areas. In addition to that, UNESCO Global Monitoring Report (2011) found out that violent conflict resulted in poor academic performance of students located in those areas. The study therefore showed that incidents of violence results to poor academic performance and this can be seen from the KCSE reports (Table 1.1) that showed that schools located in lower areas of Baringo County perform poorly compared to those located in upper areas that enjoy peace.

Thirdly, 59 (53.6%) of teachers strongly agreed and 34 (30.9%) agreed that prevalence of ethnic conflicts intensified school dropouts and incidents of repetition. From the findings, 11 (10.0%) were undecided, four (3.6%) disagreed and two (1.8%) strongly disagreed. This finding implied that 84.5% of teachers believe that the high incidents of dropouts and constant repetition have mainly been contributed by the prevalence of ethnic conflicts within their schools. To justify the findings, UNESCO Global Monitoring Report (2011) found out that school children were often forcibly recruited as child soldiers (raiders in this case) hence leading to their discontinuation of education. In addition, Smith (2014) review of challenges facing achievement of Universal Primary Education found out that incidents of dropout due to violent

conflicts were some of the major hindrances to the achievement of Universal Primary Education.

Fourthly, the study results indicated teachers 49 (44.5%) strongly agreed and 36 (32.7%) agreed that ethnic conflicts led to destruction of instructional resources that students used in schools like uniforms and books. This is because some students' houses were burnt and therefore, had nothing to wear to school and had no books to write on. The result henceforth showed that most (77.2%) of the teachers agreed that students' instructional resources were destroyed during inter-ethnic conflicts. In support of these results, Tahir, Arshad, Muhammad and Ghaffar (2015) research in Punjab province, Pakistan found out that as a result of Taliban attack, most students' instructional resources were destroyed making them not to participate in education. Moreover, Wahu (2013) research in Tana Delta found that one of the reasons for poor education development in the region was destruction of instructional resources used by students in schools.

Fifthly, the study found that sometimes students missed to to sit for their end of term examinations, 50 (45.5%) strongly agreed, 35 (31.8%) agreed, six (5.5%) were undecided, six (5.6%) disagreed and 3 (2.7%) strongly disagreed. The result henceforth showed that 77.3% of teachers believed that it is impossible for students to sit for their exams during times of conflicts. Even in some cases, those who sit for KCSE exams were forced to move to other schools far from their schools and homes which affected their ability to revise well, hence, ended up performing poorly in KCSE examinations.

Average scores indicated that 85.8% of teachers believed that prevalence of ethnic conflicts led to poor student management, 5.8% were undecided whereas 8.3%

disagreed. This meant that prevalence of ethnic conflicts resulted in poor student management in public secondary schools in Baringo County. To verify this assertion, hypothesis one stated that:

H0₁: Ethnic conflicts have no significant effect on student management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County.

Hence, a Karl Pearson correlation analysis was computed at 99.0% significant level. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Student Management as per Teachers

		Ethnic conflict prevalence	Student management
Ethnic conflict	Pearson Correlation	1	492**
prevalence	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	110	110
Student	Pearson Correlation	492 ^{**}	1
management	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
-	N	110	110
**. Correlation is si	ignificant at the 0.01 lev	vel (2-tailed).	

Source: Author (2019)

Results show that there existed significant negative effect (r=-0.492 and p=0.001) of ethnic conflicts prevalence on student management in Baringo County schools in the lower areas of the county. The calculated p-value (0.001) is lower than the critical p-value (0.01) leading to rejection of the null hypothesis and conclusion that there existed a significant negative effect of prevalence of ethnic conflicts and student management in public secondary schools in the conflict afflicted areas of Baringo County, Kenya.

Responses from the open ended questions for objective one indicates that a large number of students 76 (86.3%) reported that there were other factors apart from conflicts that may make students to miss school while a small number 12 (13.6%) reported ethnic conflicts to be the main cause for student's absenteeism. In addition,

majority of teachers reported that there were other factors apart from ethnic conflicts for student's absenteeism. Only 4% of teachers agreed that conflicts were the main cause of students' absenteeism. The findings were supported by Shemyakina (2011) research in Tajikistan that found out that there was irregular attendance to school by students in regions that were ravaged by conflict. This meant that ethnic conflicts affected students' ability to go to school daily.

4.2.7 Principals Responses on the Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Student Management

Interview with the principals who participated in this study revealed that in most schools,14 principals said that the students' enrolment had increased due to the government's 100% transition policy and tuition free secondary education significantly; three said that enrolment had marginally increased while one said there was no increase in enrolment. The 14 principals also said that the enrolment increased because the community leaders and other education stakeholders had done a lot of sensitization on the importance of education. During the interview, the 15 principals asserted that the numbers of students in their schools reduced during and after incidences of conflicts whereas three said that the enrolment had remained the same. On 15 principals who said the number of students had decreased, and this was attributed to displacement (four), insecurity during travelling to school and back home (three), animosity (two) and lack of fees due to loss of property during the conflicts. One of the principals (No. 17) said that:

...there is decrease in enrolment of students in the school during and even after the conflicts because those students from North Baringo cannot attend East Pokot schools due to animosity even if the school is near. At the same time going to school was a problem due to fear of attacks.

This showed that fear created by ethnic conflicts made it difficult for learners from different communities to interact.

Principal No. 9 had this to saying relation to effect of ethnic conflicts on student management:

...there was high dropout as a result of conflicts. For instance, those girls who loose parents/guardians are likely to get married. Girls also drop out due to early pregnancies brought about by conflict situations. Boys also dropped out because they lacked school fees.

The response by the principals indicated that most students whose parents or guardians die as a result of ethnic conflicts could not continue with their education because there was no support in payment of fees. Majority of the victims in this situation were girls who ended up getting pregnant early while others got married. In line with the study outcomes, Omoeva et al. (2018) research found out that it was difficult for students to continue with their schooling in regions with high conflict incidents. Another principal (No. 4) said this with regard to student management on the face of conflict:

....students was scared to go to school hence attendance is affected. Student delayed to travel back to school (for those in boarding) and some cannot pay fees because their livestock were taken away.

The response revealed that insecurity and fear prevented students from reporting to school on time. In addition, considering some students household livestock were stolen during raids, their parents did not have another source of income and therefore, their children were unable to attend school.

4.2.8 BoM Members' Responses on the Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Management of Students

The study also collected information from Board of Management members on how ethnic conflicts affected management of schools in their areas. All (20) BOM

members agreed that management of students have been negatively affected as result of conflict on different fronts. For instance, BoM member (No. 10) said that:

...as a result of insecurity, students miss schools when they open, there are cases of delayed reporting and some students end up dropping out of school.

From the results, ethnic conflict contributed to students' failure to report to school on time hence affecting curriculum planning and progress. Several numbers of students could not be traced after incidents of conflict thereby increasing the dropout rates of students in the area. In agreement with the findings, Shemyakina (2011) research discovered that girls' students ended up dropping out of school as a result of armed conflict in Tajikistan. Another BoM member (No. 17) noted the following:

....students takes time to report, others seek transfer to other regions, dropout rates increases and performance is affected.

This showed that students' numbers in schools decreased as some parents made arrangements to transfer their children to safer areas of the County. In addition, academic performance was significantly affected coming out clearly from another BoM member (No. 6) who noted that:

....students was affected by ethnic conflicts because of displacement of parents because they shift with them. Students completion rate is low, students run away from school, 1/20 students join university and transition to other higher institutions is at 50.0%.

The observations made by the BoM members suggest that that completion rate for students in areas with high incidents of conflict is low. In addition, the transition rate to colleges and universities after finishing form four also appears to be low.

4.3 Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management in Secondary Schools

The second objective of the study was to analyse the effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. The study collected information from student leaders, teachers, principals and BoM members.

4.3.1 Students' Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management

At first, the students and teachers were asked to give their opinions on how ethnic conflicts influenced teacher management issues in their schools. They were guided by the listed statements on the following scale: Strongly Agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided - N, Disagree-D, and Strongly Disagree-SD. Students' responses are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management

	Statements		SA		A		N		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
i	Teachers were not present in school during ethnic conflicts	29	33.0	26	29.5	12	13.6	16	18.2	5	5.7	
ii	During ethnic conflicts teachers rarely attend lessons	27	30.7	39	44.3	12	13.6	9	10.2	1	1.1	
iii	Teachers arrive late in school when there is an outbreak of conflicts	37	42.0	28	31.8	7	8.0	7	8.0	9	10.2	
iv	Ethnic conflicts lead to poor syllabus coverage by teachers	55	62.5	19	21.6	4	4.5	3	3.4	7	8.0	
V	Teachers cannot assess students well during times of ethnic conflicts	44	50.0	20	22.7	13	14.8	5	5.7	6	6.8	
	Average	38	43.6	26	30.0	9.6	10.9	8	9.1	6	6.4	

Key: f-frequency, %- per cent

Source: Author (2019)

Study results in Table 4.11showed that 29 (33.0%) of student leaders strongly agreed that most teachers did not come to school during the period of ethnic clashes, 26 (29.5%) were in agreement, 12 (13.6%) said sometimes teacher came and sometimes they did not, 16 (18.2%) disagreed and five (5.7%) strongly disagreed. The finding hence showed that 62.5% of student leaders said that their teachers did not come to school during times of ethnic conflicts. The reason was that most teachers did not

reside within the school compound and therefore, had to travel from a far distance. Moreover, the security of the teachers was paramount in those areas and if they felt they could not make it to school, they were to inform their principals. In line with the study findings, Nkuene (2015) research in Meru found that because of insecurity, majority of teachers did not risk going to school due to fear. This meant that classrooms remained unattended as teachers did not come to school during times of high levels of ethnic violence.

Secondly, 39 (44.3%) of student leaders agreed and 27 (30.7%) strongly agreed that during times of conflict, most of their teachers did not attend lessons even if they were within the school compound. The results also show that 12 (13.6%) of the student leaders were undecided, nine (10.2%) disagreed while one (1.1%) strongly disagreed. The study therefore, indicated that majority (75.0%) of lessons remained unattended in public secondary schools in the study area during times of conflict. In agreement with the study results, Wangechi et al. (2013) research found out that there were incidents of non-attendance by teachers during times of conflict in selected schools in Nakuru County, Kenya. Most teachers failed to attend lessons because they were inadequately prepared. In addition, students' concentration in class was usually affected during the period of conflict.

Thirdly, the study results showed that 37 (42.0%) of student leaders strongly agreed that their teachers arrived late during times of ethnic conflicts, 28 (31.8%) agreed, 7 (8.0%) were undecided, 7 (8.0%) disagreed and 9 (10.2%) strongly disagreed. This showed that most (73.8%) of student leaders agreed that because of insecurity, most teachers prefer to arrive late in schools for their own security. This is because coming to school early would put them in a risky situation of encountering armed bandits

along the way. As a result, sometimes teachers failed to attend their morning lessons and also were unable to plan for the lessons well. In agreement with the study results Ojukwu's (2017) research in Nigeria found out that teachers sometimes came to school late because of fear of being attacked in the morning hours. Moreover, the study found out that most teachers left their schools early to ensure they reach their homes safely.

Fourthly, the study results showed that most 55 (62.5%) of student leaders strongly agreed that ethnic conflicts resulted in poor syllabus overage by teachers in classrooms. This showed that majority (84.1%) of schools did not cover syllabus at the end of the academic year. This puts the candidates undertaking KCSE in the area on a disadvantage and cannot compete with other students who have had a conducive environment to learn and complete the syllabus. In agreement with the study findings, Muse et al. (2016) found that insecurity incidents within the vicinity of schools made teachers not to complete the syllabus.

Lastly, the study findings showed that half 44 (50.0%) of student leaders strongly agreed that teachers were not in a position to assess them during times of conflicts. 20 (22.7%) agreed, 13 (14.8%) were undecided, 5 (5.7%) disagreed while 6 (6.8%) strongly disagreed. The result, therefore, showed that (72.7%) of student leaders believed that assessment and evaluation activities were significantly hampered during times of conflict. This implied that proper assessment of student academic progress did not happen in the area of study particularly during times of insecurity. The finding concurs with Siphiwe's (2013) research in South Africa which found that, because of violence, teachers could not assess learners well.

Average statistics on student leaders' responses showed that most (73.6%) agreed that incidents of ethnic conflicts affect teacher effectiveness, (10.9%) were undecided and 15.5% disagreed. This showed that ethnic conflict negatively affects teacher effectiveness in curriculum delivery in schools.

To statistically prove this finding, the second hypothesis stated that:

H0₂: Ethnic conflicts have no significant effect on teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County

To test the hypothesis, a Karl Pearson correlation was computed at 99.0% confidence level. The results were given on Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Teacher Management as per Student Leaders

		Prevalence of ethnic conflict	Management of Teachers							
Ethnic	Pearson Correlation	1	386 ^{**}							
conflict	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000							
prevalence	N	88	88							
Teacher	Pearson Correlation	386***	1							
management	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000								
	N	88	88							
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).										

Source: Author (2019)

The correlation findings indicated an existence of a significant negative effect (r=0.386 and p=0.001) of conflict prevalence on the management of teachers in public secondary schools in Baringo County, lower areas. The computed p-value (0.001) is lower than the critical p-value (0.01) leading to the rejection of the second hypothesis and conclusion that there existed a significant negative effect of prevalence of ethnic conflicts on management of teachers. This implied that when an ethnic conflict persists, ability for teachers to implement the secondary school curriculum in the study area became difficult.

4.3.2 Teachers Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Management

Teachers' were asked to give their opinion concerning the effect of ethnic conflicts on the effective teacher management in secondary schools situated in the lowland areas of Baringo County. Teachers statements were measured on the following scale: Strongly Agree-SA, Agree-A, Undecided - N, Disagree-D, and Strongly Disagree-SD. Students' responses are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Teachers' Responses on Effect of ethnic conflict on teacher management

	management										
	Statements	,	SA		A	${f N}$		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%	f	%	f	%
i	Ethnic conflicts lead to increased cases of teacher absenteeism from school	49	44.5	42	38.2	8	7.3	10	9.1	1	.9
ii	Teachers rarely attended lessons during ethnic conflicts	50	45.5	43	39.1	10	9.1	7	6.4	0	0.0
iii	Teacher reported late to school as a result of ethnic conflict	40	36.4	36	32.7	17	15.5	13	11.8	4	3.6
iv	The syllabus was not covered adequately due to conflicts	53	48.2	43	39.1	14	12.7	0	0.0	0	0.0
V	Ethnic conflicts lead to poor assessment of students in schools	46	41.8	25	22.7	15	13.6	11	10.0	13	11.8
	Average	48	43.3	38	34.4	13	11.6	10	7.5	6	3.3

Key: f-frequency, %- per cent

Source: Author (2019)

Results in Table 4.13 showed that teachers, 49 (44.5%) strongly agreed and 42 (38.2%) teachers agreed that ethnic conflicts increased their absenteeism rate in schools, eight (7.3%) were undecided, 10 (9.1%) disagreed while one (0.9%) strongly disagreed. The data therefore showed that (82.7%) of teachers said that during conflict times, their schools were not accessible and therefore most of them remained at home. Further, some teachers mentioned that they were also displaced from their schools as a result of violence leading to them seeking transfer to schools that were considered safe. In agreement with the study results, Ojukwu and Nwanma's (2015) research

established that insecure environment around schools made it difficult for teachers to attend to their duties resulting in absenteeism incidents.

