

Factors Affecting Primary Schools Pupils' Performance from Nomadic Pastoral Communities in Turkana East District, Kenya

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Abstract

The main focus for this study was to examine the factors affecting School performance in the Nomadic pastoral communities in Turkana East District. Learners from nomadic pastoralist communities face peculiar difficulties in accessing and continuing with education programmes whose designs suit sedentary communities. The importance of mobility and young people's labour to nomadic pastoral production, the low population density of many arid areas, and the challenge of ensuring that a national education system is relevant to nomadic pastoralists' needs and values are just some of the reasons why educational participation and achievement is often much lower in nomadic pastoral areas in many countries in Africa than the national average. The study findings revealed that the challenges affecting nomads in accessing education are diverse. The findings from the field illustrate the continuing under-participation of nomads in education. Informants cited the location of schools, poor facilities, attitude of parents and poverty among other issues as the inhibiting factors affecting participation of nomads in formal education. If full participation is required, the main issues arising are the need to revamp existing facilities, entrench mobile schools and strengthen legislation for compulsory education while concurrently improving the infrastructure for nomadic people. The research concludes by proposing a multifaceted approach to the education of nomads. However, mobile schools with a non-formal curriculum package may be an especially attractive option due to expected suitability in nomadic setting and their relatively low cost, given expected financial constraints.

Key Words: school, cultural, socio-economic, Culture, Nomadic, Pastoral, Communities

1.0 Background of the study

The purpose of this section is to outline the concepts on which the study is based in terms of the current situation of nomads, formal education and what others have done. This study is about the education for nomads in the light of the guiding principles of Education for All (EFA), an agreement of the United Nations' (UN), which provides a different approach for education provision, access and learning (World Education Forum, Dakar, Senegal 2000) .

Access to education is a human right for everyone regardless of one's gender, and race or even location. Education to all levels therefore should be accessible to all people. It is for this reason that the Kenya government implemented free primary education in 2003 and since then enrollment in primary schools has gone up (Dyer, 2006a).

Education according to the United Nations is fundamental human right (UN-DHR, 1948). This is a right that, across the globe, despite decades of effort remains unrealised for many people. This global failure provides a continuing stimulus to review past progress and future prospects in making this right a reality for everyone. At the present, international attention is closely focused on the

pending deadline of achieving the second Millennium Development Goal for education by 2015 (UN-MDG, 2001). As progress is made in attracting children to school, it is becoming increasingly clear that nomadic lifestyle challenge the likelihood of success in achieving this goal. To achieve the above goal there is need to include a nomad which is clearly a huge practical challenge. Patterns of the inclusion and participation of nomads in formal education suggest that their perceptions and experience provide critical insights into the nature of education as a concept, and as a practice (Republic of Kenya, 2003).

According to (UNESCO 2006), the nomadic communities are awkward customer for the services and structures of the modern education system. The nomads are dispersed and somehow aimless, obstinate and an inferior sort of people. It is very difficult to provide them with classes or clinics, or take any of the advantages of social services. This outlook seems to be in line with 'blaming the victim'. Nomads are always blamed for causing their own problems (UNESCO 2006).

Turkana is the poorest and most marginalised region in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2003). The majority of people are unable to meet their basic needs (UNICEF, 1978). As a result of climate change, increasing droughts has made dependence on herding livestock almost impossible. Although education is now more important than ever, it has prevented future generations from being locked into a life of poverty. Many children in Turkana are simply not getting the opportunity to gain education (UNICEF, 1978). Nomadic pastoralist families move frequently to remote areas, and many poor families depend on their children to care for siblings or livestock. Getting girls married early is often prioritized over their education. Children with special needs often miss out completely on any education opportunity completely. The government is committed to achieving education for all children by 2015. It has supported free primary education since 2003.

The provision of education through the schools in the millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is also problematic because it places into the hands of an old institutional inclination which did not recognise forms of education outside of schooling (often paired with a readiness to believe that even poor-quality schooling is better than nothing). Thus ruling out specific minority groups, such as nomads, for when they are perceived as marginal to a national history of modernisation of which formal education has historically been both an expression and an instrument. They somehow become 'irrelevant' and can remain 'outside' the system. From past studies there is evidence that the inclusion of nomadic children in primary education Millennium Development Goals (MDG 2) can sharply be increased by using other alternatives. For example, non-formal education and Open and Distance Learning (ODL) are both capable of by passing the physical limitations of a school-based service. Such types of provision have shown bursts of nomads' enrolment with no difference between girls and boys and a strong interest among adults in Kenya (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005; Owiny, 2006; Fonseca, 2008).

According to Abdi (2010) increasing educational access for nomads in Kenya is not a new issue but the implementation scheme has had limited success so far. The first post-independence commission on education in Kenya, widely known as the Ominde Commission recommended, among many other issues, the reversing of educational situation in nomadic districts (Republic of Kenya, 1964) which by then had a gross enrolment ratio (GER) of less than five percent while other parts of the country had a 100 percent participation (Sifuna, 1991). The inherited imbalances of formal education from the colonial government implicitly perpetuated by the independent state stimulated inequalities in all its forms as is captured by Oxfam (2006:2) cited in Abdi (2010) states that:

“Years of economic and political marginalization have resulted in the arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) being the most under developed areas in Kenya...basic services are not provided and inhabitants have poor health and low education pg.2.”

In the arid plains of Turkana in the north of Kenya, school enrolment is less than half the national average school going pupils. For nomadic pastoralists, who make their living herding livestock, it is less than a quarter of national average (UNESCO, 2006). Most children vastly underachieve. Lack of trained teachers, poor attendance due to frequent migration or chores at home are the main problems.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The enrolments in formal primary schools which is one of the ways of measuring success and failure of education is very low in the whole of Turkana East district in comparison with all other parts of the country. Literacy among nomadic parents in Kenya is low and is seen to be another possible dimension contributing to the low participation by the region in education. The educational situation in Kenya for nomadic communities is poor as has been documented by researchers and the Kenyan government (Achoka *et al.*, 2007; MOEST, 2001; MOEST, 2004; Oxfam, 2006; Sifuna, 2005 cited in Abdi (2010). According to the Kenya literacy survey conducted countrywide, Nomadic areas had the lowest literacy level of only 8.1% whereas Nairobi has 87.1% literacy achievement and the overall national literacy level is 61.5% (Republic of Kenya, 2007; Elimu Yetu Coalition, 2007) cited in Abdi (2010). This inequality is reflected in all aspects of life. For example, the ratio of doctors to the population in Turkana district is 1:356,340 contrasting with Nyandarua with a ratio of 1:10,000; consequently the mortality rate at birth and under fives is high. Closely linked to the low literacy level is high unemployment in the nomadic regions of Kenya and lack of transition to higher education which are a backdrop to the economic, social, cultural and social factors hindering education (Krätli, 2001) cited in Abdi (2010). Although much has been done regarding nomadic pastoralists there is no evidence of study done on Nomadic pastoral factors affecting performance in arid areas and hence the need for this study to fill the existing literature gap.

1.3 Methodology

This study adopted descriptive survey research design. It targeted the ten public primary schools in Turkana East District. The target population was head teachers, teachers, pupils and parents. All the ten (10) head teachers were purposively selected; Seventy seven (77) class eight teachers, two hundred (200) class eight pupils and forty (40) class eight parents were the sample and thus the study population was 327 respondents. Head teachers and teachers were selected purposively; parents and pupils were selected through simple random sampling technique. The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected through questionnaires and interview schedules. Primary data was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively; quantitative data was presented in form of frequency tables, charts and graphs and qualitative data was presented thematically.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Framework

The government of Kenya introduced free primary education in the year 2003. It was a successful programme in that all the public primary schools were supplied with learning materials which sometimes reached the schools after a long period of time and thus affecting the schools budget, achievement of goals and performance. Although performance could be attributed to other factors such as intelligence, motivation, self concept, availability of proper nutrition, gender and socio-economic factors, this study was interested in school based, cultural, socio-economic affecting primary school performance in nomadic pastoral communities.

In the current study; the effects of existing socio-economic, cultural, school based were considered as the factors which were responsible for the variation in pupil's school performance. Research findings as reported by Coleman (1996) in the United States concluded that socio-economic factors such as family income and level of education of parents accounted for more variation in performance than the school inputs.

Jencks and Smith (1998) asserts that there were several possible reasons why children with economically successful parents got more credentials than children with unsuccessful parents. For example home environment with study rooms improved pupil's performance, educated parents gave their children private tuition, and parents with high income took their children to better schools.

The conceptual framework was based on the assumption that pupil's performance in school was affected by certain diverse factors like socio-economic factors. The study could be expressed in the following equation: School performance was the dependent variable while effects of socio-economic, cultural based and School based teaching factors are the independent variables. The function can be expressed as follows:

$$SP = f(SE, CB \text{ and } SB)$$

Where SP = School Performance
 SE= Socio-economic factors
 CB = Cultural Based factors
 SB= School based

The following is a diagrammatical representation of the hypothesized relationship among the variables in the study.