Secondly, teachers who strongly agreed on the statement that teachers rarely attended lessons during ethnic conflicts were 50 (45.5%) and those who agreed were 43 (39.1%). From the results 10 (9.1%) teachers were undecided while seven (6.4%) disagreed with the statements. The results therefore, showed that most (84.6%) of teachers were in agreement that insecurity in the area, had made it difficult for teachers to attend lessons. In addition, teachers also revealed that, because of conflicts, few learners attended school leading to missed lessons. This study finding in Baringo County coincided with Hamman and Muhammad (2017) study outcome that established that in insecure environments attendance to lessons by learners was minimal leading to poor academic performance. On teachers' attendance to lessons in conflict situations, Owan (2018) found out that teachers were inadequately prepared.

Thirdly, findings from this study indicated that teachers who strongly agreed with the statement that ethnic conflict resulted in lateness of teachers when reporting to school in the morning were 40 (36.4%) while 36 (32.7%) teachers agreed. Teachers who were unsure with the statement were 17 (15.5%). Those who disagreed were 13 (11.8%) and only four (3.6%) disagreed strongly. This finding, therefore, indicated that because of the concern about their safety most teachers (69.1%) usually arrived late to school during times of conflict. The finding from this study was supported by UNESCO, Global Monitoring Report (2011) that found that most teachers tended to be late when going to school in the morning, since they had to wait to be escorted to schools in several war torn sub Saharan African countries, since most schools were inaccessibility. The study findings in Baringo County also indicated that, sometimes

teachers had to be escorted by the police reservists as they could not go to school on their own, resulting to lateness in attending lessons. As a result, teachers instructional were greatly interfered with leading to poor academic performance.

Fourthly, the study findings revealed that teachers 53 (48.2%) were in strong agreement with the statement that ethnic conflicts lead to poor syllabus coverage. 43 (39.1%) teachers agreed, while 14 (12.7%) teachers were undecided. The above finding implied that, majority of teachers were not in a position to cover the syllabus on time as a result of conflict. Majority of schools that were visited during the study were in agreement with this fact. Dunlop's (2015) study in Burundi also found that teachers were unable to complete the syllabus on time due to persistent fear and hostility within the school environment. In addition, Najjuma (2011) study in Uganda, found that most schools in Northern Uganda performed poorly because the teachers available were too few to be able to cover the syllabus. Due to their own safety most teachers deserted schools during times of conflicts leading to poor syllabus coverage by the few remaining teachers.

Lastly, the study on ethnic conflicts and management of teachers in Baringo county results, showed that 46 (41.8%) of teachers strongly agreed that they were unable to conduct classroom assessment effectively while 25 (22.7%) agreed. In addition, 15 (13.6%) of teachers were undecided, 11 (10.0%) disagreed and 13 (11.8%) strongly disagreed with the statement. This meant that most (64.5%) of teachers agreed that assessment of learners became difficult during period of high conflict. This finding is supported by Manyok's (2015) research in South Sudan which found out that teachers were unable to assess learners effectively because of insecurity situation. In addition, Loku's (2013) study in the same country found out that quality education provision

was greatly affected because of inadequate teachers needed to conduct assessment in interior schools in the war torn regions of the country.

Average statistics showed that 86 (77.7%) of teachers agreed, 13 (11.6%) were undecided and 16 (10.8%) disagreed that ethnic conflicts influenced teacher effectiveness and management in schools. This indicated that to a higher extent, ethnic conflicts hinder teacher management activities in public secondary schools in the lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya. The second hypothesis stated that:

H0₂: Ethnic conflicts have no significant effect on teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County

To test the hypothesis, a Karl Pearson correlation was computed at 99.0% confidence level. The results were given on Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Correlation on Ethnic Conflicts and Teacher Management as per Teachers

		Ethnic conflict prevalence	Teacher management							
Ethnic conflict	Pearson Correlation	1	306**							
prevalence	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001							
_	N	110	110							
Teacher	Pearson Correlation	306**	1							
management	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001								
_	N	110	110							
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)										

Source: Author (2019)

The results on Table 4.14 indicated an existence of a significant negative effect (r=0.306 and p=0.001) between teacher management in public secondary schools in the lowland regions of Baringo County and ethnic prevalence. The computed p-value was (0.001) which was lower than the critical p-value (p=0.01) leading to rejection of the second null hypothesis and conclusion that prevalence of ethnic conflicts had a significant negative effect on teacher management in public secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County, Kenya. The findings coincides with Adan and

Orodho (2016) research that found out that as a result of insecurity, management of teachers became difficult for public secondary schools in Mandera County. This was due to the Somali Al-shabaab attacking teachers (non-locals) who fled the schools leaving students unattended.

4.3.3 Principals Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Management Findings from the interview indicated that ethnic conflict had affected the morale of teachers and therefore had a great impact on their effectiveness. All (18) principals agreed that teacher management was negatively affected as a result of ethnic conflicts. On their responses on the extent to which teacher management became difficult, 3 principals stated that most teachers did not come to school during times of conflict especially those who come from the locality. They stayed at home to guard their livestock against theft and to protect their kith and kin. Five principals also said that teachers also feared for their lives and therefore most schools in the area where the study was done were understaffed. Ethnic conflicts had made many teachers to seek for transfers to safe areas. Four principals mentioned that those who remained in those schools did not attend school regularly nor attend classes at the right time. Therefore, conflicts affect punctuality of the teachers and school attendance patterns. One of the principals (No.18) said that:

....ethnic conflicts affect teachers' punctuality since there are no means of travelling to school especially when there are attacks. Thus absenteeism from school is high and affects attendance to class, consequently affecting performance of students. Teachers' morale is also affected.

The above information showed that most teachers could not arrive in school on time (as per stipulated time of between 7:30-8:00am) underscoring the evidence gathered so far from student leaders and teachers. Academic performance of students was significantly affected as a result of teachers reporting late to school. This finding is

supported by Omoeva et al. (2018) which found out that the productivity of teachers reduced as a result of conflict which in the long run affected pupils' academic progress. Another principal (No. 11) indicated that:

....ethnic conflict affects some teachers psychologically (for those who did not come from areas with conflict) and this makes it impossible for them to settle down.

The finding suggested that teachers who had never experienced conflict are highly traumatised by ethnic conflicts thereby affecting their productivity level. Another principal (No.5) indicated the following concerning management of teachers in the face of ethnic conflicts in public secondary schools in the lower regions of Baringo County:

....because of ethnic conflict situations, schools in the area attracts few TSC teachers; those available ask for transfers and the remaining ones have low moral to perform the job.

This response implied that schools located in the ethnic conflict areas attracted minimal number of teachers due to fear of insecurity situations. Additionally, the few who were available were demoralised and had no impetus to teach. This in the end affected teacher productivity which consequently hampered curriculum implementation.

4.3.4 BoM Responses on Effect of Ethnic Conflicts on Teacher Management

The executive BoM members were interviewed to indicate how ethnic conflict prevalence in the lower areas of Baringo County influenced teacher management issues in schools. The responses showed that all (20) BOM members expressed that ethnic conflicts had negative impacts on teacher management in secondary schools in the lower land areas of Baringo. For example, one BoM member (No. 20) remarked that:

....many teachers are hired by BoM because not many teachers accept to be employed by TSC and be posted in our schools. Those who are posted leave immediately after reporting to other schools by seeking transfers."

According to five other BoM members, they were forced to hire untrained BoM teachers to fill the gap created by those leaving to other institutions. The remaining teachers felt demoralised and this did affect their performance in instructional tasks. Further, BoM member (No. 10) intimated that:

....it destabilises teachers as most of them are under fear of banditry attacks. A few cases of absenteeism are experienced during the conflict period. Also others seek transfer to areas they consider safe.

From this response it was clear that most teachers were mentally destabilised and therefore, could not perform their duties well. Teacher absenteeism was also prevalent during ethnic conflicts periods. Another BoM member (No. 1) indicated the following with regard to teacher management:

....the school has no teacher quarters except the principal. Thus, teachers rent houses outside the school leading to fear of attacks. During conflicts there is tension and many teachers leave or look for transfers.

Other six BoM members reported that incidents of ethnic conflict affected punctuality since teachers did not have a means of transport to take them to school when conflicts occur. Similarly, the lack of adequate housing facilities made teachers to look for houses that were far from their work stations, hence, putting them at risk of being attacked during times of conflict.

4.4 Challenges faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflicts

The third objective of the study was to establish the challenges faced by secondary school administrators in the lowland areas of Baringo County due to ethnic conflicts. Data was collected from the BoM executive members, principals' teachers and student leaders through interviews and questionnaires.

4.4.1 Students Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflicts

The student leaders were asked to indicate the challenges that their school management were facing during ethnic conflict period in terms of curriculum and educational management. They were given statements which were on a Likert scale of five: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, N-Undecided, D-Disagree and SD-Strongly Disagree. Students' responses are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Students Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflicts

	during Emine Cor	mucu	3								
	Statements	,	SA		A	\mathbf{N}		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
i	Ethnic conflicts caused injury and death to some teachers and students	48	54.5	21	23.9	7	8.0	4	4.5	8	9.1
ii	School management not knowing the whereabouts of some students	27	30.7	24	27.3	9	10.2	7	8.0	21	23.9
iii	Closing of schools for unknown period until stability is attained	29	33.0	21	23.9	11	12.5	13	14.8	14	15.9
iv	Destruction of school infrastructure e.g. classes, labs among others	38	43.2	13	14.8	15	17.0	10	11.4	12	13.6
V	Loss of schools' Instructional resources	26	29.5	23	26.1	14	15.9	5	5.7	20	22.7
	Average	34	38.2	20	23.2	11	12.7	8	8.9	15	17.0

Key: f-frequency, %- percent

Source: Author (2019)

The data in Table 4.15 indicated that 48 (54.5%) of the students strongly agreed that ethnic conflicts cause death of both students and teachers while 21 (23.9%) of the students agreed and 12 (13.6%) strongly disagreed. On average, (78.4%) of student leaders agree that their school management is negatively affected when students and teachers were injured or killed during ethnic conflicts. This is because it destabilised the school as teachers were unwilling to continue teaching while students were not in a position to listen or become attentive in class. In agreement with the study results,

Adan and Orodho's (2016) research in Mandera found out persistent inter clan conflict affected students and teachers in public secondary schools.

Secondly, 27 (30.7%) of the student leaders strongly agreed that school management are faced with the challenge of locating the whereabouts of some students during times of conflict, 24 (27.3%) agreed, nine (10.2%) were undecided, seven (8.0%) agreed and 21 (23.9%) strongly agreed. The results show that 51(58%) of students tended to agree with the statements while 28 (31.9%) disagreed. This showed that principals found it difficult to locate some students whose families had been displaced by violence, to establish whether they were in school or not. This happened mostly when parents of the student do not have communication devices such as telephones and therefore tracing the students becomes a challenge.

The findings also showed that 29 (33.0%) of student leaders strongly agreed that schools were forced to close by the education officials during the time of insecurity until stability was maintained. Another 21 (23.9%) agreed, 11 (12.5%) were neutral, 13 (14.8%) disagreed and 14 (15.9%) strongly disagreed. The data suggest that 56.9% of student leaders agreed that their school management closed schools unexpectedly when there was a rise in ethnic conflicts occurrences. This affected syllabus coverage as it was impossible to know when the areas would be declared conducive for students to go back to school. This affected the performance of schools in national examinations (KCSE). In agreement with the study results, are Jones and Naylor's (2014) study in Nigeria that found that schools were closed as a result of targeted attacks and military use of school buildings. This meant that learning could not take place.

Fourthly, when asked to state whether destruction of school facilities was a challenge that schools experienced as a result of ethnic conflict, 38 (43.2%) strongly agreed, 13 (14.8%) agreed, 15 (17.0%) were undecided, 10 (11.4%) disagreed and 12 (13.6%) strongly disagreed. It can be deduced that most 51 (58.0%) of students said that their school management faced a challenge of accommodating students in schools in situations where ethnic conflicts resulted to destruction of school infrastructure or even burning of their homesteads. During conflict period in some cases, families ran to schools for shelter and protection and while being there, the displaced families end up destroying the school infrastructural facilities. This creates a challenge for the school administration because they must look for finances to repair the destroyed facilities. The same observation was found by Jones and Naylor's (2014) research whereby, as a result of attacks, the Boko Haram military personnel made use of school buildings which they later made destroyed when the conflict ended.

Lastly, the study showed that 26 (29.5%) of student leaders strongly agreed that instructional resources were damaged during conflict, 23 (26.1%) agreed, 14 (15.9%) were undecided, five (5.7%) disagreed and 20 (22.7%) strongly disagreed. This showed that 55.6% of student leaders believed that their school management are faced with the challenge of providing and purchasing new instructional resources damaged or destroyed during ethnic conflicts periods. This meant that schools had to start planning again on how to replace the destroyed or stolen instructional resources hence affecting school development. On average the findings showed that 54 (61.4%) of student leaders indicated that their school management were facing various challenges in ensuring curriculum implementation proceeded well in public secondary schools in the lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya.

4.4.2 Teachers Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflicts

The teachers were asked to indicate the challenges that their school management were facing during ethnic conflict period in terms of curriculum and educational management. They were given statements which were on a Likert scale of five: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, N-Undecided, D-Disagree and SD-Strongly Disagree. Students' responses are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Teachers' Responses on Challenges Faced by Secondary School Administrators

-	Statements	SA		Α		N		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%	f	%	f	%
i	Lack of adequate teachers	64	58.2	37	33.6	8	7.3	1	.9	0	0.0
	in schools										
ii	School management not	52	47.3	39	35.5	13	11.8	3	2.7	3	2.7
	knowing the whereabouts										
	of some students										
iii	Ethnic conflicts causing	29	26.4	26	23.6	24	21.8	15	13.6	16	14.5
	injury and death to some										
	teachers and students										
iv	Destruction of school	33	30.0	37	33.6	13	11.8	23	20.9	4	3.6
	infrastructure e.g. classes,										
	labs among others										
V	Loss of schools'	36	32.7	36	32.7	14	12.7	17	15.5	7	6.4
	Instructional resources										
	Average	43	38.9	35	31.8	14	13.1	12	10.7	6	5.44

Key: f-frequency, %- percent

Source: Author (2019)

Table 4.16 showed that 64 (58.2%) of the teachers strongly agreed that lack of adequate teachers in schools is a challenge that school management faces. 37 (33.6%) agreed, 8 (7.3%) were undecided and one (0.9%) disagreed. The results showed that majority 101 (91.8%) of teachers agreed that schools were faced with teacher shortages as a result of ethnic conflicts in the lower regions of Baringo County. In some schools, some teachers desert duty (those employed by TSC) thereby making majority of schools to be understaffed. Even for those who sought transfers,

replacements were not done on time and it took a long period of time for new teachers to be posted to the affected/understaffed schools.

Close to half 52 (47.3%) of the teachers strongly agreed that school administrators were faced with the problem of students disappearing from schools for long periods without knowing their whereabouts, 39 (35.5%) agreed, 13 (11.8%) were neutral, three (2.7%) disagreed and three (2.7%) strongly disagreed. The result showed that most teachers 91 (82.8%) agreed that it was difficult for them (teachers) or their school administration to trace some students who were displaced during ethnic conflicts. The teachers reported that due to the vastness of the area, it was impossible for schools to trace the areas to which they students went to. In some instances it was not possible even to know whether these students joined other schools.

The findings also showed that 29 (26.4%) of the teachers strongly agreed that conflicts lead to injury and death to some students and teachers when they were caught in the cross fire. 26 (23.6%) agreed, 24 (21.8%) were undecided, 15 (13.6%) disagreed and 16 (14.5%) strongly disagreed. The result showed that half 58 (50.0%) of teachers agreed that ethnic conflicts sometimes resulted to injury and death of some students and teachers whereas others had a different opinion. Death and injury of teachers and students was not a common occurrence. However, when such incidents occurred, learning was paralysed as teachers withdrew their services (labour) from school. Hence, curriculum instruction was negatively affected.