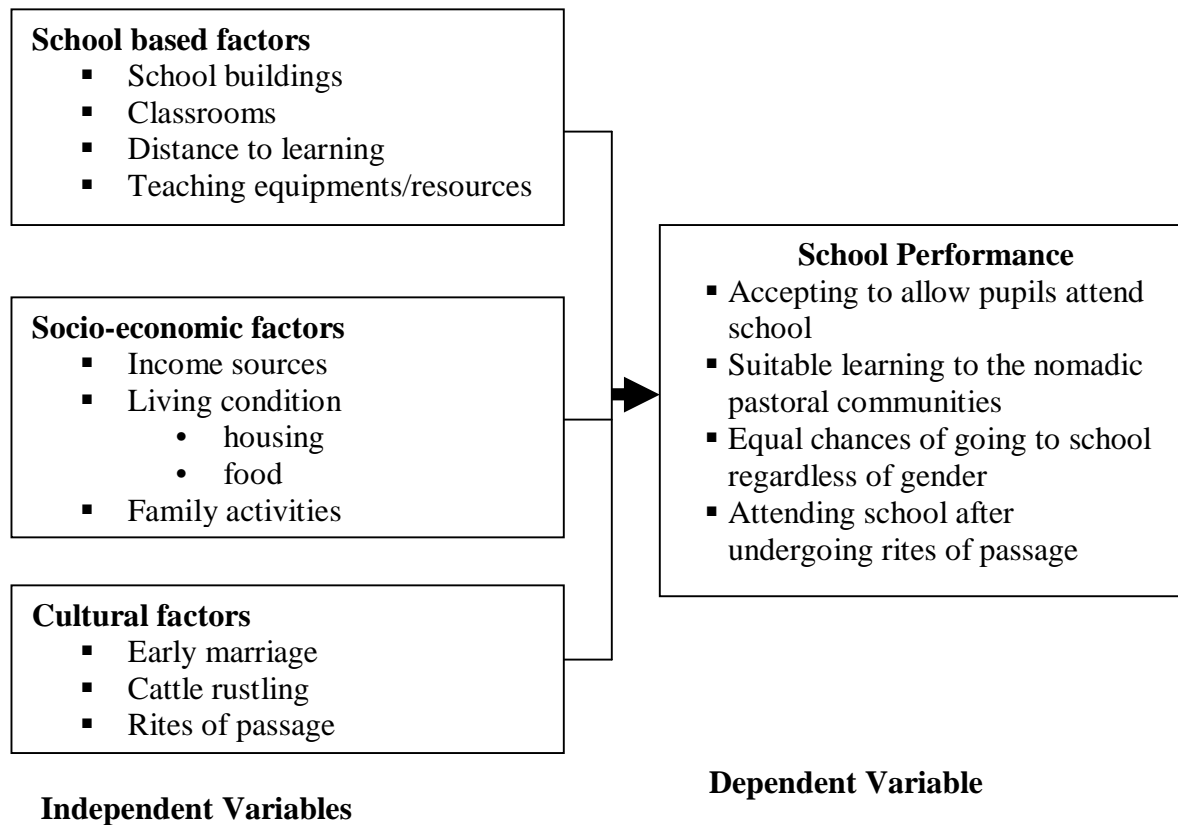


Figure 1: The nomadic pastoral factors affecting school performance

From the conceptual framework, the characteristics of school performance depends largely on various variables but the study conceptualizes on effects of cultural factors, socio-economic, school based on culture of the nomadic pastoral communities.

2.2 School based factors affecting school performance in nomadic pastoral communities

In principle, schools can provide a variety of learning experiences similar to those available at home, and perhaps sometimes, better ones. However, school-based performance all too often comes to the nomadic child at the cost of renouncing other very important learning opportunities, particularly as the only option available to many nomads seeking to educate their children is to send them away from home, either to boarding schools or to stay with relatives or acquaintances in settlements. It thus necessitates making a choice – a trade-off – between the educational experience available in school and that available as part of a child’s social life at home.

Sifuna, (2005); Arero, (2005); Dyer, (2006) study findings revealed that currently, in order to maximise the expected advantages of education in a school-based system, nomadic children have to curtail informal learning and endure enforced separation from their family. Whether this is cost-effective for the child depends on both the quality and proportion of informal learning opportunities to be given up, and the quality of the educational experience in school. Typically, for children from

nomadic households these parameters are exceptionally unfavourable and, despite sincere efforts on the part of the staff, the resultant schooling can all too often represent the poorest quality within a system that is seriously underperforming overall.

2.3 School Facilities and Student Performance

Wilson and Kelling (1982) proposed that if a building had a broken window and the window was not replaced, all of the other windows would soon be broken. One broken window indicates that no one cares, so continuing the breakage will come at no cost. Such neglect would then bring about a new culture of disorder, fear, and isolation throughout the locale. Things that appeared to be in chaos would bring the perception of illegal action regardless of whether such action really took place. Participation in neighborhood activities would cease, regardless of how luxurious the community, because one had to risk entering the bedlam that infested the neighborhood.

In today's society, many of our schools faced many challenges of out-of-date design, deteriorating conditions, and changing utilization pressures (overcrowding and declining enrollments; Filardo, (2008). These deficiencies impaired the quality of teaching and learning that contributed to health and safety problems for staff and students. Building design had been associated with teacher motivation and student achievement (Filardo, 2008). Cash (1993) studied the relationship between classroom conditions and the school building and student achievement in rural schools of Virginia. The study examined the relationship between student achievement and the overall, structural, and cosmetic building conditions.

Lackney (1999a) argued that school buildings were critical to the teaching and learning process. Lackney also took the viewpoint that "the factors responsible for student achievement were ecological – they acted together as a whole in shaping the context within which learning took place. The physical setting – the school building was an undeniably integral part of the ecological context for learning" (p. 2). The physical factors that had a profound impact on the teaching and learning process were (a) full-spectrum and natural lighting, (b) the reduction and control of noise, (c) the location and sighting of schools, (d) optimal thermal conditions, (e) school size and class size, and (f) the building condition (Lackney, 1999a, p. 7). Research had shown that there was an explicit relationship between the physical characteristics of school buildings and educational outcomes (Lyons, 2001). School facilities and the classroom must be flexible enough to accommodate changing learning patterns and methods.

According to Chan (1996), the learning environment had a direct and an indirect impact on student achievement. Direct impact included: color, lighting, controlled acoustics, and air ventilation (Chan). A good learning environment freed students from physical distress, made it easy for students to concentrate on schoolwork and, induced students in logical thinking. According to Chan, students responded to good and poor learning environments by expressing positive and negative attitudes. With a positive attitude towards their learning environment, students learned with high motivation and undoubtedly were able to demonstrate better performance. When educators disregard the improvement of learning environment, they ignored the physical difficulties of learning (Chan).

Lighting in a classroom was one of the most critical physical characteristics that impacted the teaching and learning process (Jago & Tanner, 1999; Phillips, 1997). Jago and Tanner contended

that visual environment affected a learner's ability to perceive visual stimuli and affected his or her mental attitude, and thus performance. Hughes (2005) contended that lighting in a school could have a great impact on what students were able to see in the classrooms. Natural light was one type of light that influenced peoples' minds and bodies (Lyons, 2001). The Hesohnong Mahone Group (1999) reported that natural light affected learning positively.

Students could not study unless the lighting in the classroom was adequate (Schneider, 2002). Research studies pertaining to school facilities, student achievement, and student behavior found that daylight fostered higher student achievement (Schneider, 2002). Heschong Mahone Group (1999) did a study covering over 2000 classrooms in three school districts dealing with the effects of daylight on human performance. The Heschong Mahone Group found that students with the most daylight in the classroom progressed 20% faster on mathematics test in one year and 26% faster on reading tests than those students who had learned in classrooms that received the least amount of natural light (Schneider, 2002).

Olson and Kellum (2003) suggested that indoor air quality had direct effects on student performance. Research had shown that better indoor air quality in schools had resulted in healthier students and teachers, which had led to less absenteeism and improved student achievement (Olson & Kellum, 2003). Further, they maintain that good indoor air is important if teachers and students continue to spend significant amounts of time in the classroom.

According to World Bank, (2000) in developing countries increasing teacher-student ratios in many schools due to fast growth of primary and secondary enrolment, stringent government regulations relating to sanctioning of teaching posts (one post is sanctioned to a class of 60 students, and a second position is not sanctioned unless the class size reaches 120), inadequate physical infrastructural facilities, faulty recruitment (recruitment of teachers with expertise having little relevance to teaching at school level), too few inspections, and above all, generally poor academic qualifications, training and motivation of teachers are some of the recognized causes of poor quality of education.

Krashen (2005) concluded that students whose parents are educated score higher on standardized tests than those whose parents were not educated. Educated parents can better communicate with their children regarding the school work, activities and the information being taught at school. They can better assist their children in their work and participate at school (Fantuzzo & Tighe, 2000).

The home environment also affects the academic performance of students. Educated parents can provide such an environment that suits best for academic success of their children. The school authorities can provide counseling and guidance to parents for creating positive home environment for improvement in students' quality of work (Marzano, 2003). The academic performance of students heavily depends upon the parental involvement in their academic activities to attain the higher level of quality in academic success (Shumox & Lomax, 2001).

2.4 Cultural based factors affecting school Performance in nomadic pastoral communities

Sifuna, (2005); MOEK/UNICEF, (2007); Dyer, (2006b) study argues that despite these many issues, school-based education can sometimes work for children from nomadic households. Kenyan

statistics for example show increasing enrolment, although it is not known whether these reflect demographic growth or reduced opportunities within the mobile livestock sector leading to household settlement in search of alternatives. However, it is known that nomadic households who are actively engaged in animal production and also willing to take advantage of the national education system usually have only one single option, to join a school.

Curriculum: the contents of the curriculum are generally considered inappropriate for the children of pastoral nomads. It does not provide practical skills to improve the livelihood of nomads. Rather, it is believed, it focuses on academic achievements that only suit the needs of urban children. There is a lack of demonstrable practical benefits for the pastoral economy (Gorham, 1978).

Quality of schools/Teachers: rural primary schools which pastoral nomads may have access to are qualitatively poor in terms of facilities and teaching staff. The management and supervision of officials are not effective either. Low salaries/lack of hardship allowance for education personnel creates a reluctance to live away from their urban families, leading to an inequitable geographical enrollment of schools and an unwillingness of younger staff to leave urban centers. It is therefore very difficult to place quality staff in schools accessible to nomads.

Early Marriage

According to UNICEF (2001), 40 per cent and 49 per cent of girls under 19 in Central and West Africa respectively are married compared to 27 per cent in East Africa and 20 percent in Northern and Southern Africa. Throughout the world, marriage is regarded as a moment of celebration and a milestone in adult life. Sadly, the practice of early marriage gives no such cause for celebration. All too often, the imposition of a marriage partner upon a child means that a girl or boy's childhood is cut short and their fundamental rights are compromised (UNICEF, 2001 and Lefevre, Quiroga and Murply 2004). Young girls are robbed of their youth and required to take on roles for which they are not psychologically or physically prepared. Many have no choice about the timing of marriage or their partner. Some are coerced into marriage, while others are too young to make an informed decision. Premature marriage deprives them of the opportunity for personal development as well as their rights to full reproductive health and wellbeing, education, and participation in civic life.

Early marriage contributes to a series of negative consequences both for young girls and the society in which they live. It is a violation of human rights in general and of girl's rights in particular. For both girls and boys, early marriage has profound physical, intellectual, psychological and emotional impacts; cutting off educational and employment opportunities and chances of personal growth. In this study more emphasis is given to pupils' performance in school. Besides having a negative impact on girls themselves, the practice of early marriage also has negative consequences on their children, families, and society as a whole. UNICEF (2000) argues that it is not only girls that pay for early marriage but also the society as a whole. Population pressure, health care costs and lost opportunities of human development are just a few of the growing burdens that society shoulders because of teenage pregnancies. Early marriage also undermines international efforts to fight against poverty in developing countries. Bunch (2005) makes it clear that the widespread practice of child marriage makes it increasingly difficult for families to escape poverty in the developing world, thereby undermining critical international efforts to fight poverty, HIV/AIDS and other development challenges, and making billions of dollars in development assistance less effective.

Early motherhood has been the subject of a growing number of studies, research projects and intervention programs in Africa. African women in general marry at a much earlier age than their non- African counterparts, leading to early pregnancies. Surveys carried out in some Sahelian

countries offer alarming examples. In Niger, for example, according to the 1992 Health and Demographic Survey (HDS), 47% of women aged between 20 and 24 were married before the age of 15 and 87% before the age of 18. A total of 53% had also had a child before the age of 18, (Locoh 2008). According to HDS survey (2003) early marriage at; Niger 77%, Chad 71%, Mali 65%, Bangladesh 65%, Guinea 65%, Nepal 56%, Mozambique 57%, Uganda 54% Burkina Faso 52%, India 50%, Ethiopia 49%, Yemen 48%, Eritrea 47%, Togo 31% South Africa 8%.

In communities where child marriage is prevalent, there is strong social pressure on families to conform. Failure to conform can often result in ridicule, disapproval or family shame. Invariably, local perceptions on the ideal age for marriage, the desire for submissive wives, extended family patterns and other customary requirements, are all enshrined in local customs. In many contexts child marriage is legitimized by patriarchy, and related family structures, which ensure that marriage transfers a father's role over his girl child to her future spouse. The marriage or betrothal of children in parts of Africa and Asian is valued as a means of consolidating powerful relations between families, for sealing deals over land or other property, or even for settling disputes (UNIFPA, 2006)

2.5 Socio-economic factors affecting school performance in nomadic pastoral communities

According to government study, (Republic of Kenya Sessional Paper No: 1: 2005) the government recognizes the economic importance of improving the overall education levels of Kenyans within the context of poverty reduction and economic growth. Education is a key determinant of earnings and therefore an important exit route from poverty. Studies on poverty in Kenya show education as an important tool in relationship between human capital and earnings, as well as the overall productivity. Recent studies of human capital in Kenya show that returns increase as the level of education goes higher.

Burgess (1986) observed that children from advantaged socio-economic classes do relatively much better than the disadvantaged counterparts. In England and Wales family background has remained a strong predictor of children's academic attainment ranging from learning to read in the early years of schooling to the ordinary and advanced levels, Moltimore and Black stone (1982). In addition, Gathuri (1984) remarked that a home with abundance of material possessions must have a good educative environment in terms of their interests in education of their children, encouragement, socialization and the achievements norms and expectations. In view of this therefore a home that is interested in the educational support of their children within some cases help in giving private tuition to their children and help them in their homework and check their progress in school. This help to motivate such children to work hard and boost their performance.

In a study conducted by Heynemann (1976) in Uganda which is a developing country, the findings revealed that there was no correlation between pupil's social background and his or her total score on the national primary examinations. The study in Kenya revealed similar findings (Heynemann, 1976). In this study social background was measured by collecting information on the educational level and the occupation of the pupils' parents as well as the kind and number of possessions in their homes. The findings show that the correlation between the variable measured is approximately zero when the socio-economic status is measured were treated collectively.

Rao (1990) argued that parents coming from low socio-economic status homes are not keen in sending their children to schools. They do not encourage their children to learn and do not show any interests in their learning. Children from such homes lose competitive morale with their counterparts with high economic status (high parental education and high incomes), homes in learning.

Todaro (1977) in his studies concluded from a range of countries both developed and developing that the family's income and living conditions can determine whether or not the child will perform well in school and later in life. He further concluded that early malnutrition and disease could adversely affect a child's ability to read and write and perform arithmetic operations and think clearly and logically in school and in future career. Children from poor families with low levels of living are often placed at a competitive disadvantage vis-à-vis the economically better off (high family incomes) children in school activities.

According to Todaro (1977) most studies on school performance have found family environment which includes housing conditions, number of children and income levels to determine a child's capacity to learn and do well in school work. Poor housing conditions deprive children of good and spacious study rooms. A large number of children cause overcrowding in the home environment rendering it un-conducive for learning. In addition, such homes are in most cases poorly furnished and have very little to offer the children for imaginative play. The food available is often insufficient and nutritionally unbalanced. The insufficient food within the home may cause malnourishment which is likely to reduce pupils' reading span.

World Bank (2006) report on Education, children from poor economic backgrounds are the first to be pushed out of school because they fall asleep in class due to malnourishment. Home schooling improves performance and reduces impact of socio-economic factors. In Toronto, the Fraser institute of research revealed that home schooling appears to improve performance of children from families with low levels of education; Claudia Hepburn (2007) noted that poorly educated parents who choose to teach their children at home produce better academic results for their children than public schools do.

Otieno, (2007) goes further to support that in the year 1992, about 44% of Kenya population lived under poverty line, in 1997, 52% of the population was undergoing the same situation. In 2002, about 56% of the population lived in the same sorry economic condition. Although the situation seems to have improved, the national picture is still gloomy because about a half of Kenya's 34 million people live below poverty line.

According to the United Nations development programme (UNDP) Report of 2006 four out of eight provinces recorded an increase in poverty levels while Kenyans living in abject poverty deepened. However Achoka *et al* (2007) argues that these people suffer remoteness, poor road network, lack of production technology as well as storage capacities and fluid cash among others. These people are subsequently incapable of acquisition of proper dietary needs, medical care and clean habitats. Children born to such parents are predisposed to disadvantage access to education right from conception to primary age they suffer improper growth due to financing impoverishment of their parents.