Further, the study established that 33(30.0%) of the teachers strongly agreed and 37 (33.6%) agreed respectively that ethnic conflicts led to the destruction of school infrastructure such as classrooms, laboratories and sanitation areas. 13 (11.8%) were undecided, 23 (20.9%) disagreed and four (3.6%) strongly disagreed. Results,

therefore, showed that most 70 (63.6%) of teachers believed that infrastructural facilities in the schools were destroyed as a result of conflict in the lower areas of Baringo County. Nevertheless, the destruction was either through direct attacks by raiders or as a result of families that run to school for shelter who end up destroying the available facilities while staying in such institutions. This becomes a big challenge to school administration because it has to rebuild the structures again after peace has been restored.

Results also revealed that 36 (32.7%) of teachers strongly agreed that ethnic conflicts were a challenge to school management because it causes the loss of schools' teaching and learning resources, such as, textbooks and stationery. 36 (32.7%) of teachers agreed with the statement, 14 (12.7%) were neutral, 17 (15.5%) disagreed and seven (6.4%) strongly disagreed with the statement. The finding, therefore, implied that 72 (65.4%) of teachers said that the school management were faced with the challenge of losing teaching and learning resources which are critical to learning in schools. In most cases, books and other materials were damaged when storage places were targeted. Considering that government was slow in assisting the said schools, the school management found it challenging to replace the destroyed materials, which consequently hampered learning.

On average, the findings from the teachers showed that 77(70.7%) agreed, 14 (13.1%) were undecided while 18 (16.4%) disagreed that school management encountered significant challenges as a result of ethnic conflicts happening within their surroundings. When ethnic conflicts soar up, principals, teachers and students

performance was significantly affected, resulting in poor performance of such schools in national examinations.

4.4.3 Principals Responses on Challenges Faced by School Management during Ethnic Conflict Periods

The principals who were interviewed stated a range of challenges they face related to ethnic conflicts. All (18) mentioned that the challenges that they experienced in management of schools during times of conflict as: absenteeism of both teachers and students (six), inability of parents to pay school fees (twelve), school facilities being used as rescue centres (camp sites) for displaced persons (three), lack of concentration in class by students (four), loss of school properties (three), increased students indiscipline (five), inadequate staff (thirteen), rumours around school that cause fear among teachers and students (two), inability to pay BoM teachers (three) and lack of water (seven). Specifically, here are some excerpts from one of the Principal (No. 12) who was asked to name the specific challenges that they encountered during times of conflict in their schools:

....inadequate staff, some teachers lost properties because of theft and destruction, there is increased fear around the school and therefore learning does not happen well and lack of enough resources such as students' payment of school fees became a problem to many during conflict times.

This showed that teachers and schools lost property as a result of ethnic conflicts thereby affecting management of schools. In schools that had employed BoM teachers, they were not in a position to pay them on time hence leading to their demoralisation and resignations. Another Principal (No. 2) noted the following as challenges that they encountered during periods of conflict:

....absenteeism of students from school, inability of parents to meet school fees payments and school facilities used as rescue (camp/sites) for displaced persons.

This showed that school environment(s) were turned into holding grounds for families displaced by violence. It impossible for curriculum processes to be undertaken as classes and other facilities were used by residents who had come for safety in the school compound.

Another Principal (No. 4) also had this to say with regard to challenges that were faced in the lower areas of Baringo County, due to ethnic conflicts:

...students become indiscipline, some start truancy behaviour, some students sneak out from school, school property is stolen, livestock from the neighbourhood come to graze in the school compound and there is lack of concentration in class by both learners and instructors.

The above outcomes suggested that as a result of conflict, management of students' discipline became difficult as some of the students ran away from school, while others started abusing drugs and other harmful substances. In addition, school resources were likely to be stolen due to confusion that existed during times of conflict. This information is supported by Adan and Orodho's (2016) research finding that established that, schools' resources were vandalised as a result of inter-clan conflicts and Al-shabaab attacks in Mandera County, Kenya.

4.4.4 BoM Responses on Challenges Faced during Ethnic Conflict

Information was collected from BoM members through interview to give their perspective on the challenges that they encountered during ethnic conflict period. The responses from interview with executive members of BOM revealed that all of them (18) admitted that their schools were faced with varied challenges brought by ethnic conflict situations. They mentioned various challenges that faced and a number of excerpts from their responses are illustrated below. For instance, BoM Member (No. 19) had this to say:

.....low payment of school fees, teaching affected children are difficult task for teachers, more time is used to guide and counsel students together with handling of demoralised teachers.

The responses from the BoM member revealed that school management were faced with a daunting task of encouraging and helping psychologically affected students and teachers to ensure that normalcy returned to school. Another BoM member (No. 11) remarked as follows:

....poor fee payment as only 50% is collected from bursary leading to schools being in heavy debts, self-esteem issues among staff and students, below average performance and when the school is used as IDP camp, basins, chairs, desks and other properties are lost.

This showed that BoM members were faced with a challenge of raising 50% of fees to enable learning to progress in their schools. In some cases, schools were in heavy debts as a result of parents' inability to meet the costs of education. Moreover, these debts came as a result of school facilities and resources being lost during the period of conflicts.

4.5 School Management Intervention Mechanisms to Ethnic Conflicts

The fourth objective of the study was to examine intervention mechanisms to conflict management employed by the school management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. This is because schools had to play an important role in ensuring that normalcy returns and those students, teachers and the community members living in the area co-existed peacefully. Therefore, data was collected from the BoM executive members, principals' teachers and student leaders through interviews and questionnaires.

4.5.1 Student Leaders Responses on Interventions Made by School on Management of Ethnic Conflicts

Through questionnaires, students were asked to indicate the strategies and measures that their school management had put in place as a way of managing conflicts in the lowland areas of Baringo County, Kenya. The statements were measured on the following scale: They were given statements which were on a Likert scale of five: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, N-Undecided, D-Disagree and SD-Strongly Disagree. Students' responses on interventions being done are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Students' Responses on Intervention Mechanisms by Schools to Management of Ethnic Conflicts

	Management of Ethnic Conflicts												
	Statements		SA		\mathbf{A}	\mathbf{N}		D		SD			
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
i	The school is well fenced by the school management	32	36.4	15	17.0	7	8.0	13	14.8	21	23.9		
ii	School management has employed security guards from the locality to guard the school	43	48.9	25	28.4	4	4.5	6	6.8	10	11.4		
iii	School management engage Kenya police to escort students during times of conflicts	28	31.8	21	23.9	12	13.6	9	10.2	18	20.5		
iv	School management provide counselling and help students affected by ethnic conflicts	17	19.3	20	22.7	16	18.2	15	17.0	20	22.7		
V	School management disseminate messages of peaceful coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings	29	33.0	28	31.8	17	19.3	4	4.5	10	11.4		
-	Average	30	33.9	22	24.8	11	12.7	9	10.7	16	18.0		

Key: f-frequency, %- per cent

Source: Author (2019)

As shown on Table 4.17, 32 (36.4%) of the student leaders strongly agreed that the school was well fenced by the school management, 15 (17.0%) agreed, 7 (8.0%) were undecided, 13 (14.8%) disagreed and 21 (23.9%) strongly disagreed. The results

showed that 47 (53.4%) of students said that their administration had fenced all around their schools' as part of ensuring some form of security while, 34 (38.7%) said their schools was not fenced. The finding implied that significant effort had been made to ensure the school surrounding was secure which prevented intrusion or attacks from outside. This created an environment that was a little bit safe for learning to take place.

When asked as to whether school management had employed security guards from the locality to protect the school, 43 (48.9%) of student leaders strongly agreed, 25 (28.4%) agreed, four (4.5%) were undecided, six (6.8%) disagreed and 10 (11.4%) strongly disagreed. This showed that 68 (77.3%) of schools had employed watchmen from the locality to guard the school. Very few schools 16 (18.2%) appeared not to have employed security guards thereby putting them at risk of being attacked or resources stolen during ethnic conflicts. Nevertheless, the employment of local residents as watchmen ensured that community members would rally behind the school in case of insecurity situation.

The findings also showed that 28 (31.8%) of student leaders strongly agreed and 21 (23.9%) agreed that there were arrangements in place where police and/or police reservists escorted students during conflict times to and from school. 12 (13.6%) said this happens sometimes, 9 (10.9%) disagreed and 18 (20.5%) strongly disagreed. The data therefore, showed that 49 (55.7%) of schools had arrangements with local security officials to provide security for students during conflict times and 27 (30.7%) did not have such an arrangement. This strategy was aimed at ensuring that learners did not miss school and to ensure there was continuity of education despite the environment being hostile.

It was also discovered that 20 (22.7%) of student leaders agreed and the same number 20 (22.7%) strongly disagreed that their school management provided counselling and support services to students and teachers who were affected by insecurity. This showed that only 40 (42.0%) of schools had initiated support and counselling initiatives to students and teachers while 35 (39.7%) indicated not to have such programmes. This showed that not all schools in the study area provided assistance and guidance to individuals (teachers and students) who had been affected by ethnic conflicts. The findings from this study are almost similar with Kipkoech and Limo's (2017) study, where (68.3%) of students admitted to have received guidance and counselling in their schools. Inadequate provision of guidance and counselling would result in poor performance among students' affected, truant behaviour and finally discontinuation of education. Furthermore, findings in this study indicated that, teachers who were not offered moral support ended up performing poorly in instructional delivery. Other sought transfers to safer areas, creating a human resources gap in the schools within the study area.

The findings from the study show that 29 (33.0%) of student leaders strongly agreed, 28 (31.8%) agreed, 17 (19.3%) were undecided, four (4.5%) disagreed and 10 (11.4%) strongly disagreed that school management created awareness within the school on the importance of co-existence among students and communities living in the study area. The finding implied that most 54 (64.8%) of student leaders agreed that their school management had made efforts to disseminate peace messages in school assemblies and other gathering (including parents meetings and annual general meetings). Nevertheless, only 14 (15.9%) of student leaders said that dissemination of peace messages did not happen in their institutions.

Composite data showed that 58.7% of student leaders admitted that they had seen interventions undertaken by school administration to manage conflict situations, 12.7% were not sure while 28.7% agreed that their schools had not yet made significant strides in being at the forefront in addressing conflict management issues. This outcome showed that there were some schools that had not yet taken the initiative of addressing ethnic conflicts in the lowland areas of Baringo County.

4.5.2 Teachers Responses on Interventions Made by School on Management of Ethnic Conflicts

Through questionnaires, teachers were asked to indicate the strategies and measures that their school management had put in place as a way of managing conflicts in the lowland areas of Baringo County, Kenya. The statements were measured on the following scale: They were given statements which were on a Likert scale of five: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, N-Undecided, D-Disagree and SD-Strongly Disagree. Teachers responses on interventions being done are presented on Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Teachers Responses on Intervention mechanisms by Schools on the Management of Ethnic Conflicts

	Statements	\$	SA	A		N		D		SD	
		f	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%	f	%	\mathbf{F}	%
i	The school is well fenced by the school management	22	20.0	10	9.1	13	11.8	20	18.2	45	40.9
ii	School management has employed security guards from the locality to guard the school	23	20.9	21	19.1	20	18.2	17	15.5	29	26.4
iii	School management engage Kenya police to escort students during times of conflicts	14	12.7	19	17.3	13	11.8	29	26.4	35	31.8
iv	School management provide counselling and help students affected by ethnic conflicts	14	12.7	30	27.3	31	28.2	8	7.3	27	24.5
v	School management disseminate messages of peaceful coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings	43	39.1	39	35.5	17	15.5	3	2.7	8	7.3
	Average	23	21.1	24	21.7	19	17.1	15	14.0	29	26.2

Key: f-frequency, %- percent **Source: Author** (2019)

The study results in Table 4.18 showed that 45 (40.9%) of teachers strongly disagreed and 20 (18.2%) disagreed that their school is well fenced (through a perimeter wall) all round the school. Only 23 (21.1%) strongly agreed and 24 (21.7%) agreed that their school management had erected a perimeter fence wall around the school. The findings implied that 65(59.1%) of teachers said that their schools were not secure because they had not been fenced appropriately, to prevent intruders from accessing the school premises hence increased likelihood of destruction or intrusion during times of ethnic conflicts.

Secondly, 29 (26.4%) of teachers strongly disagreed and 17 (15.5%) disagreed that their school had hired security personnel from the area to guard the school. However, only 23 (20.9%) strongly agreed and 21 (19.1%) agreed with the statement. This

showed that 44 (40.0%) of schools, in their effort to ensure the school environment is safe, have hired security guards from the locality, whereas 46 (41.9%) have not done so. In consideration of this finding, it was clear that there existed a challenge of school resources being lost and destroyed because some schools had yet to hire the private security guards. The reason for the inability to hire guards was lack of enough funds and the management did not factor them in the annual budget.

Thirdly, 35 (31.8%) of teachers strongly disagreed and 29 (26.4%) disagreed that their school administration engaged the services of security personnel (police and reservists) to escort students and teachers from and to school daily. Only 14 (12.7%) strongly agreed and 19 (17.3%) agreed whereas 13 (11.8%) were undecided on the statement. The results revealed that 64 (58.2%) of teachers agreed that no arrangements had been made yet with school administration to ensure students and teachers were escorted to and from school. The result showed that most teachers and learners were left at the mercy of the raiders or their family members while going to and from school hence risking their lives along the way during the period of ethnic conflicts.

Fourthly, when asked as to whether the school management provided support to teachers affected by ethnic conflicts, 14 (12.7%) strongly agreed, 30 (27.3%) agreed, 31 (28.2%) were not sure, 8 (7.3%) disagreed and 27 (24.5%) strongly disagreed. The result, therefore, implied that 44 (40.0%) of teachers agreed that necessary support was offered to students and teachers affected directly and indirectly by ethnic conflict but 35(31.8%) of teachers said that this did not happen in their school. The findings suggests that most schools were yet to put strong psychological and material support for its teachers and students in order to help them recover from incidents of conflict

that were grave and bad to them. The findings were in agreement with Kipkoech and Limo's (2017) study which found that teachers in secondary schools were not provided with adequate assistance as a result of trauma occasioned by post-election violence of 2007/2008.

Lastly, the findings showed that 43 (39.1%) of teachers strongly agreed and 39 (35.5%) agreed that their school management disseminated messages of peaceful coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings. However, 17 (15.5%) of teachers were not sure if this happened in their schools, three (2.7%) disagreed and eight (7.3%) strongly disagreed. The finding, therefore, showed that 82 (74.6%) of teachers agreed that efforts had been made by their schools management to communicate and speak about peaceful coexistence to students during assemblies and during parents annual general meetings and during parents meetings. This finding coincides with Waweru et al., (2018) research that found out that peace education lessons contributed to holistic education in Kiambu and Samburu counties. Through such lessons, forgiveness among students was evident (from warring tribes). Peace education also promoted mutual understanding within the school-between teachers, students and the communities around the school.

On average the findings showed that 47 (42.8%) of teachers agreed that there had been initiatives put in place by school management to address ethnic conflicts through peace messages to students and parents in the lower areas of Baringo County. 19 (17.1%) were not sure and 44 (40.2%) said that these initiatives were not prevalent in their schools. The findings, therefore, showed that more than 50% of schools had not yet started initiatives for addressing ethnic conflicts in their schools.

4.5.3 Principals Responses on Interventions Made on Management of Ethnic Conflicts

After getting information from teachers and students, the principals were asked to state the strategies that they were undertaking to ensure that peaceful coexistence was promoted in school and communities living around the school. All principals (18) provided various recommendations with regard to measures to be undertaken to address the negative effects of ethnic conflicts on teacher and student management in schools. Here is a summary of the many suggestions that they provided as Principal (No. 1) had this to say:

....demystify stereotypes, introduction of boarding facilities to avoid absenteeism of students, involve community in school programmes such as meetings for parents and religious activities and sensitise the community on the importance of peace for social and economic development.