Omiti (2000c) study showed that the historical exclusion of nomadic pastoral areas from participation in mainstream socio-economic and political development by both the pre and post-colonial governments has diluted the credibility of the Government in making the nomadic pastoral communities felt that they are equal to other Kenyan citizens. In some instances, it has been observed that nomadic pastoralists do not feel as being part of Kenya; that the government is too far from them. Social exclusion on the basis of tribe and or ethnicity in the acquisition of and access to national public goods bears negatively on public efforts to unite the country in promoting peace and political and social stability, both at the regional and national levels.

Omiti (2000c) further argues that another challenge to nomadic pastoral development is in diversifying the nomadic pastoral economy to reduce people's vulnerability to drought, floods and famine. Concrete strategies are therefore needed to improve the nomadic pastoralists' coping options

Sandford (1983) argues that in the nomadic pastoral areas of Kenya, 0.2 to 0.7 households per km² are estimated while in the agricultural areas of western Kenya 15 to 100 households per km² occur. This inevitably has consequences on time spent travelling and hence on the numbers of visits that can be made by an extension worker and on cost recovery of services provided. However, Akabwai (1993) study findings associated nomadic with low population densities, is a lack of access roads making travel in the area difficult. Nomadic pastoral areas are frequently remote from population centres and may straddle international borders.

Baxter (2005) findings showed that a number of factors including increased pressure on land are causing increased insecurity in many nomadic pastoral areas. Increased land-use pressure may come from agriculturalists planting on lands traditionally used by nomadic pastoralists, from the creation of wildlife reserves or from other nomadic pastoralists displaced from their own traditional areas. Distance from national capitals and centres of political power, combined with the difficulties of access and communications in many nomadic pastoral areas, leaves many nomadic pastoral groups with little political clout. Political organisations within nomadic pastoral groups may be poor and numbers of nomadic pastoralists compared to national populations may be low. However, Baxter (1985) argues that even where nomadic pastoralists make up the majority of the population as in Somalia or Niger, their political influence does not reflect their numbers.

According to Nyangito *et al.*, (2000) the nomadic pastoral areas are particularly disadvantaged when it comes to investment in socio-economic infrastructure. Poor infrastructure especially road network, lack of or inadequate telecommunication system, marketing facilities for goods and services, lack of diverse and adequate sources of energy and hospitals discourage private sector participation in these areas. ASALs also have inadequate water supply especially during the dry periods, yet large quantities of water runoff to the Indian Ocean during the wet seasons. Nyangito *et al.*, (2000) study further revealed that the lack of or inadequate infrastructure results in high production and transactions costs thereby reducing competitiveness of production by nomadic pastoralists and increasing poverty.

However, Omiti (2000e) study revealed that with the collapse of the Kenya Meat Commission (KMC), its current slow pace of revival and the appropriation of livestock holding grounds by individuals, nomadic pastoralists currently have no other organized marketing infrastructure that can handle their livestock. This is critical especially during drought periods when nomadic pastoralists seek ways of disposing off their dying livestock. Although their cattle-culture complex

is partly to blame, nomadic pastoralists often watch their livestock die during periods of severe drought because of lack of markets.

Omiti, (2000c) findings revealed that Nomadic pastoral communities are among the most vulnerable to food insecurity and frequently rely on famine relief aid. Their condition has been worsened by poor famine relief strategies and inappropriate food policies that emphasize on food self-sufficiency and production and supply of a narrow range of crops mainly maize as a staple crop. Nomadic pastoral communities are generally under-represented in various arms of government and institutions which has led to continued marginalization of the communities.

2.6 Summary

All of the research reviews support the hypothesis that pupils' performance depends on different socio-economic, psychological, environmental factors and relevance of the curriculum. The findings of research studies focused that pupils' performance is affected by different factors such as learning abilities because new paradigm about learning assumes that all pupils can and should learn at higher levels but it should not be considered as constraint because there are other factors like race, gender, sex that can affect pupil's performance (Hansen 2000). Some of the researchers even tried to explain the link between pupils' achievements, economic circumstances and the risk of becoming a drop-out that proved to be positive, (Chansarkar and Mishaeloudis 2001), explained the effects of age, qualification, distance from school place on pupils' performance. The performance of pupils on the module is not affected by such factors as age, sex and place of residence but is associated with qualification in quantitative subjects. It is also found that those who live near the school perform better than other pupils.

3.0 Findings

3.1 Background Information

The study sought to find out the gender of the respondents and most of head teachers 8(88.9%) were male with 1(11.1%) female head teacher, Majority 60(88.2%) of the teachers were also male while 123(64.4%) of the pupils were also male as shown in table 1. As shown in table 1, the findings imply that education favours the male child and this could also explain why there are more male teachers and head teachers in the region. It could also mean that in the region the boys are the ones given first priority when it comes to going to school and also their culture of early marriage was also the contributing factor to the few girls in school. This could be attributed to long distance covered by pupils when coming to school which female pupils could not endure. It was also revealed that girls dropped out at a very high rate due to early marriages and failure to walk long distances to school. . This therefore made the girl child be disadvantaged to attend school.

It was also revealed that pupils who stayed with guardians/relatives were not taken by their parents to these guardians and sometimes they are not related to them and this made them to be exploited as they are sometimes used as house help or girls being involved in early sex with these people in exchange with some hand outs. These pupils end up staying with guardians through friends or out of desperation as their parents move away to far areas in search of water and greener pasture without informing their children, thus leaving them being vulnerable to all conditions which affected learning and performance. This also showed a sign of neglect which is a justification of nomadic pastoral culture of negative attitude towards education. All these affected performance of girls/pupils.

Table 1: Respondents Profile Information

	<i>Head teachers</i>		<i>Teachers</i>		<i>Pupils</i>		
Gender	Gender	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	Male	8	88.9	60	88.2	123	64.4
	Female	1	11.1	8	11.8	68	35.6
	Total	9	100.0	68	100.0	191	100.0
Teaching experience	Head teachers		Teachers				
	Number of years taught	Freq	%	Freq	%		
	Less than 5 years			35	51.5		
	5-10 years	2	22.2	19	27.9		
	11-15 years	2	22.2	6	8.8		
	16- 20 years	2	22.2	8	11.8		
	Above 21 years	3	33.4				
Total	9	100.0	68	100.0			
Ethnic Background	Teachers		Head teachers				
	Gender	Freq	%	Freq	%		
	Locals	21	30.9	Locals	9	100	
	Other tribes	47	69.1				
Total	68	100.0					

3.2 School based factors affecting performance

According to Sifuna, (2005) currently, in order to maximise the expected advantages of education in a school-based system, nomadic children have to curtail informal learning and endure enforced separation from their family. Whether this is cost-effective for the child depends on both the quality and proportion of informal learning opportunities to be given up, and the quality of the educational experience in school. Typically, for children from nomadic households these parameters are exceptionally unfavourable and, despite sincere efforts on the part of the staff, the resultant schooling can all too often represent the poorest quality within a system that is seriously underperforming overall. From findings although the government declared free education for all there is still under-participation of nomadic children in the education. Table 4-8 in appendices, as per the study findings 33.3% of the schools head teachers suggested ignorance of parents as a factor contributing to learners' poor school attendance while 22.2% cited poor performance and inadequate teachers. According to 64.7% of the teachers they agreed that the buildings were suitable for learning, 48.5% felt that the classrooms did not have enough light and ventilation, 82.4% agreed that the buildings in the schools were not well maintained while 78% felt that the roofing was not of the required standard especially in the arid areas. According to 67.7% of the teachers felt that the sleeping area was not well ventilated, 80.8% agreed that the buildings were built for sleeping but 82.3% agreed that classrooms were congested especially in boarding schools.

The reasons given for poor classroom learning condition by teachers were because of hot weather during day as is the case in arid and semi arid areas where the temperatures are extremely high and low at night as 91.2% agreed, while 79.4% cited insecurity in the region due to cattle rustlers making studying at night a problem. This is because if one sits under the light, it becomes an obvious target for cattle rustlers or enemies. This finding is further supported by Mwamwenda & Mwamwenda, (1987) who argued that the classroom setting and teachers' quality of life profoundly affect instruction. A survey of fifty-one primary schools in Botswana concluded that students with

adequate classrooms, desks, and books perform significantly better on tests than do those without adequate facilities and materials. Sunal, *et al* (1989) further supports that, students in many African countries purchase textbooks at local book-stores. Often one or a few copies of different textbooks are offered for sale. As a result, students bring to class a variety of textbooks. Textbooks and instruction manuals structure the curriculum and ensure that specific material is covered during the school year. Without standardization of textbooks it is more difficult to ensure that specific material is covered. Lockheed, Vail, & Fuller, (1986) findings go further to support that improving working conditions enables teachers and students to perform better. When students perform better, the teachers' motivation is reinforced, as is classroom practice. This is particularly important when teachers are not well trained and have few in service programs available to them.

From past studies it was revealed that an estimated 25 to 40 million children of school age lived in nomadic or nomadic households in Africa alone, of whom only 10 to 50 percent attended school (UNESCO 2006). The overall rate of female enrolment in school was extremely low or nonexistent in most nomadic pastoralist regions (UNICEF, 1978). Most basic education systems available to nomadic pastoralists were characterized by limited access, poor service delivery, gender inequality, low retention rates, and poor infrastructure. Further, there were huge disparities between regions, countries and communities due to cultural and traditional beliefs and a lack of basic access to parents, which in turn affected child enrolment. According to Mpaayei, in Nkinyangi, (1981: 195),
“The fundamental problem of education with nomadic pastoral people is creating something they believed in something they could really participate in as their own, right from the beginning”

Quality of schools/teachers in rural primary schools which pastoral nomads had access to were qualitatively poor in terms of facilities and teaching staff. The management and supervision of officials were not effective either. Low salaries/lack of hardship allowance of education personnel created a reluctance to live away from their urban families, leading to an inequitable geographical enrolment of schools and an unwillingness of younger staff to leave urban centers. It was therefore very difficult to place quality staff in schools accessible to nomads because of the prevailing harsh conditions in the area. This past studies echoed the present scenario in Turkana East district. It was also revealed that there were no enough classrooms according to 70.5% of teachers, 47% agreed that there were no enough chalk. Most of the teachers 61.8% agreed that the boards were painted; according to 51.5% the boards were not visible by pupils sitting at the back of class due to distance, and 82.4% agreed that the school did not provide dustless chalks while 55.8% used the dust chalks. In regards to time table, 76.4% of the teachers agreed that teachers adhered to the time table, 40.5% agreed that the subjects were given enough and equal time while 53% felt that the head teachers did not monitor lessons attended.

The activities that the school engaged in according to 80.8% was games, while 47% engaged in community service. From the schools past records (the document analysis) most of schools' KCPE performance, in the last three years (2008-2010) revealed that boarding schools were performing better than the day schools as shown by the mean's difference. Boarding schools whose pupils scored less than 100 marks were an average of 2 pupils with number being slightly higher in day schools, those who scored between 101-200 were an average of 5 pupils in boarding with day school having an average of 7 pupils, in 201-300 category an average of 11 and 6 pupils in boarding and day schools respectively achieved that marks while in boarding average of 3 pupils scored over 300 marks out of 500, but only an average of 1 pupil scored the same marks in day schools. The

study sought to know how far the schools were from the home of the learners and most teachers 57.4% indicated that the schools were far away (some families were as far as 15kms away) from school which made young children and girls not able to make to school and if they do, they reach when they are already tired thus making them not be in a position to concentrate in class, this is a factor which really affected their school performance.

From the discussion with the respondents (teachers), it came out clearly that, Turkana District led nationally in KCPE in late 1980s and early 1990s because at that time, there was a Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD) which made all the schools in Turkana boarding, NORAD sponsored the Education officers to undertake impromptu assessments, recruited and paid untrained teachers, conducted in service courses for these teachers and supplied food, stationery, beddings, uniform and built classes to all schools which were there at that time. This made learning environment for this community conducive and attractive at the time. Immediately NORAD left/withdrew its AID, the performance of Education started deteriorating until it went down completely.

Also from interaction with the teachers, the concentration of girl child is poor or low after noon and picks up at night and excellent in the early hours of the day. This is attributed to the hormonal changes in the body of a girl child when the heat is at its peak. This therefore means that, the girl child cannot learn well in hot environment as compared to the boy child.

3.3 Socio-economic factors affecting school performance

Table 9-14 in appendices shows that the income for parents from livestock was below Kshs 15,000 according to 70% of the parents. According to 80% of the parents interviewed, they depended entirely on animals for income, 90% agreed that cattle rustling were a source of income to them, 70% of the parents engaged in cattle rustling to get cattle to pay for dowry and sustain their living while 80% depended on their children to get cows for dowry and sustain their living. According to pupils; 93.1% agreed that looking after animals disrupted their learning, 11.5% engaged in cattle rustling, and 24.6% of the pupils viewed cattle rustling as a source of income while 30.3% agreed that cattle rustling caused insecurity in the district. Krätli, (2001) supports above findings in his study it was revealed that nomadic pastoralists in Turkana East District regularly moved in search of water and pasture for their only source of livelihood, livestock. These circumstances together with lack of deliberate developmental programmes by the central government had left the ASALs to lag behind the other regions of Kenya in all aspects as 'pastoralists were usually isolated and remote from central governments...across international borders.

Most of them (pupils) 90% agreed that their parents depended on dowry while majority 79.5% of the pupils hoped that their marriage or marriage of their sisters could be a source of income. A study by Krätli and Dyer (2009:14) agreed with these findings where they argued that nomads are by nature mobile while the orientation of formal education in Kenya requires full time attendance. These arrangements increased costs and limited access to education for nomadic people whose children were a source of labour. A school-based system according to 'conflicts with functional mobility patterns which in dry land areas remain a key strategy for enhancing animal production', and therefore suggest structural organisation of both pastoralism and school system. Although basic education is free and compulsory for all children, the norms dictated that if nomads are to access formal education they should settle at permanent villages (Krätli with Dyer, 2006). These issues are at odds with the lifestyle and learning system of nomads that used mother tongue, apprenticeship,

and mentoring to integrate the 'herders' of tomorrow into nomadic lifestyle and thus their social way of life affected their school performance.

The economic status of the area related to structures where majority of the teachers 94.1% were found to be living in mud/grass houses, which the same applied to pupils who 70.7% lived in mud/grass thatched houses. The houses people lived in this area were not permanent houses since they were mud/grass thatched houses. This depicted area with low economic status. According to 36.6% and 30.4% of the pupils they used tin lamps and hurricane lamps respectively, 55.9% and 27.9% of the teachers stated the same. The source of water according to 43.5% and 31.9% of the pupils got water from stream/river and borehole respectively while 82.4% and 17.6% of teachers got their water for domestic use from the same sources respectively. Under socio-economic issues the main concern mentioned was lack of school fees and other basic needs as factors inhibiting nomadic pastoralists from accessing formal education. Additionally, lack of livestock markets, high unemployment, cattle rustling, diseases and frequent droughts contributed to wide spread poverty that denied them participation in education.

It was revealed from the study that 39.8% of pupils and 57.4% of teachers had one meal in a day with 44% getting meals from school. This meant that pupils relied mainly on food from school feeding programmes. Clothing depicted person's economic status and according to majority of pupils 71.7% had only one pair of uniform which was replaced once in a year according to 38.2% of the pupils.

The social factors affecting school performance according to 51.5% of the teachers was disturbances at home, 89.7% of them felt lack of facilities in schools hampered learning while 73.5% felt that insecurity affected learning. It also showed that 41.2% of teachers indicated that mothers are concerned more about pupils progress, 30.9% felt fathers were more concerned but according to pupils 53.4% felt that their fathers were most interested with 30.4% said it was their mothers. The activities that pupils undertook while at home were collecting firewood/water, cooking for family, herding animals, and visiting their friends and when asked if the activities affected their school performance 59.3% of them disagreed. But when asked if the activities made them miss school 33% said it often made them miss school while 35.1% disagreed.

3.4 Cultural factors affecting nomadic pastoral school performance

Table 15 in appendices, revealed that culturally nomadic pastoralists were usually very mobile as a way of survival; girls are denied education especially through early marriages as source of cattle. This lack of permanent home and their high mobility made school attendance for most nomadic pastoral children irregular or led to high dropouts and non attendance. In regards to marriage 55% of the parents would marry their daughters at age of between 10-12 years while 40% marry them at age of 13-14 years, this implied that the parents marry their children at early age when they are still at primary school going age. Most of the parents 55% preferred that their daughters continued with school while 45% marry them off for dowry. This depicted a scenario where parent still valued marriage to learning. Initiation was still important part of Turkana culture and according to 45% of the parents felt pupils be initiated at age of 10-12 years, while 50% agreed that it could be between 13-14 years old. This meant that most of the pupils left school after initiation since it was earlier revealed that parents preferred that they start a family or get married. According to 22.5% parents thought their daughters continued with school after initiation but 77.5% thought could get married. But they felt that boys could stop schooling after initiation due to the following reasons; 65%

agreed they could start a family, 57.5% said they could look for dowry, 67.5% said they could join father in herding while 30% felt they could join cattle rustling to get animals. This meant that parents preferred their children could seek getting animals and starting a family than continuing with their learning after the rite of passage. This finding is further supported by Kraïli with Dyer, (2006) which found out that interviewed parents' thinking on modern education and its cultural influence is completely different with regard to girls. In the case of girls, school education is thought to have a great influence, to the point that, as people put it, school is believed to turn them into prostitutes' (*ng'amalae*). Prostitution here is not meant literally, but broadly referred to any sex-related behaviour deviating from those formalized and institutionalized within the pastoral society. For example, to become pregnant just before your boyfriend asks your father about marrying you is accepted, but to have a sexual life without marriage is not (even without becoming pregnant). Although the contexts change, this broad use of the concept of prostitution is no different from the way many people still use it in "modern" societies, despite the sexual revolution.