The above outcome showed that some schools (four) had started boarding sections for both boys and girls to ensure that they were accommodated within the schools. This measure was successful through the support from National Government Constituency Development Fund (NG-CDF). Some schools (five) also wrote proposals to the Ministry of Education and NGO's like World Vision to help them in various initiatives. Another Principal (No. 15) indicated that:

....there was no sending of affected children home for fees, staying in contact with parents of affected students and working with local government administrators to update and advise on security issues.

The above information showed that efforts were being made to ensure that despite students not paying school fees, they could not be sent away to collect fees because there was no guarantee that majority of them would come back to school. Moreover, 4 principals indicated that they worked hand in hand with security personnel to ensure that information about security was shared and action taken was for the benefit of all.

Another Principal (No. 4) said this is what they were doing in their school to ensure education proceeds despite ethnic conflict prevalence:

....sourcing for bursary for students from CDF, Ministry of Education and other well-wishers. Fencing around the school and hosting some teachers in the schools through construction of staff houses.

This showed that the school management went extra mile in ensuring that students were not sent home for school fees by seeking bursaries and sponsorships for them. Further, two principals also said that they had tried to enhance the lighting system within the school compound to enable security men to see any intruders easily during the night. Two principals also suggested that the government should intensify their efforts in disarmament of communities; local leaders should hold barazas to educate their people on the importance of education. Three principals said that the community living around the school should be proactive in providing intelligence reports early to avert conflicts. Six principals said that political leaders should cooperate and work together to avoid political animosity which fuels ethnic conflicts.

4.5.4 BoM Members Responses on Interventions Made on Management of Ethnic Conflicts

The information was collected from BoM members on the interventions that their schools were doing to ensure education continuity despite prevalence of conflict. All (20) executive BOM members put forward various recommendations on how the devastating impact of ethnic conflicts on education management can be addressed as One BoM member (No. 3) said that this is what usually happens in their school:

....our school fees policy, our students are allowed to pay in instalments over an academic year, in case of indiscipline incidents police, community and chiefs are involved to assist students who sneak or drop out of school.

The response indicated that payment of fees had been made to be flexible and therefore, parents could pay fees without being under pressure that their children would be sent home. Moreover, four BOM members said that those students who sneaked from school or become truant were dealt with by working with the area security committee to discipline them and guide them to understand the importance of education. Another BoM Member (No. 12) mentioned that this is what was happening in their school:

....liaising with the security personnel and ensure that they provide adequate security during times of conflict. We are also working towards acquiring adequate infrastructure facilities to have all students from conflict areas reside in school and not sent away after the school have closed especially girls.

This showed proactive responses that the school administrators were undertaking in ensuring that learning by students was not interrupted in public secondary schools in lower areas of Baringo County, Kenya. Further, BoM (No. 10) also said the following:

.....sensitising and mobilising resources from the community to put up dormitory especially for the girl - child. To teachers, we motivate them by giving them food; breakfast, lunch and dinner. Teachers and students are also transported using school bus to shopping centres.

The findings, therefore, showed that various strategies were being put in place (depending on the school) to ensure that education was not halted and community members were involved to support expansion of infrastructural resources in the school.

4.6 Chapter Four Summary

This chapter covered the presentation of findings, their interpretation and discussion on the extent to which ethnic conflicts have influenced management of public secondary schools in the lower parts of Baringo County. The findings showed that ethnic conflicts affect the management of schools in Baringo County.

Findings from the student leaders indicated that there were high incidences of ethnic conflicts in the low land areas of Baringo County. The students confirmed that these

conflicts affected their schooling. Conflicts caused fear and displacement and this made students to miss school, more so, when there was an outbreak of conflicts.

Findings from teachers indicated that teachers were absent from school during incidences of conflict and this hindered implementation of curriculum as planned. Findings also showed that sometimes teachers were targets of attacks in the shopping centres where they had rented houses since most schools did not have teachers' quarters.

The school administration admitted that they had challenges in running schools in conflict areas because, in some instances, schools are used as refuge centres to hold the people displaced by violence. As a consequence, schools remained closed for long periods because the displaced people did not have anywhere to go. This factor also contributed to destruction and dilapidation of infrastructural facilities in the school. The management of the schools in Baringo county lower areas had started disseminating peace messages during parents meetings in school and public barazas

as indicated by study findings. The findings also indicated that most schools had hired security guards from the locality to provide security to teachers and students. Some schools had constructed perimeter walls as a measure to mitigate conflicts.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The goal of this research was to examine the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone lowland areas of Baringo County. In chapter five, the findings of the study are summarised, conclusions drawn and recommendations made. Finally, the potential areas of future research are outlined.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study was conducted in the low land areas of Baringo that have experienced perennial conflicts. The secondary schools studied belonged to these zones; Mukutani and Mochongoi in Baringo South, Bartabwa and Sibilo in Baringo North Sub County and Tiaty and Tiaty East in Baringo East Sub Counties. The study collected data from executive BoM members, principals, teachers and student leaders from public secondary schools in the study area through interview schedules and questionnaires. The study discovered that the level of ethnic conflicts happening was on occasional basis and it mainly involved livestock raiding, injuries to people and displacement of individuals from their homes. The summaries of findings of the study are done based on study objectives.

5.2.1 Ethnic Conflicts and its Effect on Student Management

The study determined ethnic conflicts and its effect on students' management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. It was established that prevalence of ethnic conflicts increased students' absenteeism from school. Respondents also indicated that during times of conflict students were displaced together with their families thereby ending up in internally displaced camps. The

study findings also revealed that prevalence of ethnic conflicts intensified school drop-outs and repetition of classes. Even some students developed indiscipline behaviour such as sneaking out of school during insecurity times. These students ended up abusing drugs while girls got married off or got pregnant. The study findings also revealed that due to insecurity some students missed their exams and therefore progression to the next class became difficult. For those doing their KCSE examinations, arrangements were made for them to sit their examinations in areas with peace which destabilised their examination preparation leading to poor performance. This was evidenced in the study where it was noted that out of twenty students, only one had the chance of proceeding to university or tertiary education from the schools in the low land areas of Baringo County.

The study revealed that learning situation in secondary schools was sometimes halted due to government directive to close some schools and also parents withdrawing their children. This affected syllabus coverage and therefore made learners to lose majority of their instructional times while in displacement camps. The study found that during conflicts some students were emotionally affected and therefore their concentration in class diminished as the ethnic conflict escalated. This resulted in low transition of learners to higher levels of education, low completion rate and finally high dropout incidents. In general, the study found that prevalence of ethnic conflicts resulted in poor student management by administrators in public secondary schools in Baringo County lower regions.

The increased rate of insecurity also resulted in parents being unable to raise the required fees for their children. This was because ethnic conflicts resulted in cattle rustling that led to loss of income since livestock appeared to be the main economic

activity of majority of students' households in the study area. Another thing that emerged from the study was that ethnic conflict resulted in increased animosity amongst students from neighbouring communities. This made some parents to transfer their children from one school to another. In other cases, incidents of ethnic conflicts made some students to miss schools (for those in day schools) because their parents feared they would be attacked along the way to school.

5.2.2 Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management in Secondary Schools

The second objective of the study was to analyse the effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management in secondary schools in the lowland areas of Baringo County. All respondents agreed that teachers were negatively affected by ethnic conflicts that were happening in the study area. The study revealed that in times of conflict, teachers rarely went to school and those who went, reported late. The study also found that during conflict, teacher instructional activity and preparation was hampered. Additionally, teachers rarely attended their lessons and when they did, their classroom delivery was found to be low due to inadequate preparation.

Conflict situations made it impossible for curriculum supervisors (principals) to conduct instructional supervision in their schools. Teachers' capacity to monitor and evaluate their students became difficult as a result of insecurity. This was fuelled by the fact that there were irregular attendance patterns by students who were in day secondary schools. Thus, whereas other teachers in peaceful regions were in a position to complete their syllabus on time, those from lower areas of Baringo did not complete the syllabus within an academic year. The lack of completion of syllabus meant that the student did not get quality education that could make them to compete or be at par with their counterparts from other regions of the country.

The rate of teacher absenteeism was also found to be high in schools that had high incidents of ethnic conflicts. This was because most teachers feared for their lives and therefore most schools in the area where the study was done were understaffed. In one particular school that was visited, it was observed that majority of teachers available were the ones that were employed by the BoM as the TSC ones had sought transfers or absconded duty. This meant that qualified teachers employed by TSC were not available in schools during the times of conflict. This affected teacher moral and majority of them were not motivated to perform their duties as their security came before their jobs.

The challenges that came as a result of conflict on teachers' perspective led to deterioration in performance in secondary schools in national examinations. Another observation that the study made was that majority of schools was understaffed as teachers did not prefer to apply for permanent teaching positions in areas that were prone to conflicts. Even for those who applied, one principal said that due to their encounter with armed cattle rustlers, majority of them always sought transfers to schools that were in safer areas leaving students with no one to attend to. Ethnic conflicts made it difficult for the school management to replace or hire new teachers on BOM terms as even parents source of income (livestock) was stolen by bandits.

The study also found that some teachers were affected as some of their relatives and even students were victims of ethnic conflicts that were common in the study area. This affected their work productivity levels. To some extent the study established that teachers had a task to provide counselling to students who were psychologically affected by the continuing conflicts. This made the problem even worse as even

teachers needed psycho-social support to continue delivering the curriculum in school.

5.2.3 Challenges Secondary School Management Face during Ethnic Conflicts

The study also sought to establish the challenges faced by secondary school administrators in the lowland areas of Baringo County due to ethnic conflicts. The studyfound that various challenges were experienced by students, teachers, principals and board of management as a result of increased ethnic conflict in their areas. One of the challenges that came out of the study was that some schools were forced to close because of ethnic conflicts. As a result of sudden closure, the reopening period was not known and therefore majority of students remained at home leading to their delay (repetition) in finishing their secondary education.

Another challenge that came from the study was that due to insecurity, most households could not get income as some of their livestock were stolen and others displaced and hence payment of school fees became a problem that secondary schools management had to grapple with. Moreover, the principals reported that they were faced with the daunting task of whether to send students home for school fees or retain them in school with hopes that when the situation normalised, their parents would pay the fee balances.

The study findings also showed respondents indicated that ethnic conflicts led to destruction of school infrastructure such as classrooms, laboratories and dormitories. When the infrastructure facilities like classroom were destroyed, learning could not take place. In addition, when laboratory facilities were damaged, students could not perform practical activities. The other challenges as stated by principals and BoM members included: absenteeism of both teachers and students, inability of parents to

pay school fees, school facilities being used as rescue (camping sites) for displaced persons, lack of concentration in class, loss of school property, student indiscipline, inadequate staff, rumours around school that caused fear among teachers and students, inability to pay BoM teachers, lack of water and diminished self-esteem. The community culture contributed to early pregnancies and marriages of school going girls.

5.2.4 School Management Intervention Mechanisms to Conflicts

The fourth study objective sought to determine the intervention strategies undertaken by school management to ensure that schools went on despite the rise in ethnic conflict in the lower areas of Baringo County. The study found that most schools had made significant efforts in ensuring that school compounds were properly fenced to keep away intruders and also secured school property. Another intervention that came out of the study was that schools had made local arrangement to employ more security guards who guarded the school property during the day and night although at an additional cost to the school management.

To ensure security of students to and from schools, some schools were found to have made local arrangements with the Kenya Police and reservists to escort teachers and students daily to and from school. This ensured that learning proceeded without disruption. To students and teachers affected by the trauma caused by experiencing ethnic conflicts, the study found that some schools had initiated counselling sessions to enable the affected recover and continue with their studies and duties. In some schools, the study found that proper arrangements were made to house teachers within the school compound. However, most schools were found to have living quarters for

principals only leaving teachers to seek accommodation in the neighbouring shopping centres.

To promote peaceful coexistence, study results showed that secondary schools management were at the forefront in advocating for peace within and outside the school. They made great efforts in educating the parents and community members on the need for living together in harmony and unity. Although this practice was found to be only limited during assembly meetings and parents meeting gatherings which happened rarely in schools. Some principals said that they had tried to enhance the lighting system within the school compound to enable security men to see the intruders even during the night. Some BoM members suggested that government should intensify the efforts of disarming the communities and those local leaders should hold meetings (barazas) to educate their people on the importance of education.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that prevalence of ethnic conflicts increased students' absenteeism from school, displacement of students, increase in school drop-outs and repetition of classes. As a result of ethnic conflictprevalence, students sometimes missed to sit for final exams which affect their education progression while other student failed to sit for examinations because their schools were closed abruptly in case violence escalated. Similarly, prevalence of ethnic conflicts led to death of students and destruction of their school properties like uniforms and books.

Concerning the effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management, it was found out hat as a result of conflict, it was impossible for teachers to go to schools and this affected

syllabus coverage because of teacher unavailability. Teachers from the locality, who were the majority, stayed at home to take care of their livestock from being stolen while teachers from other regions kept off the school completely. They also feared for their lives and therefore most schools in the area where the study was done were understaffed. The study results indicated that teachers arrived late in school when there was an outbreak of conflicts. The study therefore made the conclusion that ethnic conflicts led to poor syllabus coverage by teachers' hence poor performance by students.

The study revealed that ethnic conflicts caused death of both students and teachers resulting in closure of schools for long periods. School administrators were faced with the problem of students disappearing from schools for long periods without knowing their whereabouts. Similarly, conflicts led to destruction of school infrastructure such as classrooms, laboratories and sanitation areas. Conflicts also caused loss of schools' teaching and learning resources such as textbooks and stationery and sometimes livestock belonging to the school were also stolen. The study concluded that because of ethnic conflicts, there was absenteeism of both teachers and students and lack of concentration in class. Ethnic conflicts had also contributed to students' indiscipline and early pregnancies among the girls because of the prolonged closure of schools. The schools were affected because the parents were unable to pay school fees due to poverty occasioned by livestock theft. The study also concluded that the use of school facilities to serve as rescue centres, (camp sites) for displaced persons, led to mutilation of school infrastructure and teaching and learning resources including shortage of water. It was also the conclusion of the study that because of the frequent conflicts there was an acute shortage of teachers in the schools in this area.

Majority of the school management had not erected perimeter wall around their school. Not all school management engage Kenya police service to assist in security matters in the schools where the study was done. Majority of the schools recruited people from the community to provide security services for the school. However, the school management provide assistance to students and teachers displaced by ethnic conflicts. Further, it was established that the school management disseminated messages of peaceful coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings. The principals have tried to enhance the lighting system within their school compounds to enable security men to see the intruders during the night.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, this section gives the recommendations for practical, policy and theoretical actions among various stakeholders that comprises of; school management, teachers, community members, the county government, Non- Governmental Organisations and the national government.

(i) The government needs to intensify its efforts in disarmament of all the communities and seal loopholes that bring in arms to the country. Without arms the communities will be able to live peacefully between each other and ethnic conflicts will be eradicated. The communities should be sensitized on the dangers of the outdated cultural practices of cattle rustling and instead a different means of livelihood be introduced to them. When cattle rustling is eliminated, fear, intimidation and displacement will no longer be an issue. Consequently, more children will be able to attend, remain and complete their schooling, leading to improved societal and economic growth. The Ministry of Education together with the Ministry of Interior need to provide police to

guard schools during periods of conflict to avoid disruption of learning and school closure. All schools in conflict areas to be made boarding and teachers to be provided with residential houses in schools for the sake of their safety.