These findings were supported by Ismail (2002) who argued that the perceived challenges stem from the way people and policy makers viewed nomad and their way of life. It's held view that nomadic pastoralist are ignorant, uncultured and unwilling people resulting in their exclusion from education and decision-making that affected them as Ismail (2002:3) explains;

"The pastoralists system was thought to be destructive of natural resources. They used human resources inefficiently and were unable to use the social services available. There was therefore no need to provide educational services or responses".

It is further supported by the MOEST (2001:14) that pastoralists in Kenya avoided education especially for 'girls for fear of being molested or raped' which may not be the case because crime rates in Kenya according to police reports are lowest in North Eastern Province where almost all inhabitants are nomads. However, the fact is schools are out of reach for them to attend regularly. Another perceived challenge is based on the common misconception that unless nomadic communities change to a settled way of life they cannot be educated. As is illustrated by Ismail (2002:5) below;

"Previous and current policies aimed at developing the pastoral system appear inappropriate, but policy makers are still affected by myths and continue to believe that sedentarization is the best way for all. The result is that in terms of education there remains a gap between what the formal education system offers and what pastoral people want for their children".

Tahir (2006:14) also contended that nomads were considered as the 'other'... , depicted as inferior persons whose ways of life had to become sedentary if development and education services were to be brought to them'. These abstract concepts had consciously or unconsciously shaped the current education causing challenges to nomadic learning some of which were revealed in this study and discussed in this section.

3.5 Model Test

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the study model; $SP = f_1SE + f_2CB + f_3SB + \text{error term}$.

Where SP = School Performance
SE= Socio-economic factors
CB = Cultural Based factors
SB= School based

Table 2: Effects of Nomadic Pastoral Factors on primary schools performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.777 ^a	.785	.776	.43829	.975	2.240	4	119	.003

a. Predictors: (Constant), Socio-economic factors, Cultural based factors, School based,

b. Dependent Variable: School performance

This table is important. The Adjusted R Square value tells us that our model accounts or 78.5% of variance in the primary school performance is explained by Nomadic pastoral communities' factors in Turkana East.

Table 3: Coefficients of Regression Model between Nomadic Pastoral factors and school Performance

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.790	1.825		2.076	.003
	Socio-economic factors	.717	.430	.370	1.669	.001
	School based factors	.851	.649	.326	1.311	.003
	Cultural Based factors	.758	.525	.348	1.443	.006

a. Dependent Variable: School Performance

From data, f_1 , Socio-economic factors, f_2 , School based factors, f_3 , Cultural Based factors. It is therefore concluded that the four independent variables influence performance. The four factors contribute to $R = 0.777$ and $R^2 = 78.5\%$, this implies that 78.5% of the change in school performance is explained by the four independent variables. These results are significant as explained by the F-ratio of 2.240 at a p-value = .003.

According to Hair et al (2006) if the coefficient of the independent variables are really not all zero then the F-ratio should be significantly greater 1.00 which in this case F-ratio = 2.224 with a p-value < .003 hence independent variables of Empowerment have a significant effect on organization performance Socio-economic factors $p < .001$, School based factors $p < .003$, Cultural Based factors $p < .006$. The findings are significant and this implies that the Nomadic Pastoral factors affects to great extent performance of the pupils in the district.

4.0 Conclusions

Nomadic Pastoralism formed a significant population in the world. Educationally, from the way we perceive and pursue it, however, they appear to be greatly disadvantaged in terms of enrolment, retention and completion of the school cycle. A lot of efforts have been made to educate them. However, these efforts have failed to register appreciable progress largely due to the overall design

and delivery of education programmes, which did not suit the interests and aspirations of the Nomadic pastoralists. Based on findings it was concluded that teacher-pupils' relation, parents' ignorance, lack of teachers, insecurity, cultural practices and poor performance were the main factors that caused poor school attendance thus affecting school performance in Turkana East district.

It was also revealed that although the buildings were suitable for learning, they did not have enough ventilation and lighting, were not well maintained and the roofing was not of the required standard. The dormitories also were not well ventilated and were congested. Since this is a semi arid area and the temperatures are high, it was not favourable for learning since they become hot and affect learners' concentration and during mid day the roofs were heated up and tend to make a lot of noise thus affecting learning. Also from the study, it was revealed that, some of the classrooms were converted from dormitories thus not meeting the classrooms' standards and as a result affected performance which made learners to seek alternative classrooms under the trees during certain times of the day when temperatures are high. These areas under the trees are always full of disruptions from the surroundings thus making learners concentration zero.

It was thus summarized to mean that the day schools performed poorly as compared to the boarding schools. The good performance of boarding schools could be attributed to conducive learning environment, security, uninterrupted learning, good learning facilities unlike the day scholars who walked long distance home or to relatives' place, face insecurity, frequent movement in search of water and pasture away from school hindering pupils' school attendance and lack food. Pupils lived far away from schools and they had to walk for a long distance to school. This could be the reason why most of them lived with their guardians as revealed earlier in the study. This affected the learners since most of them reach school when they were tired due to long distance of 20kms and above before reaching to school since schools are over 50 kilometres apart. This also affected the education of girl child because they could not endure to walk so many kilometres and even walking at night as the journey to school starts very early in the morning. This also revealed that, only big boys could afford to walk to school while the young boys and girls are left at home as depicted by the study where majority of the class eight pupils are at age bracket of 17years and above.

People in the community depended entirely on animals, other saw cattle rustling as a source of income but some depended on their children dowry to get animals. The children while at home take care of animals and also engaged in cattle rustling but in their view most of them saw cattle rustling and marriage of the sisters as a source of income. These findings meant that in the district animals are valued as a source of income and the residents marry their daughters to get the dowry which was in form of animals while cattle rustling are also seen as a source of income in the region and it was used to replace animals lost as a result of drought, cattle rustling and diseases. This really affected school performance in that, when these pupils went for cattle rustling most of them are killed and those who managed to come back felt warrior like and saw no need of going back to school and sitting with other children, others ready to start a family because they have their own animals and some felt shy to come back to school for fear of intimidation thus falling out of school.

In most homes tin and hurricane lamps were the most used source of lighting in the district. It was concluded that the main source of water in the district was either from stream or river or from a borehole. This meant that people in the district traveled for long distances to fetch water, a job done mostly by women and children in the African context. This also meant that pupils traveled long

distances to draw water for their meals and washing if any, a fact that impacted negatively in their school performance. It was therefore concluded that in most cases, pupils had a meal in a day with some having two meals in a day. This revealed that pupils fail to concentrate in class because they are hungry and therefore some missed class to seek for food elsewhere even if it means going to look for wild fruits. The pupils have one pair of uniform which was replaced after one year. This prompted others to fall out of school because their uniforms was worn out and they felt a shamed of wearing them and yet civilian clothes were not allowed in school.

According to teachers' and pupils' views regarding the home factors affecting pupils' performance, it was concluded that children were given a lot to do while at home, faced a lot of disturbances, lacked facilities to learn, faced insecurity cases, poor weather conditions for study, health problems and lack of enough food to keep them learn comfortably.

The findings indicated that nomadic pastoralists had a positive attitude towards formal education and were willing to acquire it. The problem associated with sending children to school was that parents were dependent on their school-age children for herding animals and for undertaking other household tasks that were important for the survival of a fragile community. Hence, it was a question of the length of time spent in regular schools and the scheduling of lessons outside nomadic pastoral working time.

There was therefore, a need for responsive approaches to education of the nomadic pastoralists by using participatory methods to involve them in the process of definition and identification of what was relevant to them and, most crucially, in the design and development of the curriculum itself. The curriculum had to retain a high degree of flexibility in order to be able to adapt to changes.

5.0 Recommendations

It was imperative to provide services for nomad pastoral communities in the wider context of national development. Whether the channels used were permanent centers, mobile service units, settlement programs or otherwise, improving the quality of life for nomadic pastoralists through Education, basic services, range management, co-operatives and other programs should be thoroughly studied, and programs and projects integrated and streamlined into national development efforts.

Finally, the lack of relevance of the curriculum was not in itself enough to account for low enrolment and high drop-out rates amongst nomadic pastoralists. According to Krätli, (2001) study, which supports that Mongolia is a typical example. It was the only country that had reached nearly 100 per cent literacy with almost half of the population being nomadic pastoralists. It achieved this largely because of the exhibited respect and dignity given to the nomadic pastoralists' cherished cultural beliefs and practices within the context of national life. In this respect, responsive attitudes and behaviours and a friendly cultural environment played a greater role in meeting the nature of the demand than relevance itself.

It was clear that any development geared towards the education improvement for nomadic pastoral communities needed to go beyond paper work and putting up physical structures. It should involve implementing responsive programmes addressing the needs of these mobile 'consumers'. Some of the concerns and considerations worth looking into are discussed below in the form of recommendations. The recommendations are grouped into proposals for consideration at different

levels – Ministry of Education, at the nomadic pastoral setting, outside formal schools and non-educational issues. They are a combination of conclusions drawn from pre-existing work, new evidence from this thesis, and appropriate argumentation. Thus, in order to ameliorate the problem of inaccessibility to basic education by nomadic pastoralists, there is need to pay attention to the following:

The fact that educational policies needed to be re-examined within the context of a globalised world was an understatement. There was the need for urgent reforms in education practices in order to accommodate more practical approaches to solving the problems of access to education. However, effective reforms may be impossible without first reforming the existing policies. There was need to critically reverse aspects of education policies that inherently or directly de-recognise or disempower particular social groups such as nomadic pastoralists. Those aspects of policies that have particularly devalued nomadic pastoralists' life must be expunged so that the goals of educating them will have nothing to do with 'schooling' them to abandon their cherished nomadic pastoral practices. Conversely, nomadic pastoralism should be seen as a national asset.

Rather than being exploited by urban centers, pastoral areas should be developed proportionately. Nomadic pastoralists should be assisted to improve their output, productivity and incomes. They should be provided with social services, including education and amenities to improve the quality of life. Research, management, planning and investment arrangements and institutions should be established to enable pastoral nomads to achieve a viable and self-sustaining economy.

Since the contents of the curriculum emphasized literacy, numeracy and national language, in order to integrate nomadic pastoral children into the modern culture, it only helped children to migrate out of the pastoral sector, rather than helping them make better use of their tribal environment. Therefore, the curriculum had to be revised in content and in form. Educational planners had to recognize the richness of traditional nomadic pastoral knowledge and techniques about livestock production, and incorporate some of this science into the future curricula.

There was the need for new curricula to reflect the true multicultural society in countries where nomadic populations existed. To minimise the problems of integrating minority and ethnic groups such as the nomadic pastoralists, the school curriculum had to undergo substantial changes that could value the socio-cultural differences of those populations. The study was of the view that, if the school curriculum contains elements of the diverse culture, there would be a form of cultural exchange in schools that would facilitate learning, foster cultural integration and understanding, and promote the feeling of belonging in the school. Thus, facilitating cultural continuity between the school and the home would bring about "an adjusted social integration, the collective building of knowledge, and learning based on life and community experiences". This not only could help the nomadic pastoralists to adjust to the school environment, but also broaden the horizons of the other pupils.

One should appreciate the consultation of nomadic pastoral groups in curricula development. Evidence showed that consultation alone did not adequately address their interests and aspirations. Nomadic pastoralists had the power to decide on their fate. Thus, the country both recognized their power and involved them in planning for their education, or they could continue to use their power in a negative way: abstinence from the packaged education meant for them but developed without their active participation.

Instructional strategies and classroom conditions have a strong effect on children's performance. However, health and nutritional status and the home environment must be adequate if even the most effective instructional strategies are to be productive in terms of students' performance.

Nomadic pastoralists could be provided with functional literacy programs with the intention of helping them achieve greater mastery of their occupations, increase their knowledge, advance their careers and continue with their education. Therefore, literacy training for nomadic pastoralist could be complemented by practical lessons on public health care, environmental education (overstocking, overgrazing, etc), nutrition, population education, veterinary knowledge, etc. Functional literacy programs should be linked with income generating activities.

Since teachers from urban centers/other areas were not willing to work among nomadic pastoralists, they could supply their own teacher-trainees. These teachers could be given special and suitable training for the nomadic environment. The government, and or NGOs, had to cover all training costs and supply visual aid materials and salaries which will be supplemented by contributions from parents. This must be matched with a plan to assist local nomadic pastoral communities to make the arrangement sustainable after external contributions ceased. For non residents/non natives who are willing to work within the community should be given good incentives to enable them stay there for long as opposed to the current trend where only natives are promoted to the positions of head teachers thus demoralizing non natives making them to seek transfers where they can be promoted without biases.

From study by King (1994) he argued that our goal of educating nomadic pastoral children, there was a need for closer and better school-community collaboration. King (1994) provided a striking example where he advertised an adult literacy class to the Travelers' in England through impersonal means without any success, but when she decided to visit two homes and personally invited them, the result was that apart from the invitees coming for the classes, they influenced five other women for the programme as well. Thus, the school could build on those types of good practices and build a trusting relationship with the nomadic pastoral communities through constant communication and reporting pupils' progress to parents and encourage their participation since in the district it seemed only fathers were involved.

The time table of education programs and schools for pastoralists could be adapted to their particular environment. The school calendar could be flexible to the pattern of nomadic pastoral life where breaks or holidays could be taken when children are needed most to help their families. These breaks/school holidays must conform to the migratory patterns of the community.

Boarding schools had existed for a long time, but were currently not maximally used, according to this study; the existing examples had reportedly poor diet, beddings and housing. Fieldwork illustrated that nomadic pastoral parents avoided taking their children to boarding schools as the food and environment were all said to be alienating them. As a result, some children had run away from such schools. These schools need to be renovated and avoid converting dormitories to classrooms which are not conducive for learning. Improvement and reliability in food supply.

Basic needs for nomadic communities could be at lower cost to them and be more easily accessible than conventional delivery approaches. One such strategy was to establish boarding schools. The

government could meet the larger part of the cost of boarding schools intended for the children of the pastoral nomads. Such facilities were to be situated at physically accessible points such as water points and grazing areas where a significant number of nomadic families could converge and where there was the possibility of having many children enrolling. Boarding schools could also be as evenly distributed as possible as opposed to now where schools are almost 50kms apart.

At any given point of intervention, the nomadic communities had to be carefully studied so that real needs were identified. They could be incorporated into the decision-making stages of the intervention process. A nomadic pastoralist could answer many questions that planners, researchers, or politicians could not fully comprehend. This was the only way these professionals could be of any help to the pastoral communities without eroding the people's own capacity to support themselves efficiently and economically. Senior policy makers of all relevant institutions (including the Ministry of Education) could be made sensitive to the status of nomadic pastoralists and be regularly informed on progress and constraints in the sector.

In addressing the Education of a girl child in arid and semi arid areas mostly occupied by Nomadic pastoral communities, the Education planners should factor in the aspect of hormonal changes which affect the concentration of these disadvantaged lot of children during harsh weather conditions which is beyond their control. Because the weather is harsh during the day, air conditions should be fitted to all classrooms or any gadget which will make classroom environment conducive for learning and good performance.

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Appendices

Socio-economic factors affecting school performance in nomadic pastoral communities

Table 4: General factors causing poor school attendance in the community

Head teachers views	Frequency	Percent
Bad teacher-pupil relationship	1	11.1
Ignorance of parents	3	33.3
Inadequate teachers	2	22.2
Insecurity	1	11.1
Poor performance	2	22.2
Total	9	100.0

Table 5: State of school buildings

State	Yes		No	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Is the building suitable for learning?	44	64.7	24	35.3
Do the classrooms have enough light and ventilation	33	48.5	35	51.5
Are the building well maintained	12	17.6	56	82.4
Is the roofing of required standard?	15	22	53	78
Dormitory				
The sleeping area is well ventilated	22	32.3	46	67.7
The building was specifically built for pupils	55	80.8	13	19.2
The classroom is congested	56	82.3	12	17.7

Table 6: Classroom condition and teaching resources

Classroom	Yes		No	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
If the class is conducive for learning	52	76.4	16	23.6
Reasons for not being conducive				
They are too hot during day and night	62	91.2	8.8	20.6
They are insecure due to cattle rustlers	54	79.4	14	20.6
Condition in the nomadic class				
No enough classes	48	70.5	20	29.5
Teaching equipments				
Is there enough chalk	32	47	36	53
Is the board painted	26	38.2	42	61.8
Does the school have marker board	14	20.5	54	79.5
Is the board visible by pupils behind the room	33	48.5	35	51.5
Does the school provide dustless chalks	12	17.6	56	82.4
Do you use dust chalks	38	55.8	30	44.2
Time tabling				
Does teachers adhere to time table	52	76.4	16	23.6
Are all subjects given enough time	48	70.5	20	29.5
Does the head teacher monitor lessons attended	32	47	36	53
Engagement in activities				
Games	55	80.8	13	19.2
Debates	36	52.9	32	47.1
Tours	12	17.6	54	82.4
community service	32	47	36	53
Sitting chairs and tables				
No desks	2	2.9		
One pupil	2	2.9		
One to two pupils	52	76.4		
Three to four pupils	12	17.8		
Five to six pupils				
Who buys desks				
Parents	48	70.5		
School	20	29.5		