- (ii) With regard to teachers, the Ministry of Education in conjunction with TSC and the Ministry of Interior need to come up with policies that are flexible so that during conflicts teachers are given a safe exit from the conflict region. The security forces (police) need to be sent to every school immediately conflicts erupt to evacuate the teachers who are not from the community to avoid injuries and deaths, because sometimes they are targeted by the raiders.
- (iii) The TSC should employ guidance and counselling teacher in schools that are affected by conflict to provide psychosocial support to both the teachers and the learners. The Ministry of Education should set up a special kitty to fund schools in conflict-prone regions of Kenya immediately after a conflict to enable quick return to normalcy. This will enable restoration of destroyed facilities to the required standards in order to support teaching and learning process.
- (iv) With regard to intervention measures, the study suggests that KICD should develop a curriculum for peace education to be implemented in all schools. When implemented, this would help to prevent and resolve conflict peacefully. The elite and the professionals from the community together with the local leaders should hold regular meetings (barazas) to educate their people on the importance of peace and teach them other means of livelihoods.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The study came up with the following suggestions for further research in the conflictprone areas:

- 1. Cultural practices and their effect on the management of educational institutions
- 2. FGM and its effect on the education of girls in the conflict regions
- 3. Effect of cattle rustling on the education of boys in conflict-prone regions
- 4. Effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of primary schools in the conflict-prone regions.

REFERENCES

- Abaya, J. O. (2011). How Secondary School Principals Build Trust in Kenyan Secondary schools. D.Phil Thesis, University of Missouri-Columbia, USA.
- Achilleas, K. (2014). A Complex Systems Perspective on English Language Teaching: A Case of a Language School in Greece. PhD Thesis, The University of Manchester, UK.
- Adan, M.A. &Orodho, J.A. (2016). Effect of Inter-clan Conflicts on Quality Outcomes in Secondary Schools among the Nomadic Communities in Mandera County. IOSR Journal of Research and Methods in Education (IOSR-JRME) e-ISSN;2320-7388, P-ISSN:2320-737X. Vol6 Issue 3 Verill. (May-June) 2016).
- African Union-AU (2010). Policy Framework for Pastoralism in Africa: Securing Protecting and Improving the Lives, Livelihoods and Rights of Pastoralist Communities. Department of Rural Economy and Agriculture, AU, Addis Ababa.
- Akintunde, O. &Selzing-Musa, G. (2016). Environmental insecurity and the Nigerian child's learning: Coping strategies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 4(1), 13-17.
- Akiwumi, A. M. (1999). Report of the Judicial Commission Appointed to Inquire into Tribal Clashes in Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Akresh, R., & De Walque, D. (2008). Armed Conflict and Schooling: Evidence from the 1994 Rwandan Genocide. World Bank Working Paper No. 4606. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Alderman, H. & Kinsey, M. (2006). A Focus on the Internally Displaced Conflict Victims in Northern Kenya. Nairobi: DTP Karimi Publishers.
- Alvesson, M. & Karreman, D. (2011). Qualitative Research and Theory Development. Mystery as Method.
- Amalu, M. & Abuo, C. B. (2019). Psychosocial Variables and Sustainable Safety Environment in Secondary Schools in Calabar Education Zone. *International Journal of Arts and Humanities Ethiopia*, 8 (1), 151–157.
- Anderson, R. (2004). A definition of Peace: Peace and Conflict. *Journal of Peace Psychology*, 10 (2), 101-116.
- Apollos, M. (2012). Conflict Transformation. Centre for Conflict Resolution. Kenya.
- Ashby, R.W. (1964). Introduction to Cybernetics. London: RoutledgeKegan& Paul
- Barenbaum, J., Ruchkin, V., & Schwab-Stone, M. (2004). The psychosocial aspects of children exposed to war: practice and policy initiatives. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 45(1), 41-62.

- Baringo County Integrated Development Plan 2018-2022.
- Baringo County Integrated Development Plan 2013-2017
- Barnett-Vanes, A., Hassounah, S., Shawki, M., (2016). Impact of conflict on medical education: a cross sectional survey of students and institutions in Iraq. BMJ Open 2016;6:e010460. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2015-010460.
- Bartleff, J. (2001). Organizational Research. Determining appropriate Sample Size in Survey Research. Retrieved February 4, 2019 from http://citeseerx.ist,psu.edu/viewdoc/download
- Bartlett T. A. (2009). Teaching Teachers to Teach Peace: A Reflective Pre-Service Case Study. MA Thesis, University of Toronto, Canada.
- Basha, M. (1998). *Ethnic Diversity and Foreign Policy in Sudan*. Centre for Strategic Studies, Khartoum. pp.11-13.
- Bear, G. (2003). *Research reviews: Violence prevention*. Delaware: National Association of School Psychologists.
- Bensalah K., Saba B. (2001). Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis: Challenges for the New Century. Reissue of Thematic Study, Paris: UNESCO.
- Befekadu, Z. & Diribssa A. (2005). *Inter-State Ethnic Conflict; Theory and Implications for Ethiopia*. In the OSSREA proceedings of the 2nd national workshop of the Ethiopian chapter oct. 2005. Addis Ababa.
- Bensalah, K. (ed.) (2002). Guidelines for Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis. EFA Strategic Planning, UNESCO, Ed2002/WS/33, Paris.
- Bertoni, E., Molini, V., Di Maio, M. &Nistico, R. (2018). *Education is Forbidden:* The Effect of the Boko Haram Conflict on Education in North-East Nigeria. Working Paper No. 495. Centre for Studies in Economics and Finance, University of Naples.
- Bird, K., Kate and Kate G., & Higgins, K. (2009). Conflict, Education and the Intergenerational Transmission of Poverty in Northern Uganda. ODI Project Briefing No. 23. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Bird, L. (2007). Children in crisis: Education rights for children in conflict affected and fragile states. Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008, Education for All by 2015: will we make it? UNESCO, Paris.
- Blattman, C., & Miguel, E. (2010). Civil war. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 48(1), 3-57. Brown

- Bruck, T., Di Maio, M., &Miaari, S. H. (2014). *Learning the hard way: The effect of violent conflict on student academic achievement* (HiCN Working Paper 185). Brighton, United Kingdom: Households in Conflict Network.
- Burton J (1990). Conflict: resolution and Prevention. The Macmillan Press Ltd, London.
- Bush, K.D. &Saltarelli, D. (2000). The Two Faces of Education in Ethnic Conflict: Towards a Peace building Education for Children, [Online] UNICEF Innocenti Insights, Florence, Italy. Available from: http://www.unicefirc.org/publications/pdf/insight4.pdf [Accessed on 21/11/2018)
- Buvinic, M., Das Gupta, M. &Shemyakina, O.N. (2014). Armed Conflict, Gender and Schooling. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 28(2), 311 319.
- Cervantes-Duarte, L. & Fernandez-Cano, A. (2016). Impact of Armed Conflicts on Education and Educational Agents: A Multi-vocal Review. RevistaElectrónicaEducare (Educare Electronic Journal), 20(3), 1 24.
- Chen, S., Loayza, N.V., & Reynal-Querol, M. (2007). The Aftermath of civil war. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 4190. World Bank, Washington, DC.
- Cochran, W.G. (1977). *Sampling Techniques*(3rd Ed). New York. John Wiley and Sons.
- Coenders, M. &Scheepers, P. (2003). The Effect of Education on Nationalism and Ethnic Exclusion. An international Comparison. Political Psychology, 24(2), pp. 313-43.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (5th Ed.). London and New York.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th Ed.). London and New York.
- Cole, E. (2012). *Teaching about the Past. Doha, Qatar. Education for All*. Available from http://www.ineesite.org/uploadss/files/resources/EAA-Education for Global Citizenship.pdf .Accessed 15 February 2019.
- Collier, P., Hoeffler, A. &Rohner, D. (2006). Beyond greed and grievance: feasibility and civil war. Centre for the study of African economies, Working Paper Series 2006/10, University of Oxford, Oxford.
- Collins, R. (2007). Functional and conflict theories of educational stratification. In Sadovnik, A.R. (Ed.) (2007). *Sociology of education a critical reader*. New York: Routledge.
- Correa, M.J. (2013). Outsiders no More? Models of Immigrant Political Incorporation. Oxford: Russel Sage.

- Coser, L.A. (1996). Masters of sociological thoughts ideas in historical and social Context. Jaipur: Rawat Pub.
- CRECO, (2012). Building a Culture of Peace in Kenya. Baseline Report on Conflict Mapping and Profiles of 47 Counties in Kenya.
- Creswell, J.W. (2007). Qualitative inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among five traditions. London. Sage publications.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014). Research Design.International Student Edition. Qualitative, Quantitative And Mixed Methods Approaches (4th edition). London. Sage publications.
- Cukier, W. &Sidel, V.W. (2006). The Global Gun Epidemics from Saturday night special to AK-47s. West Port C.T and London: Praeges Security International
- Dabalen, A., L & Paul, S. (2012). Estimating the Causal Effect of Conflict on Education in Cote D'Ivoire. World Bank Working Paper No. 6077. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Dal Bo, E. Robert, G., & Powell, J. (2007). *Conflict and Compromise in Hard and Turbulent Times*. DPS Working Paper No. 3. Berkeley: University of California, Department of Political Science.
- Davies, L. (2004). Education and Conflict: Complexity and Chaos. London.
- Davies, L. (2005). Schools and war: urgent agendas for comparative and international education. Compare 35 (4), 357-371.
- deSoysa, I. (2002). Eco-violence: Shrinking Pie, or Honey Pot? Global Environmental Politics 2:4, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- deWalque, D. (2006). The socio-demographic legacy of the Khmer Rouge period in Cambodia. *Population studies*, 60(2), 223-231.
- Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of Practice: a Research Paradigm for the Mixed Methods Approach. Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 2(3), 270-80.
- Department For International Development (2001). *The Causes of Conflict in Sub-Saharan Africa*; Framework Document, DFID, London.
- Department For International Development (2001). Children out of school, Issues Paper, DFID, London.
- Dereje, Seyoum (2010). The role of local governments in conflict management: The case of Miesoworeda, in Anthropology of peace and security research, Institute of peace and security studies in collaboration with Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, Addis Ababa Ethiopia

- Draman R (2003). Poverty and Conflicts in Africa: Expanding a Complex Relationship. Final Draft of paper for Expert Group Meeting on Africa-Canada Parliamentary Strengthening Program, Addis Ababa,May 19-23, 2003. Retrieved on 6th of April, 2021 fromhttp//www.parlcent.ca/povertyreduction/seminar
- Dryden-Peterson, S. (2009). Barriers to Accessing Primary Education in Conflict-Affected Fragile States. London: Save the Children.
- Duffy, T.M. (2003). The Geography of Ethnic Violence: Identity, Interests, and the Indivisibility of Territory. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Dunlop, E. A. (2015). Ethnic Difference & Conflict in Burundian Schools: Experiences of Different Student Generations. MA Thesis, University of Toronto, Canada.
- Dyan M. & Kristopher, C. (2006). The Girl Child and Armed Conflict; Recognizing and addressing grave violations of girls' human Rights: UN division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) Florence, Italy 25-28 September 2006.
- Easterly, W. (2009). How the millennium development goals are unfair in Africa. *World Development*, 37 (1), 26-35.
- Fearon, J.D. (2003). Ethnic and Cultural Diversity by Country. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 8: 195. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1024419522867.
- Fredriksen, B. (2009). Rationale, Issues and Conditions for Sustaining the Abolition of School Fees in World Bank, ed., Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Mozambique. Pp 1-39. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Gaily, B. (2019). Ethnic and Cultural Conflicts as a Global Phenomenon; Causes and Consequences.
- Gates, S., Hegre, H., Nygard, H. M., & Strand, H., (2012). Development Consequences of Armed Conflict. *World Development*, 40(9), 1713-1722.
- Gay, L. R., Mills G. E. & Airasian, P. (2009). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. Pearson Education Upper Saddle River: NJ.
- GCPEA.(2014). *Education under attack*. New York: GCPEA [Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack].
- Gay, L. R., Mills, E. G. & Aurasian, P. (2006). *Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and application* (8th Ed.). Pearson, Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Gleditsch, N.P., Wallensteen, P., Eriksson, M., Sollenberg, M., Strand, H. (2002). Armed conflict 1946-2001: a new data Set. *Journal of Peace research* 39 (5), 615-637.

- Global Monitoring Report (2011). *The Hidden Crisis: armed conflict and education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- GoK (Government of Kenya) (2010a). Draft Sessional Paper on Policy for the Sustainable Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid areas.
- Gomez, S. C. (2017). "Civil Conflict and Educational Achievement: The Case of the Colombian Secondary School Exit Examination". *Colombia Internacional*, (92), 73-103. DOI: dx.doi.org/10.7440/colombiaint92.2017.03.
- Gray, S., Sunal, M., Wiebusch, B, Little, M. A., Leslie, P. W. & Pike, I. L. (2003). Cattle raiding, cultural survival, and adaptability of East African pastoralists. *Current Anthropology*, 44 (55), 3-30.
- Goodhand, J. (2003). Enduring Disorder and Persistent Poverty: A Review of the Linkages between Ward and Chronic Poverty. World Development, 31(3): 629 646.
- Government of Kenya (2006). Draft National Policy for the sustainable development of arid and semi-arid lands of Kenya. pp 16-40.
- Green, J. &Thorogood, N. (2009). Qualitative Methods for Health Research. New York: SAGE.
- Greiner, C. (2012). Unexpected Consequences: Wildlife Conservation and Territorial conflicts in Northern Kenya, Human Ecology, Online first. Department of Cultural and Social Anthropology, University of Cologne, Germany.
- Hamman, A. T. & Muhammad, K. (2017). Unsecure School Environment and School Phobic Behaviour. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(9), 49 52.
- Handjani, M. (2014). *Managing diversity to achieve ethnic inclusion in multi-ethnic secondary schools*. MED Thesis, United Institute of Technology, New Zealand.
- Hanson, M.E. (2003). *Educational Administration and Organizational Behaviour*. Boston. Pearson Education Inc.
- Horowitz, D.L. (2000). *Ethnic Groups in Conflict*.Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Hoy, W.K. & Miskel, C.G. (2005). Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice. New York McGraw-Hill
- Human Rights Watch (2013). World Report 2013. Annual Review of Human Rights around the Globe.
- Human Rights Watch (2012). World Report 2012. Events of 2011.

- Hussein, K. (2004). Conflicts between Farmers and Herders in the Semi-Arid Sahel and East Africa: A review. Oversees Department Group University of East Anglia, 2004.
- Ignace, A. (2014). Assessment of Heads of Schools' Strategies in Managing Conflicts in Secondary Schools: A Case of Kinondoni Municipality. MED Dissertation, University Of Tanzania.
- Ikiara, M.J. (2011). *The Role of Psycho-cultural Factors in Ethnic Conflicts in Africa*. The Case of Kenya 1990-2009.
- Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies (2004): Working Group on Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies. Geneva: INEE (www.ineesite.org/standards/overview.asp, 07.08.2018).
- INEE. (2010). *Minimum Standards for Education: Preparedness, Response, Recovery*. New York: Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies.
- Kapng'ok, D.L. (2017). Factors contributing to conflict among the pastoral communities: The case of Baringo South Sub County, Baringo County, Kenya. MA Project, University of Nairobi.
- Kimaiyo, D.K. (2016). Women involvement in cattle rustling between the Marakwet and the Pokot communities of North-Western Kenya. PhD Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Kosonen, K. & C. Young (2009). Mother Tongue as Bridge
- Iqbal, K., Khalil, U. & Khan, A. (2017). Perceptions of Secondary School Teachers Regarding the Role of Education in Social Conflict Resolution. *Bulletin of Education and Research December*, 39(3), 157 170.
- Isaac, A. (2001). Education, Conflict and Peace building. A Working Diagnostic Tool. Prepared for the Peace building Unit, CIDA, Ottawa (Draft).
- Jnawali, T.P. (2012). Educationand Conflict in Nepal: Impact of Violence on Schools and the Role of Education in Peace building. D. Phil Thesis, Liverpool John Moores University, UK.
- Jones, A., & Naylor, R. (2014). The quantitative impact of armed conflict on education: Counting the human and financial costs. Reading, UK: CfBT Education Trust and PEIC.
- Justino, P. (2010). *How does violent conflict impact on individual educational outcomes?* The evidence so far (Background paper prepared for the Education For All Global Monitoring Report 2011). Paris: UNESCO.
- Justino, P. (2015). Barriers to Education in Conflict Affected Countries and Policy Opportunities. Institute of Development Studies. UNESCO.

- Justino, P. (2016). Supply and demand restrictions to education in conflict-affected countries: New research and future agendas. International Journal of Educational Development, 47, 76-85.
- Justino, P., Leone, M., &Salardi, P. (2014). Short-and long-term impact of violence on education: The case of Timor Leste. The World Bank Economic Review, 28(2), 320-353.
- Justino, P. (2014). "Barriers to Education in Conflict-Affected Countries and Policy Opportunities". Paper commissioned for Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UIS/UNICEF, 2015). Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). URL: http://allinschool.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/OOSC-2014-Conflict-and-education-final.pdf
- Kaliakamur, E., Thinguri, R. & Chui, M.M. (2018). An Investigation of the Influence of Insecurity on the Management of Syllabus Coverage in Public Primary Schools in West PokotCounty, Kenya. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 4(3), 174 195.
- Kareithi, J.N (2000). Food Security in Turkana District, Kenya. External Interventions and Society Responses to Arid Zone Livelihood Risks. PHD Thesis, School of Graduate Studies, Moi University
- Kareithi, J.N (2015). The Multi-Factoral Nature of Inter-Ethnic Conflicts in North Rift Frontier Border Lands, Kenya. Implications on Pastoral Welfare And Livelihoods. *Journal of Anthropology and Archaeology*, 3(1),
- Katam, E.J. (2004). Impact of Cattle Rustling on Curriculum on Implementation in tot division of Marakwet district, Kenya. MED Project, Kenyatta University, Kenya.
- Kathryn, T. & Pauline, B. (2005). *Education and Conflict: Research and Research possibilities*. National Foundation for Education Research.
- Katz, D.L.K. (1969). Common characteristic of open systems. *In systems thinking, edited by F.E. Emery*. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin Books Limited.
- Kaufman, C. (1996). Possible and Impossible Solutions to Ethnic Wars: International.
- Kibris, A. (2015). The Conflict Trap Revisited Civil Conflict and Educational Achievement. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 59(4), 645-670
- Kibunei S, &Timaiyu, N. (2010). Impact of Cattle Rustling on Curriculum Implementation in Tot Division of Marakwet District in Kenya. M.Ed. Thesis. Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.
- Kiliku, K. (1992). Report of the Parliamentary Select Committee to Investigate Ethnic Clashes in Western and Other Parts of Kenya. Nairobi: Government Printers

- Kimani, M. J. (2008). Access Management Ownership: The 'water and pasture menu' in pastoralist conflicts in the Greater Horn of Africa (GHoA). Natural resources conflicts in Africa: Is water really the new oil?' Conference UNECA, Addis Ababa-Ethiopia, 13–14 November, 2008
- Kipkoech, L. C. & Limo, A. (2017). Role of Head Teachers and Teachers in Managing Conflicts during the 2008 post-Election Violence Period in Secondary Schools in the Rift Valley Region, Kenya. *Journal of African Interdisciplinary Studies*: 1, 2, 23-32.
- Kipturu, J. Kapai, J. &Nabuya, V. (2010). Memorandum by East Pokot Leaders, Professional and Community Council of Elders to Hon. Andrew Ligale, the Chair of Interim Independent Boundaries Commission (IIBRC).
- KNCHR (2018). A Report presented on 20/6/2018 at Boma Inn Eldoret. Eldoret: KNHCR.
- Kombo, D.K. & Tromp, L.A. (2009). *Proposal and Thesis Writing*. Nairobi: Pauline Publications Africa
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques (2nd Ed.). New Delhi.
- KTTF (2008). Kenya Thabiti Task Force. Root Causes and Implications of the Post Election Violence of 2007. Inter-Religious Forum. July 2009.
- Kumssa, A. Jones, J. F. Williams, J. H. (2009). *Conflict and human security in the North Rift and North Eastern Kenya*. International J. Soc.Econ., 36(10): 1008-1020.
- Lai, B., &Thyne, C. (2007). The effect of civil war on education, 1980-97. *Journal of Peace Research*, 44(3), 277-292
- Lange, M. & Dawson, A. (2008). 'Intolerance Education: An investigation of the effect of Societal Education on Ethnic Violence', In: Annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, Sheraton Boston and the Boston Marriott Copley Place, Boston, MA. Available from: http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p242331_index.html [Accessed on 29th July 2019].
- Lincoln, M. (2002). Conflict Resolution Commission: Patterns of Promoting Peaceful Schools.
- Lokira, W.L.L. (2007). *PokotEthnic Identity and its Contributions to Conflict with Other Communities*. M.A Thesis. School of Arts and Social Science, Moi University.
- Loku, M.M. (2013). Factors Affecting The Provision Of Quality Education In Public And Private Secondary Schools In Central Equatorial State, Juba County South Sudan. MED Thesis, The Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Kenya.

- Lokwete, A.K. (2013). Parents Balancing Between Insecurity and Schooling Needs of Children with Disabilities in Pokot North District, West PokotCounty, Kenya.MED Thesis, Kenyatta University, Kenya.
- Lolchuraki S. J. (2013). Influence Of Cattle Rustling On Provision Of Quality Education In Public Secondary Schools In Samburu East District, SamburuCounty, Kenya. MED Project, University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Lowhorn, G. (2007). *Qualitative and Quantitative Research.How to Choose the Best Design*. Presented at Academic Business World International Conference. Nashville Tennessee, May, 2007. Available at: http://ssrn.com/abstract-2235986. Retrieved November 25 2018
- Ludwig, V.B. (1968). General Systems Theory Foundations, Development, Applications. New York,
- George BrazillenMamdani, M. (2009). Saviours and Survivors. New York: Pantheon Books and Colophon.
- MacEwen, L., Choudhuri, S. & Bird, L. (2010). *Education sector planning: working to mitigate the risk of violent conflict*. Background paper for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011. Retrieved 19 December 2018 from: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190707e.pdf
- Maestri, V. (2017). Can ethnic diversity have a positive effect on school achievement? *Education Economics*, 25(3), 290 303, DOI: 10.1080/09645292.2016.1238879.
- Manyok, M.A. (2015). What influences a teacher's decision to leave or remain in teaching? A case of Dr. John Garang memorial and Juba Day Secondary Schools in Juba County, Central Equatorial State, Republic of South Sudan. MED Thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg South Africa.
- Marquez-Padilla, F., Perez-Arce, F. & Rodriguez-Castelan, C. (2015). The (Non-) Effect of Violence on Education Evidence from the "War on Drugs" in Mexico. RANDLabor & Population, WR-1082.
- Marques, J. &Bannon, I. (2003). Central America: Education Reform in a Post-Conflict Setting, Opportunities and Challenges. Social Development Department Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network, Working Paper No. 4. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Martinez, M.J. (2017). "Conflicts Based on Race/Ethnicity Among Latina/o Students in Schools" D.Phil Dissertation, (2009-). 703. https://epublications.marquette.edu/dissertations_mu/703
- Maslow, A. H. (1987). *Motivation and Personality* (3rd. Ed.). New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

- Mayai, A.T. (2017). *The Impact of War on Schooling in South Sudan, 2013-2016*. Juba: The Sudd Institute.
- Medhine, T. (2003). Turning conflict to cooperation: Towards Energy-Led Integration. In the Horn of Africa. Addis Ababa: Fredrick-Ebert Stiftung
- Miguel, E.& Roland, G. (2006). *The long run impact of bombing Vietnam*. National Bureau of Economic Research Working paper 11954. University of California, Berkeley.
- Mishra, S. (2013). Educational Significance of Conflict Theory. An International Journal of Education, I(1), 1-7.
- Mkutu, K. A. (2008). Guns and Governance in the Rift Valley: Pastoralist Conflicts and Small Arms. Nairobi: East Africa Educational Publishers
- Mokoro, & Mesgen, (2010). *Improving the Provision of Basic Services for the Poor in Fragile Environments*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Morgan, D. (2007). *Paradigms Lost and Pragmatism Regained;* Methodological Implications of Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods.
- Morris, H.S. (1968). "Ethnic Groups" in the International Encyclopaedia of the social Sciences, edited by David .. Sills, Crowell Collier and Macmillan Inc.... Volume (11).
- Moru, E. (2010). 'Adaptation to Climate Variability among the dry land population in Kenya: A case study of the Turkana Pastoralists'. Msc Thesis Wageningen University, Netherlands. Unpublished.
- Msabila, D. &Nalaila, S. G. (2013). Research Proposal and Dissertation Writing. Principles and practice. Nyambira Nyangwine Publishers. Dar es Salam, Tanzania.
- Mudege, N.N., Zulu, E.M. &Izugbara, C. (2008). How Insecurity Impacts on School Attendance and School Dropout among Urban Slum Children in Nairobi. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 2 (1), 98 112.
- Musa, M., Meshak, B. &Sagir, J. I. (2016). Adolescents perception of the psychological security of school environment, emotional development and academic performance in secondary schools in Gombe Metropolis. *Journal of Education and Training Studies* 4(9), 132-149.
- Nahima, A. (2005) (ed.), *Peace Issues in Africa*, translated by Mustapha Magdi Al-Jamal, Dar Al-Ameen for Publishing and Distribution, Cairo.
- Najjuma, R. (2011). Peace Education in the Context of Post-Conflict Formal Schooling: The Effectiveness of the Revitalising Education Participation and Learning in Conflict Affected Areas-Peace Education Programme in Northern Uganda. D. Phil Thesis, the University of Birmingham, UK.

- Nkuene, P. W. (2015). Influence Of Ethnic Conflict On Pupils' Participation In Education In Public Upper Primary Schools In Tigania East Division, MeruCounty, Kenya. MED Project, University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Obiechina, F.N., Abraham, N. M. &Nwogu, U. J. (2018). Perceived Impact of School Environmental Insecurity on Teachers' Productivity in Public Secondary Schools in Anambra State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovative Social & Science Education Research*, 6(4), 43 48.
- Ojukwu, M. O. &Nwanma, A.C. (2015).Influence of Insecurity of School Environment on the Behaviour of Secondary School Students in Isiala-Ngwa North and South Local Government Areas of Abia State, Nigeria.*International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 3(4), 49 55.
- Ojukwu, M.O. (2017). Effect of Insecurity of School Environment on the Academic Performance of Secondary School Students in Imo State. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 5(1), 20 28.
- Okrah, K.A. (2003). Toward global conflict resolution: Lessons from the Akan traditional judicial system. *Journal of Social Studies Research, Publication*.
- O'Malley, B. (2010). Education under attack. UNESCO, Paris.
- O'Malley, B. (2011). The Longer-Term Impact of Attacks on Education on Education Systems, Development and Fragility and the Implications for Policy Responses (Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011). Paris: UNESCO.
- Omoeva, C., Moussa, W. & Hatch, R. (2018). The Effect of Armed Conflict on Educational Attainment and Inequality. EPDC Research Paper No. 18-03. Education Policy and Data Center, Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, D.C., USA.
- Onsomu, E., Muthaka, D., Ngware, M. &Manda, D. (2006). Determinants and Strategies for Expanding Access to Secondary Education in Kenya. KIPPRADiscussion Paper No.56. Nairobi. Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research Analysis.
- Opongo, O. E. (2006). *Making Choices for Peace: Aid Agencies in Field Diplomacy*. Pauline Publications: Africa.
- Orodho, A.J. (2009). Techniques of writing research proposals and reports in education and social Sciences. Nairobi: KANE 2 J.A
- Oso, W.Y. &Onen, D. (2009). A General Guide to Writing Research Proposal and Report: A Handbook for beginning researchers (Revised Edition). Nairobi. The Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.

- Otunnu, O. (2002). A Special Comment. Children and Security Disarmament Forum. United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research: Geneva.
- Owan, V. J. (2018). Conflict management strategies and secondary school teachers' job effectiveness in Obubra Local Government Area of Cross River State, Nigeria. Unpublished B.Ed. Project Submitted to Department of Educational Administration and Planning, University of Calabar, Calabar.
- Paola, P., Magee, A. &Fyles, N. (2017). *Mitigating Threats to Girls' Education in Conflict-Affected Contexts*: Current Practice. United Nations Girls Education Initiative.
- Parker, C. A. &Bickmore, K. (2012). Conflict Management and Dialogue with Diverse Students: Novice Teachers' Approaches and Concerns. *Journal of Teaching and Learning*, 8(2), 47 64.
- Pkalya, R., Adan, M.&Masinde, I. (2003). Conflict in Northern Kenya. A focus on IDP victims in Northern Kenya. DTP Martin Karimi. Nairobi.
- Poirier, T. (2011). The effect of armed conflict on schooling in Sub-Saharan Africa. halshs-00561565v2.
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C.T. (2014). *Essentials of nursing research: Appraising evidence for nursing practice*. (8th ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams, & Wilkins.
- Raslan, A.F. (1986). The Theory of International Conflict: A Study in the Development of Contemporary International Family, The Egyptian General Book Organization, Cairo
- Reams, P. &Twale, D. (2008). The Promise of Mixed Methods: discovering conflicting realities in data. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 31(2), 133-136
- Ring, H.R., &West, A. R. (2015). Teacher retention in refugee and emergency settings: The state of the literature. *The International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 14(3), 106-121.
- Ritter, N. (2010). *Understanding a widely Misunderstood Statistic: 'Cronbach alpha'*. Paper Presented at South-western Educational Research Association. (SERA) Conference 2010: New Orleans; LAED 526237.
- Rodriguez, C. & Sanchez, L. (2009). Armed Conflict Exposure, Human Capital.
- Rodriguez, Catherine & Fabio Sanchez. (2012). "Armed conflict exposure, human capital investments, and child labour: Evidence from Colombia." *Defence and Peace Economics* 23 (2): 161-184.
- Ross. M.H. (2001). Psycho-Cultural Interpretations and Dramas: Identity Dynamics in Ethnic Conflict *Journal of Political l Psychology*. Vol.22 No.l