Table 7: Pupils' performance

Names	Type of school	performance in KCPE 2008-2010					
		Year	Candidates	<100	101-200	201-300	Above 300
Lokori mixed	Boarding Schools	2008	24	4	13	7	0
		2009	32	3	3	24	2
		2010	27	2	5	18	2
Katilia		2008	16	0	4	11	1
		2009	20	2	7	9	2
		2010	22	3	6	8	5
Morulem		2008	17	1	6	7	3
		2009	21	2	5	8	6
		2010	19	2	4	9	4
Mean			2.1111	5.8889	11.2222	2.7778	
Stand. Dev			1.16667	2.93447	5.86894	1.92209	
Lotubae	Day school	2008	22	6	9	7	0
		2009	30	7	18	4	1
		2010	15	5	4	5	1
Lokwii	Day school	2008	16	3	4	7	2
		2009	19	4	6	8	1
		2010	21	3	5	12	1
Lokori girls	Day school	2008	12	2	8	2	
		2009	14	2	8	3	1
		2010	13	2	8	3	1
Elelea	Day school	2008	22	2	4	12	3
		2009	25	1	5	16	3
		2010	19	3	3	10	3
Lopeduru	Day school	2008	19	1	3	11	4
		2009	18	3	3	9	3
		2010	12	2	2	7	1
Lokwamosing	Day school	2008	16	2	11	3	
		2009	14	1	9	3	1
		2010	15	0	10	3	2
Kaaruko	Day school	2008	13	2	8	2	1
		2009	16	1	11	3	1
		2010	20	3	13	2	2
Mean			2.6190	7.2381	6.2857	1.6842	
Stand. Dev			1.71686	3.98629	4.08831	1.05686	

Table 8: Learners' Distance from home

Statements	Teachers		Pupils	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagreed			41	21.5
Disagreed	12	17.6	24	12.6
Undecided	-	-	5	2.6
Agreed	39	57.4	76	39.8
Strongly Agreed	17	25.0	41	21.5
Total	68	100.0	191	100.0

Socio-economic factors affecting school performance in nomadic pastoral communities

Table 9: Approximate level of parents' income from livestock

	Frequency	Percent
Below Kshs 15,000	28	70.0
Kshs 15,000 - Kshs 30,000	7	17.5
above Kshs 30,000	3	7.5
No response	2	5
Total	40	100.0

Table 10: Source of income

Parents' income sources	Yes		No	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Do you depend entirely on animals for income	32	80	8	20
Is cattle rustling a source of income to your family	36	90	4	10
Is cattle rustling source of dowry	28	70	12	30
Do you depend on your children's dowry for animals	32	80	8	20
Economic activities that children participate	Yes		No	
	Freq	%	Freq	%
Does looking after animals disrupt your learning?	178	93.1	13	6.9
Do you look after animals while at home?	150	78.5	41	21.5
Do you engage in cattle rustling activities	22	11.5	169	88.5
Is cattle rustling source of income to you	47	24.6	144	75.4
Is cattle rustling cause of insecurity in schools	58	30.3	133	69.7
Does parents depend on dowry	172	90	19	10
Do you hope that you/yours sisters marriage will be a source of animals	152	79.5	39	20.5

Table 11: Home related factors affecting school performance

	Pupils views	Freq	%
Type of housing	mud/grass thatched	135	70.7
	Timber	25	13.1
	Brick/block	20	10.5
	No response	11	5.8
	Total	191	100.0
Source of lighting	Electricity	12	6.3
	Hurricane lamp	58	30.4
	Pressure lamp	10	5.2
	Tin lamp	70	36.6
	No response	15	7.9
	Total	191	100.0
Source of water	piped water	40	20.9
	stream/ river	83	43.5
	Borehole	61	31.9
	Roof harvested	2	1.0
	No response	5	2.6
	Total	191	100.0
Number of meals	Once	76	39.8
	twice	52	27.2
	thrice	28	14.7
	rarely	20	10.5
	None	11	5.8
	No response	4	2.1
Total	191	100.0	
Source of meals	School	84	44.0
	Friend's house	54	28.3
	Church	10	5.2
	No response	43	22.5
	Total	191	100.0

Pairs of uniform	One	137	71.7
	Two	34	17.8
	Three	10	5.2
	No response	10	5.2
	Total	191	100.0
Number of times uniform was replaced	Every term	24	12.6
	Once per year	73	38.2
	Once in two years	41	21.5
	Until it is completely worn out	49	25.7
	No response	4	2.1
	Total	191	100.0

Table 12: Parents/guardian interest in pupil progress

	Pupil		Teachers		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Parents interest in school progress	Very interested	112	58.6	10	14.7
	Interested	47	24.6	41	60.3
	Not Interested	30	15.7	17	25.0
	No response	2	1.0		
	Total	191	100.0	68	100.0
Parents interest in school progress	Mother	58	30.4	31.4	41.2
	Father	102	53.4	55.1	30.9
	Brother	2	1.0	1.1	2.9
	Guardian	17	8.9	9.2	5.9
	None response	6	3.1	3.2	19.1
	Total	185	96.9	100.0	100.0

Table 13: Family problems and work done that affected pupils' performance

<i>Pupils views</i>	<i>Very common</i>		<i>Common</i>		<i>Not common</i>		Mean	Std dev				
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%						
Family factors												
Alcoholism	28	14.7	37	19.4	120	62.8	2.50	.745				
Quarrelling and fighting parents	14	7.3	32	16.8	141	73.8	2.68	.608				
Lack of food	44	23.0	117	61.3	28	14.7	1.92	.613				
Health problems	52	27.2	89	46.6	44	23.0	1.96	.721				
Weather conditions	71	37.2	93	48.7	19	9.9	1.72	.643				
Too much domestic work	40	20.9	56	29.3	87	45.5	2.26	.795				
Work done at home	SD		D	U	A		SA	Mean	Std dev			
Collecting firewood/water	16	8.4	6	3.1	5	2.6	101	52.9	61	31.9	3.98	1.115
Cooking for family	20	10.5	39	20.4	10	5.2	53	27.7	59	30.9	3.51	1.417
Herding animals	18	9.4	43	22.5	10	5.2	66	34.6	52	27.2	3.48	1.355
Working for money	61	31.9	66	34.6	18	9.4	19	9.9	16	8.4	2.34	1.560
Running errands	53	27.7	49	25.7	23	12.0	25	13.1	35	18.3	2.68	1.486
Visiting friends	16	8.4	10	5.2	10	5.2	86	45.0	65	34.0	3.93	1.178

Table 14: Social factors affecting pupils' performance

<i>Teachers views</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>U</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std dev</i>					
Too much work at home	15	22.1	11	16.2	2	2.9	25	36.8	15	22.1	3.21	1.512
Disturbance at home	2	2.9	16	23.5	3	4.4	35	51.5	12	17.6	3.60	1.143
Lack of facilities	4	5.9	3	4.4			34	50.0	27	39.7	4.13	1.050
Insecurity	2	2.9	7	10.3	6	8.8	13	19.1	37	54.4	4.17	1.167
Poor weather	2	2.9	10	14.7	12	17.6	17	25.0	24	35.3	3.78	1.192
Health problems	4	5.9	10	14.7	19	27.9	25	36.8	10	14.7	3.40	1.095
Enough food	4	5.9	6	8.8	4	5.9	32	47.1	22	32.4	3.91	1.129
Parents fighting	30	44.1	15	22.1	11	16.2	3	4.4	9	13.2	2.21	1.399
Pupils views												
Too much work at home	44	23.0	43	22.5	11	5.8	35	18.3	56	29.3	3.08	1.592
Disturbance at home	44	23.0	46	24.1	17	8.9	43	22.5	39	20.4	3.20	4.070
Lack of facilities	26	13.6	28	14.7	10	5.2	53	27.7	69	36.1	3.60	1.461
Insecurity	29	15.2	20	10.5	14	7.3	51	26.7	71	37.2	3.62	1.474
Poor weather	28	14.7	20	10.5	14	7.3	64	33.5	54	28.3	3.53	1.420
Health problems	28	14.7	26	13.6	10	5.2	60	31.4	60	31.4	4.30	6.227
Enough food	36	18.8	12	6.3	12	6.3	66	34.6	61	31.9	3.56	1.481
Parents fighting	81	42.4	68	35.6	11	5.8	4	2.1	19	9.9	1.97	1.238

Cultural factors affecting nomadic pastoral school performance**Table 15: Cultural factors affecting school performance**

	<i>Yes</i>		<i>No</i>		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	
At what age would you marry your daughter?	10-12	22	55		
	13-14	16	40		
	15-16	2	5		
	17-18				
Would you prefer to school or marry your daughter?	School	22	55		
	Marry	18	45		
At what age are girls and boys under go initiation?	10-12	18	45		
	13-14	20	50		
	15-16	2	5		
	17-18				
After initiation will your daughter continue with school?	Continue	9	22.5		
	get married	31	77.5		
Do you think boys should continue with school after initiation?		11	27.5	29	72.5
Reasons why they should not continue	They should start a family	26	65	14	35
	They should look for dowry to get married	23	57.5	17	42.5
	They should join their fathers in herding	27	67.5	13	32.5
	They should join cattle rustling so that they have their own herds	12	30	28	70