- Rusoke, P. B. (2015). Education, Disability and Armed Conflict: A Theory of Africanising Education in Uganda. Doctor of Education (EdD) in Special Educational Needs Thesis, University of Exeter, United Kingdom.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. &Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th Ed.). Pearson Education Limited. Prentice Hall.
- Save the Children, (2012). *Attacks on Education*. The impact of Conflict and Grave Violations on Children's Futures.
- Save the Children, (2011). Gaps in Accessing Formal and Non-Formal Education Opportunities for Youth in the Democratic Republic of Congo. London: Save the Children.
- Save the Children. (2008). Where Peace Begins: Education's Role in Conflict Prevention and Peace Building. London: Save the Children. Retrieved 27 August 2019 from:http://resourcecentre.savethechildren.se/content/library/documents/where peace-begins-education per centE2 per cent80 per cent99s-role-conflict prevention-and-peace building
- Shany A. (2016). Too Scared for School? The effect of terrorism on Israeli student achievement. Department of Economics, Hebrew University of Jerusalem.
- Sharamo, R. (2014). *The politics of pastoral violence: A case study of Isiolocounty, Northern Kenya* (Working Paper 095). Brighton: Future Agricultures. http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/pdf/outputs/Futureagriculture/FAC_Working_Paper_09 5.pdf
- Shemyakina, O. (2011). "The Effect of Armed Conflict on Accumulation of Schooling: Results from Tajikistan", Journal of Development Economics, 95(2), 186-200.
- Shields, R., & Paulson, J. (2015). Development in reverse '? A longitudinal analysis of armed conflict, fragility and school enrolment. Comparative education, 51(2), 212-230.
- Shuttleworth,M. (2018 Sept) *Research Hypotheses.Explorable*. Retrieved from http://explorable.com/users/martyn
- Singh, P. &Shemyakina, O. (2013). "Gender-Differential Effect of Conflict on Education: The Case of the 1981-1993 Punjab Insurgency." *Households in Conflict Network HiCN Working Papers 143*. URL: http://www.hicn.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/HiCN-WP-143.pdf
- Siphiwe, E.M. (2013). Dynamics of School-Based Violence: Exploring School Governing Bodies in Addressing Violence in Post-Conflict South African Schools. D.Phil Thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

- Smith A. (2001). "Nationalism: Theory, Ideology, History". Cambridge: Polity: 54-55.
- Smith, A. (2010). *The influence of education on conflict and peace building*. Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, The hidden crisis: armed conflict and education, UNESCO, Paris.
- Smith, A. (2014). Contemporary Challenges for Education in Conflict Affected Countries. *Journal of International and Comparative Education*, 3(1), 113 125.
- Smith, A.,& Vaux, T., (2003). *Education, conflict and development. London:* Department of International Development.
- Smith, A. (2014). "Contemporary Challenges for Education in Conflict Affected Countries." *Journal of International and Comparative Education* 3 (1): 113-125. URL: http://jice.um.edu.my/filebank/published_article/6286/1Smith.pdf
- Sommers, M. (2002). Youth: Care & Protection of Children in Emergencies: A Field Guide. Washington, DC: Children in Crisis Unit, Save the Children US.
- Sommers, M. (2003). Children, education and war. Reaching Education for All objectives in countries affected by conflict. Working Papers No. 1, June 2003, World Bank, Washington.
- Standard Digital, (2017). Shortage of Teaching and Learning Materials in IDP Camps. 16th July,
- Standard Digital, (3rd March, 2014). County Order of Merit.
- Sustainable Development Goals Report 2016, Agenda 2030
- Suter, L.E. (2005). Multiple Methods: Research Methods in Education Projects at NSF. *International Journal of Research and Methods in Education*, 28(2) 171-175. 66.
- Swee (2009). 'On War and Schooling Attainment: The Case of Bosnia and Herzegovina' HiCN Working Paper 57.
- Tahir, M.K.F., Arshad, F., Muhammad H. A.K., &Ghaffar, A. (2015).Interplay of Conflict Management Styles with Teachers' Performance.*International Journal of AYER*, 1, 305-320.
- Tashakkori, A. &Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Thomas, P. (2011). The effect of armed conflict on schooling in Sub-Saharan Africa. halshs00561565v2

- Thuo, K. (2010). Global Influences in Educational Policymaking: Free Secondary Education in Kenya. *Research in Post Compulsory Education*, 16 (3), 275-287.
- Toros, K. (2013). School-Based Intervention in the Context of Armed Conflict: Strengthening Teacher Capacity to Facilitate Psychosocial Support and Well-Being of Children. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(7), 228 237.
- Tropp, L.R. (2011). When Groups Meet: The Dynamics of Inter-Group Contact. Oxford: Psychology Press, 10-65.
- TSA.(2014). *National security profile for the Republic of Kenya*. Port Louis: TSA. http://thinksecurityafrica.org/wordpress/wpcontent/uploads/National-Security-Profile-Kenya.pdf
- UNESCO (2002) *Education For All. Is The World On Track?* EFA GlobalMonitoring Report, UNESCO Publishing, Paris.
- UNESCO, (2005). Cultural diversity in the era of globalization (Accessed 25 September 2018)
- UNESCO, (2010)..*EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010.Reaching the Marginalized*. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved 27 January 2019 from: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186606e.pdf
- UNESCO,(2011).EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011.The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved 16 December 2018from:http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0019/001907/190743e.pdf
- UNICEF, (2016). Violent Conflict and Educational Inequality. Lit Review; FHI 360, Education policy and Data Centre, Washington DC.
- United Nations (2010). Children and Armed Conflict: Report of the Secretary-General. New York: United Nations General Assembly and Security Council.
- United Nations (2012). Youth and Skills; Putting Education to Work. Education For All Monitoring Report.
- United Nations (2016). Report on Sustainable Development, Agenda 2030: NewYork
- Valente, C. (2011). "What did the Maoists ever do for us? education and marriage of women exposed to civil conflict in Nepal." World Bank Policy Research Working Paper Series 5741. URL: http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/292931468062633909/pdf/WPS5741.pdf
- Vanhanen.T, (2012). Ethnic Conflicts: Their Biological Roots in Ethnic Nepotism, Ulster Institute for Social Research.

- Vespoor, A.M. (2008). At the Crossroads for Choices for Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Washington DC, World Bank
- Wachira, P.N. (2015). Influence of Ethnic Conflict on Pupils Participation in Education in Public Upper Primary Schools in Tigania East Division, MeruCounty. M.Ed Thesis. Education in Emergencies, University of Nairobi.
- Wahban, A. (1999). Ethnic Conflicts and the Stability of the Contemporary World: A Study of Minorities, Groups and Ethnic Movements. New University Publishing House, Alexandria, p.55.
- Wahu, V.K. (2013). Influence of Ethnic Related Conflicts on Students' Access to Public Secondary School Education in Tana Delta District, Kenya.MED Project, University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Wairagu, F. (2007). Raids and Battles Involving Turkana Pastoralists. In Paul Goldsmith, ed., Fighting for Inclusion: Conflicts Among Pastoralists in Eastern Africa and the Horn. Pp 33-53. Nairobi: Development Policy Management Forum
- Wallenstein, P. (2005). *Introduction to Understanding the Settlement of Conflicts:* War, Peace and the World Order, translated by Saad Al Saad and Mohammed Dabour, The Scientific Center for Political Studies, Amman.
- Wangechi, L. N., Njenga M. N. & Manyasa, E. (2013). Effect of Armed Ethnic Conflict on Education of Children: A Case of NakuruCounty, Kenya. *Journal of Special Needs and Disability Studies*, 28 40.
- Wanjiru, J. (2018). Inclusive education for Internally Displaced Children in Kenya: children perceptions of their learning and development needs in postconflict schooling *International Journal of Child Care and Educational Policy*, 12:7. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40723-018-0046-1.
- Wasonga, O.V. Opiyo, E.O. Schilling, J. &Mureithi, S. (2012). *Resource-based Conflicts in Drought-Prone North-Western Kenya: The Drivers and Mitigation Mechanisms*. Available Online at http://.wudpecker research journals.org 2012.Wudpecker Research Journals.ISSN 2315-7259.
- Waweru, P., Ndirangu, &Orodho, J. A. (2018). Contribution of Peace Education as a Determinant of Holistic Education of Students in Secondary Schools in Kiambu and Samburu Counties, Kenya. *Greener Journal of Educational Research*, 8(5), 119-130.
- Weber, A., (2009). Sanctioning, clientelism and politicization: the impact of ethnicity on primary and secondary education in Africa. Center for Comparative and International Studies, Working paper n°41, ETH Zurich and University of Zurich.
- Weiss, T. (2004).*North Rift*. Available online at http://www.iss.co.za/pubs/monographs/no95/ Chap7.pdf.

- Witsenburg K.M. & Adano, W.R. (2009). Of Rain and Raids: Violent Livestock Raiding in Northern Kenya. Civil Wars, 11 (4): 514-538
- World Bank Report (2005). 'Reshaping the Future- Education and Post-conflict Reconstruction
- World Bank, (2003).Breaking the conflict trap: civil war and development policy.World Bank Policy Research Report.World Bank and Oxford University Press, Washington DC.
- Wudil, A.Y. (2019). Impact of the Implementation of Security Education Curriculum on Students' Security Consciousness in Nigeria. *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7 (2), 79 85.
- Zuilkowski, S.S. & Betancourt, T.S. (2014). School Persistence in the Wake of War: Wartime Experiences, Reintegration Supports, and Dropout in Sierra Leone. *Comparative Education Review*, 58(3), 457 481.

189

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

To Esteemed Respondent

Dear sir/Madam

RE: Research questionnaire

I am a postgraduate student at the University of Eldoret (PhD in Educational

Management and Policy Studies) undertaking a research project titled "Effect of

ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions; A

case of the lowland areas of Baringo County".

You have been identified as one of the respondents who will facilitate data collection

for the research project by filling the attached questionnaire.

All the responses will be treated in strict confidence and data collected will be used

for the sole purpose of this study.

Thank you for your cooperation

JERONO KIPROP

EDU/S/PHD/009/I5

PRINCIPAL RESEARCHER

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENT LEADERS

Instructions

This research is intended to investigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions; A case of the lowland areas of Baringo County. Kindly fill the questionnaire by ticking the most appropriate response to questions that give possible answers and write down your answers in the spaces provided in the open ended questions. Your response to the questions will be held with utmost confidentiality and will not be revealed to anyone. For that reason you did not need to write your name in this questionnaire.

Part A: Demographic Data

0 1	
1. What is your gender?	
Male	
Female	[]
2. What is your age bracket?	
i) Less than 15 years	
ii)15 to 16 years	[]
iii)16 to 18 years	[]
iv) Above 18 years	
3. What level are you in?	
I. Form one	
II. Form two	[]
III. Form three	[]
IV. Form four	
Section R. Prevalence of Et	hic Conflic

Section B: Prevalence of Ethic Conflict

4. Indicate the frequency to which the following manifestation of ethnic conflict has occurred in this area.

		Very				
	Prevalence rate	high	High	Moderate	Low	Never
i	Incidents of Kidnapping					
	Physical attack on people including					
ii	students that led to injuries					
iii	Livestock theft					
iv	Armed robbery					

V	Death as a result of ethnic conflict			
vi	Fear and hostility			
vii	Displacement of families			
	Guns and gun shots within school			
vii	and home surroundings			
	Sexual violence e.g. rape by the			
ix	raiders on girls and women			

Section C: Student Perception on the Effect of Ethnic Conflict on their Schooling

5. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to prevalence of ethnic conflicts and its effect on learners' attendance in secondary schools. Please fill in the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Ethnic conflict results in increased students' absence from					
	school					
ii	As a result of occurrence of ethnic conflicts student academic					
	performance was affected					
iii	Some students drop out of school during and after ethnic					
	conflicts					
iv	Conflict situation resulted in class repetition					
V	Students sometimes miss to sit for exams because of conflict					
	situation					

Describe briefly an incident of conflict that forced you to miss school be	cause your
perants moved away from the school location and explain how it affected to	our studios
parents moved away from the school location and explain how it affected y	our studies
	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

Section D: Student Perception on the Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Teacher Management

7. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management in secondary schools. Please fill in the table below by ticking on the

appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly Agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Teachers were not present in school during ethnic conflicts					
ii	Teachers rarely attend lessons during ethnic conflicts					
iii	Teachers arrive late in school when there is an outbreak of conflicts					
iv	Poor syllabus coverage by teachers due to ethnic conflicts					
v	Teachers cannot assess students well during times of ethnic conflicts					

8. As a s	tudent	explain	how te	achers	absence	from	school	due to	conflicts	affect
your learn	ning									
-	Ü									
•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••••••	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••••••	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	•••••
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	•••••	••••••	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••••••	••••••	•••••	•••••

Section E: Challenges brought by Ethnic Conflicts to School Management

9. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to Challenges faced by Secondary School Management during Ethnic Conflicts. Please fill in the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly Agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Ethnic conflicts causing injury and death to some teachers and students					
ii	School management not knowing the whereabouts of some students					
iii	Closing of schools for unknown period until stability is attained					
iv	Destruction of school infrastructure e.g. classes, labs among others					
V	Loss of schools' Instructional resources					

Section F: Strategies put in Place to Address Ethnic Conflict Effect on Education

10. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to intervention mechanisms to conflicts employed by school management. Please fill in the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly Agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	The school is well fenced by the school management					
ii	School management has employed security guards from the locality to guard the school					
iii	School management engage Kenya police to escort students during times of conflicts					
iv	School management provide counselling and help students affected by ethnic conflicts					
v	School management disseminate messages of peaceful coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings					

11.	wnat	sugge	stions	on t	ine	eradic	ation	ΟI	etnnic	conflict	s among	tne	pastora
con	nmunit	ies can	you gi	ive to	the	e;							
(i)C	Governi	ment										• • • • • • •	
								••••					
(ii)	School	manag	ement										
		••••						••••					
		nunity l											
• • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•••••	••••		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

The End Thank you

APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Instructions

This research is intended to investigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions; A case of the lowlands areas of Baringo County. Kindly fill the questionnaire by ticking the most appropriate response to questions that give possible answers and write down your answers in the spaces provided in the open ended questions. Your response to the questions will be held with utmost confidentiality and will not be revealed to anyone. For that reason you do not need to write your name in this questionnaire.

Part A: Demographic data 1. What is your gender? Male [] Female [] 2. What is your age bracket? a) 18 to 30 years [] b) 31 to 40 years [] c) Above 51 years [] 3. What is your highest education level? a) Diploma [] b) Degree [] [] c) Masters d) PhD [] Any other please specify..... 4. How long have you worked as a teacher? a) Below 1 year b) 1 to 5 years [] c) 11 to 20 years []

Section B: Manifestation of Ethnic Conflicts

[]

d) 21 years and above

5. Indicate the frequency to which the following manifestation of ethnic conflict has occurred in this area.

		Very				
	Prevalence rate	high	High	Moderate	Low	Never
i	Incidents of Kidnapping					
	Physical attack on people including					
ii	students leading to injuries					
iii	Livestock theft					
iv	Armed robbery					
v	Death as a result of ethnic conflict					
vi	Fear and hostility					
vii	Displacement of families					
	Guns and gun shots within school					
vii	and home surroundings					
	Sexual violence e.g.rape by the					
ix	raiders on girls and women					

Section C: Teacher Perception on the Effect of Ethnic Conflict on Student Management

6. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to prevalence of ethnic conflicts and its effect on learners' attendance in secondary schools. Please fill in the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, strongly disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Ethnic conflict results in increased students' absence from					
	School					
ii	Student academic performance is affected as a result of					
	occurrence					i
	of ethnic conflicts					ı
iii	Some students drop out of school during and after ethnic					
	conflicts					ı
iv	Students repeat class as a result of conflict situation					
V	Students sometimes miss to sit for exams because of conflict					
	situation					1

Section D: Teacher Perception on Effect of Ethnic Conflict on the Work

7. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to effect of ethnic conflicts on teacher management in secondary schools. Please fill the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly Agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Ethnic conflicts lead to increased cases of teacher absenteeism					
	from school					
ii	Teachers rarely attend lessons During ethnic conflicts					
iii	Teachers reported late to school as a result of ethnic conflicts					
iv	Poor syllabus coverage as a result of ethnic conflicts					
V	Ethnic conflicts lead to poor assessment of students in schools					

9. A	s a	teacher	comment	on the	greatest	effect	of ethni	c conflicts	on	your	teaching
prof	essi	on									
					• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •						

Section E: Challenges School Management Face as a Result of Ethnic Conflicts

10. This section seeks to elicit data in relation to Challenges faced by Secondary School Management during Ethnic Conflicts. Please fill the table below by ticking on the appropriate score using the scale below: Strongly Agree =5, Agree=4, Undecided=3, Disagree=2, Strongly Disagree=1

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	Lack of adequate teachers in schools					
ii	School management not knowing the whereabouts of some students					
iii	Ethnic conflicts causing injury and death to some teachers and students					
iv	Destruction of school infrastructure e.g. classes, labs among others					
v	Loss of schools' Instructional resources					

	Comment on other challenges brought about by ethnic confl ninistrators face in the management of schools	icts	tha	at s	scho	ool
			•••••		•••••	
Sec	etion F: Intervention Mechanisms to Conflicts Employed	Ву	the	e S	cho	ol
Ma	nagement In Secondary Schools					
12.	This section seeks to elicit data in relation to intervention mechan	ism	s to	coı	nflio	cts
em	ployed by school management. Please fill the table below by	tic	kin	gc	n t	he
app	propriate score using the scale below: Strongly agree =5, Agree=4	4, L	Jnde	ecid	led=	=3,
Dis	agree=2, Strongly Disagree=1					
	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
i	The school is well fenced by the school management					
ii	School management has employed security guards from the					
	locality to guard the school					
iii	School management engage Kenya police to escort students					
	during times of conflicts					
iv	School management provides counselling and helps students					
	affected by ethnic conflicts					
V	School management disseminates messages of peaceful					
	coexistence during school assemblies and other gatherings					
13.	What suggestions on the eradication of ethnic conflicts amount	ng	the	pa	sto	ral
con	nmunities can you give to the;					
(i)C	Government	•••••	•••••		•••••	
			•••••		••••	
(ii)	School management			••••		•••
			••••		••••	
(iii)	Community leaders					
••••		•••••	••••	••••	••••	
••••		•••••	••••	•••••	••••	•••
••••		•••••	••••	•••••	••••	••••
••••		•••••	••••	•••••	••••	••••

The End Thank You

APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PRINCIPALS

Instructions

This research is intended to investigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions; A case of the lowlands areas of Baringo County. Your response to the questions will be held with utmost confidentiality and will not be revealed to anyone. For that reason names will not be written.

Section A

- 1. Gender
- 2. Your age?
- 3. What is your highest education level?
- 4. How long have you worked as a principal in this school?
- 5. What type of school are you managing? Boy/girls, boarding/day, mixed school
- 6. What is the population of
- (i) Students in the school
- (ii) Teachers in the school

Section B:

- 1. How often do ethnic conflicts occur in this area?
- 2. How do these conflicts affect the students learning?
- (a) Could you say that the numbers of students increase during or after an incidence of conflict?
- (b). How do these conflicts affect the running of the school in terms of school attendance by learners, their stay in school, the completion and transition rates
- 3. How do ethnic conflicts affect personal lives of teachers' working in this area?
- (b) Could you kindly elaborate on how conflicts affect teachers in terms of punctuality to school, their presence in school, attendance to class, performance in academics and the general morale of performing their duties.
- 4. How does the school assist teachers who are traumatized by ethnic conflicts and cannot perform their duties as a result?
- (a) Has the school ever lost teacher/teachers because the school was attacked? Elaborate

- 5. What are some of the challenges that are related to ethnic conflicts that you face as the administrator of the school?
- (a). Has the school lost any properties as a result of ethnic conflicts? Elaborate
- (b). Are there any other challenges that the school undergoes that were not conflict-related?
- (c). How do you go about meeting these challenges in the school?
- 6. As the school manager, what measures has the school management put in place to ensure learners and teachers safety during instances of ethnic conflicts?
- (b). What strategies have you put in place to mitigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of the school?
- 7. In your opinion, how can education contribute to the eradication of violent ethnic conflicts between the communities in this area?
- 8. What suggestions can you give to the government or community leaders on the eradication of violent ethnic conflicts in the area in order to ensure peaceful coexistence?

APPENDIX V: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR BOM MEMBERS

Instructions

This research is intended to investigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions; A case of the lowlands areas of Baringo County. Your response to the questions will be held with utmost confidentiality and will not be revealed to anyone. For that reason names will not be written.

Questions

- 1. How often do ethnic conflicts occur in this area?
- 2. How do these conflicts affect the students learning?
- (a) Could you say that the numbers of students increase during or after an incidence of conflict?
- (b). How do these conflicts affect the running of the school in terms of school attendance by learners, their stay in school, the completion and transition rates?
- 3. How do ethnic conflicts affect personal lives of teachers' working in this area?
- (b) Could you kindly elaborate on how conflicts affect teachers in terms of punctuality, their presence in school, attendance to class, performance in academics and the general morale of performing their duties.
- 4. How does the school assist teachers who are traumatized by ethnic conflicts and cannot perform their duties as a result?
- (a) Has the school ever lost teacher/teachers because the school was attacked? Elaborate.
- 5. What are some of the challenges that are related to ethnic conflicts that you face as the administrator of the school?
- (a). Has the school lost any properties as a result of ethnic conflicts? Elaborate
- (b). Are there any other challenges that the school undergoes that were not conflict-related?
- (c). How do you go about meeting these challenges in the school?
- 6. As the school manager, what measures has the school management put in place to ensure learners and teachers safety during instances of ethnic conflicts?
- (b). What strategies have you put in place to mitigate the effect of ethnic conflicts on the management of the school?

- 7. In your opinion, how can education contribute to the eradication of violent ethnic conflicts between the communities in this area?
- 8. What suggestions can you give to the government or community leaders on the eradication of violent ethnic conflicts in the area in order to ensure peaceful coexistence?

APPENDIX VI: SECONDARY DATA

Staffing Trends 2016 – 2019

				Ye	ars							
	2016		2017		2018		2019					
Sub	Tota	Shortfal	Tota	Shortfal	Tota	Shortfal	Tota	Shortfal				
County	1	1	l	1	l	1	l	1				
Baring o North	226	140	249	156	306	120	312	132				
Baring o South	114	107	139	107	169	100	160	88				
Tiaty	47	35	62	42	76	34	79	33				

NB: As at Feb 2019

Student Enrolment 2016 – 2019

				Ye	ars								
	2016		2017		2018		2019						
Sub	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female					
County													
Baringo	3498	3577	3531	3808	3780	4049	4326	4234					
North													
Baringo	2140	1514	2204	1470	2408	1693	2590	2246					
South													
Tiaty	1161	637	1282	768	1266	781	1228	814					

KCSE Analysis 2012 – 2018

				Years								
Sub	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018					
County												
Baringo North	4.45	4.594	5.037	4.5349	3.6152	3.041	3.3056					
Baringo South	4.57	4.332	5.13			2.6176	2.8122					
Tiaty	5.82	5.19	6.125			4.34	3.7663					

APPENDIX VII: UNIVERSITY RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



P.O. Box 1125-30100, ELDORET, Kenya

Tel: 053-2063111 Ext. 242

Our Ref: UoE/EMP/POG/33

26th February, 2019

The Executive Secretary,

National Council for Science and Technology & Innovation

P.O. BOX 30623-00100,

NAIROBI.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT FOR: JERONO KIPROP EDU/S/PhD/009/15

This is to confirm that the above named Post Graduate Student has completed Course work and has successfully defended her thesis proposal.

She is currently preparing for a field research work on her thesis entitled: "Effects of ethnic conflicts on management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions in Kenya. A case of the lowland areas of Baringo County". The proposal has been approved by this Institution.

Any assistance accorded her to facilitate successful conduct of the research and the publication will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully, H.O.D

Dept. Of Educational Management & Foundations of Education UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET

Dr. Alice Limo

HOD, EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION

Copy to: Permanent Secretary,

Ministry of Higher Education, Science & Technology, P.O. Box 9583-00200 NAIROBI.

APPENDIX VIII: NACOSTI RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



NATIONAL COMMISSION FORSCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY ANDINNOVATION

Telephone:+254-20-2213471, 2241349,3310571,2219420 Fax: +254-20-318245,318249 Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke Website: www.nacosti.go.ke When replying please quote 9thFloor, Utalii House Uhuru Highway P.O. Box 30623-00100 NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. NACOSTI/P/19/51636/28628

Date: 12th March, 2019

Jerono Marakis Kiprop University of Eldoret P.O. Box 1125-30100 **ELDORET.**

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "Effects of Ethnic conflicts on management of Secondary Schools in conflict-prone regions in Kenya: A case of the lowland areas of Baringo County." I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Baringo County for the period ending 12th March, 2020.

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

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner Baringo County.

The County Directors of Education Baringo County

APPENDIX IX: NACOSTI RESEARCH PERMIT

THE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION ACT, 2013

The Grant of Research Licenses is guided by the Science, Technology and Innovation (Research Licensing) Regulations, 2014.

CONDITIONS

- 1. The License is valid for the proposed research, location and specified period.
- 2. The License and any rights thereunder are non-transferable.
- 3. The Licensee shall inform the County Governor before commencement of the research.
- 4. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further necessary clearance from relevant Government Agencies.
- 5. The License does not give authority to transfer research materials.
- 6. NACOSTI may monitor and evaluate the licensed research project.
- 7. The Licensee shall submit one hard copy and upload a soft copy of their final report within one year of completion of the research.
- 8. NACOSTI reserves the right to modify the conditions of the License including cancellation without prior notice.

National Commission for Science, Technology and innovation P.O. Box 30623 - 00100, Nairobi, Kenya TEL: 020 400 7000, 0713 788787, 0735 404245 Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke, registry@nacosti.go.ke Website: www.nacosti.go.ke





National Commission for Science. **Technology and Innovation**

RESEARCH LICENSE

Serial No.A 23557

CONDITIONS: see back page

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: MS. JERONO MARAKIS KIPROP of UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET, 2144-30100 ELDORET, has been permitted to conduct research in Baringo County

on the topic: EFFECTS OF ETHNIC CONFLICTS ON MANAGEMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN CONFLICT-PRONE REGIONS IN KENYA. CASE OF THE LOWLAND AREAS OF BARINGO COUNTY.

for the period ending: 12th March, 2020

Applicant's

Permit No: NACOSTI/P/19/51636/28628 Date Of Issue: 12th March, 2019 Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000



Director General National Commission for Science Technology & Innovation

APPENDIX X: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION BARINGO COUNTY RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION STATE DEPARTMENT OF EARLY LEARNING & BASIC EDUCATION

OFFICE OF THE COUNTY DIRECTOR (BARINGO COUNTY).

Our Email:countyedubaringo@gmail.com Tel / Fax: 053/21282

P.O. BOX 664 KABARNET

REF: CDE/BAR/RESEARCH.GEN/VOL.II/73

19/03/2019

Jerono Marakis Kiprop University of Eldoret P. O. Box 1125 - 30100 Eldoret

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Reference is made to your request letter Ref. No. NACOSTI/P/19/51636/28628 dated 12/03/2019 on the above subject.

I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out research on "Effects of Ethnic conflicts on management of Secondary Schools in conflict - prone regions in Kenya: A case study of the lowland areas of Bringo County"." for a period ending 12th March, 2020.

The authorities concerned are therefore requested to give maximum support so that this research is completed within schedule.

I take this opportunity to wish you well during this research in our county.

For: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION BARINGO P.O. Box 664-30400 KABARNET

John Biwott

For: County Director of Education

Baringo County

APPENDIX XI: BARINGO COUNTY COMMISSIONER RESEARCH

AUTHORIZATION LETTER



OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

Telephone. 053-21285 Fax. (053)-21285 E-Mail: baringocountycommissioner@yahoo.com baringocountycommissioner@gmail.com

When replying please quote:

REF.NO: ADM.18/1 VOL.II/66

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND CO-ORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT COUNTY COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE, BARINGO COUNTY, P.O. BOX 1 - 30400 KABARNET.

20TH MARCH, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Reference is made to a letter Ref. No.NACOSTI/P/19/51636/28628 dated 12th March, 2018 from the Director – General/CEO NACOSTI.

This is to confirm that Jerono Marakis Kiprop of University of Eldoret has been authorized to carry out research on "Effects of Ethnic conflicts on management of secondary schools in conflict-prone regions in Kenya: A case of the lowland areas of Baringo County," for the period ending 12th March, 2020.

Please accord her the necessary support.

V. N. MBAYI

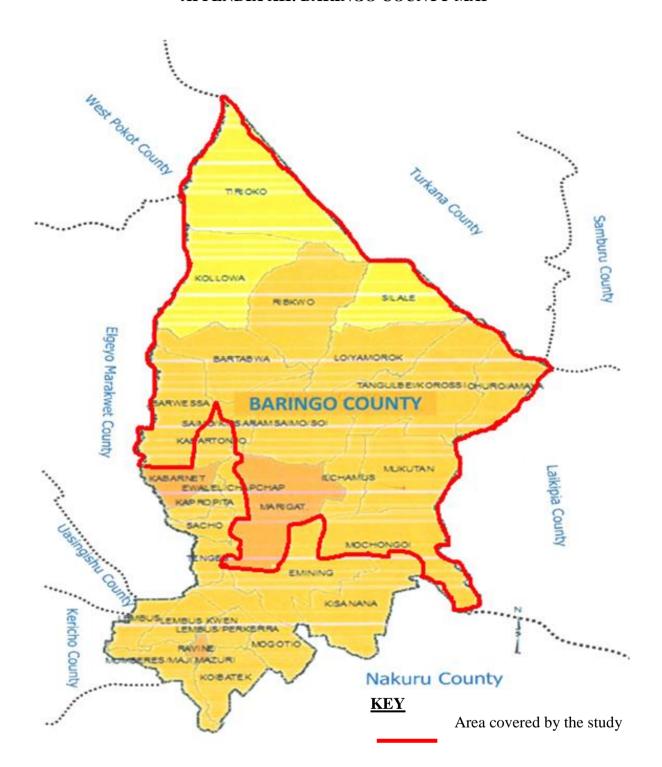
P.O. Box 1 - 30400, KABARNET

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
BARINGO COUNTY

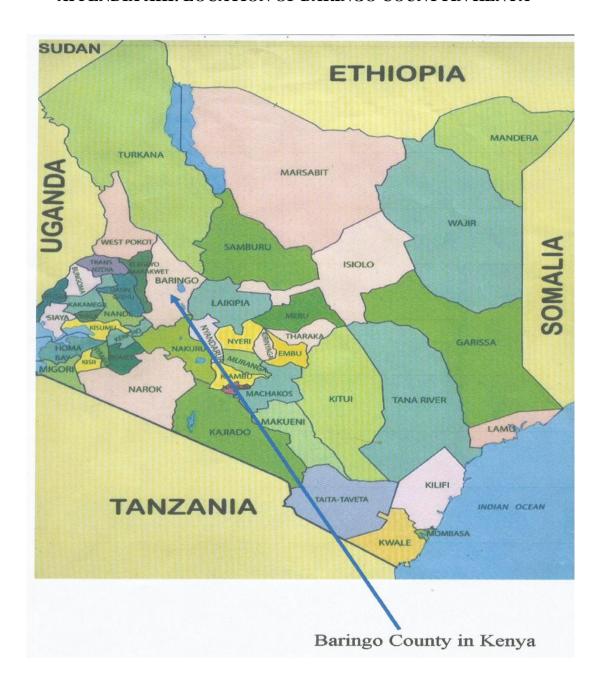
For: COUNTY COMMISSIONER

BARINGO COUNTY

APPENDIX XII: BARINGO COUNTY MAP



APPENDIX XIII: LOCATION OF BARINGO COUNTYIN KENYA



APPENDIX IX: SIMILARITY INDEX/ANTI-PLAGIARISM REPORT

