

# Influence of Poverty Reduction Strategies on the Attainment of Education Goals in Turkana Central Constituency, Turkana County

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**Abstract:** This research topic was set to knowing the influence of poverty reduction strategies on the attainment of education goals in Lodwar Town of Turkana County targeting a population of 133 respondents. The objectives of the study were to establish the efforts put in place by both the governments and private sector. The specific objectives were; to establish the effect of school feeding programmes on attainment of education goals, to find out how sponsorships influences on attainment of education goals, to find out how medical assistance influences attainment of education goals, and to determine how life skills trainings influences attainment of education goals the study used. The researcher used random sampling design for data collection. The researcher targeted the Lodwar Municipality area specifically Kanamkemer, Napetet, Nakwamekwi, Soweto and Kawalase areas of the Lodwar Town. The population was sampled using stratified random sampling technique. Questionnaires were adopted as the main data collection tool. Lastly data collected was presented using descriptive statistics which involved using tables and regression analysis was used and the study established the finding of the study were The correlation results indicated that School feeding programme has significant strong positive effect on the performance of NGOs with  $R = .716$ ,  $p < .01$  at 99.0% confidence level. Regression analysis showed that School feeding programme significantly accounted for 51.2% of variation in performance of NGOs with  $F(1, 80) = 82.911$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The findings revealed that school feeding program had a mean of 4 (agree) and standard deviation of 0.77639 revealing that liquidity management have an effect performance of NGOs. Sponsorship like regular analysis of NGOs cash flows, regular of analysis of cash outflows, analysis of NGOs liquidity position and comparison of near cash with cash payment obligations. The correlation results indicated that asset management has significant strong positive effect on the performance of NGOs with  $R = .693$ ,  $p < .01$  at 99.0% confidence level. Regression analysis indicated that sponsoring significantly accounted for 48.1% of change in performance of NGOs with  $F(1, 80) = 73.126$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The findings indicated Medical assistance had a mean of 3 with a standard deviation 0.88. Medical assistance like up to date asset register, depreciation of assets, provision for depreciation of assets, procedure for disposing asset nearing the end of life and assets are kept in the best condition until disposal. The correlation results indicated that asset management has significant positive moderate effect on the performance of NGOs with  $R = 0.522$ ,  $p < 0.01$  at 99.0% confidence level. Regression analysis showed that asset management significantly accounted for 27.2% of variation in performance of NGOs with  $F(1, 80) = 29.513$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . Life skills trainings with mean of 3 (Quarterly) and standard deviation of 0.65074 indicated that Life skills trainings were mainly done quarterly. The correlation results showed that sponsorship has significant positive moderate effect on the performance of NGOs with  $R = .501$ ,  $p < .01$  at 99.0% confidence level. Regression analysis showed that Life skills trainings significantly accounted for 25.1% of change in performance of NGOs with  $F(1, 80) = 26.521$ ,  $p < 0.05$ .

**Keywords:** Sponsorship, medical assistance, life skills training, Schools feeding and attainment of education goals.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### Background:

The nomadic lifestyle combined with chronic poverty recurrent droughts, material deprivation, inadequate social safety nets, conflicts, high levels of illiteracy among the adult population and lack of awareness of the value of education among parents, interrupt a child's education. Turkana's education indicators are unacceptably low. Children in Turkana (6-13 age group) are less likely to access primary education with only 50 percent enrolled (53.2% boys, 46.6.8% girls), compared with the national average 92.5 percent (94.6% boys 90.5% girls). Likewise, only half of pre-school age children in Turkana (4-5 age groups) attend Early Childhood Development and Education (ECDE). The poverty levels in the county very high at 94.9 percent compared to the country which is at 45.9 percent. The estimated deprived child population in the county is at 76 percent. The availability of WASH facilities in the county is at 43.7 percent compared to the country which is at 54.1 percent. The overall school attendance for the children is at 39 percent which is far much below the country's school attendance of 70.9 percent. Low access, retention and transition rates in schools are attributed to the limited number of trained teachers, low teacher morale, shortage of adequate instructional and learning materials, scarce technical and financial resources for inclusive education, hence threatening the right to education for the girls, the nomadic children and children with special needs. Between 45-57% of South Africans are estimated to be engulfed by poverty. In an attempt to identify policy instruments that could help change this status quo, the various strategies that have been implemented in countries eg (China, Vietnam and Uganda) that are known to have been relatively successful in reducing poverty are reviewed. In the process, this dissertation discusses the literature regarding poverty, with a particular emphasis on the definition, measurement and determinants thereof. Furthermore, South Africa's anti-poverty strategies are discussed. It turns out that these have met limited success. This is largely due to insufficient pro-poor economic growth, weak implementation/administration at the municipal level, slow asset redistribution, high income/wealth inequality, low job generation rate by SMME's, high HIV/AIDS infection rate, public corruption and inadequate monitoring of poverty. Therefore, if meaningful progress towards poverty reduction is to be achieved, the government needs to deal with the foregoing constraints accordingly.

### Global poverty eradication strategies:

In Malaysia, poverty reduction became a major objective in national development plans with the introduction of NEP in 1971. Since then, though there were modifications to the policies, its importance has remained unchanged indicating successive governments' commitment to poverty eradication. Under NEP, the strategy for eradication of poverty consisted of three major components (Malaysia, 1971). The first aimed at increasing income and productivity of those in low productivity occupations through the expansion of their productive capital, and utilizing the capital efficiently. This was to be achieved by the adoption of modern techniques, the provision of better facilities such as land, replanting, irrigation, introduction of new crops, improved marketing and credit, financial and technical assistance. Secondly, the government aimed at improving the living standards of the low-income groups by providing a wide range of free or subsidized social services. Such services included housing, electricity, water, transportation, health and medical services, education, recreation and community facilities. The third component was to increase opportunities for inter-sectoral mobility from low productivity areas to high productivity areas. This was facilitated by the provision of financial and technical skills, necessary education and training and the organizational arrangements.

The creation of employment opportunities for the poor is a prerequisite for raising incomes of the poor. This was to be achieved by rapid economic growth brought about by the expansion of the modern industrial sector of the economy. It was expected that the rapid growth of this sector would not only contribute to generate employment opportunities but also provide opportunities for higher income jobs. Emphasis was also given to small scale industries, exports of manufactured goods, construction industry and services which have significant employment potentials. The NEP policies emphasized projects that modernize traditional production which was enable the poor to participate in the opportunities provided by the expanding modern economic sector. Since the majority of the poor are in the agricultural sector, the government focused on the programmes that would raise the productivity of this sector which would in turn raise agriculture incomes. These programmes included distribution and settlement of land, development of cultivated land through drainage and irrigation, application of fertilizers and more intensive cultivation such as double cropping, inter-cropping. Village industries and rural entrepreneurships which would provide an additional source of income were encouraged through incentives. The government provided institutional and agricultural support services to reduce real costs of production and increase efficiency in production. These included extension services, research, training, subsidized credit and other essential inputs, price subsidies.

Another strategy adopted in eradicating poverty was the provision of better and more efficient services in education. The government viewed education as the main means for the poor to move up the social ladder as it provides access to better paying jobs. Greater attention was also given to equip Bumiputera and the poor of other races with necessary training and skills to enable rural to urban migration and participate in modern economic activities. These programmes included subjects related to work attitudes and values in order to motivate participants to be better, more productive workers. The government also focused on improving the quality of life of the poor through the provision of infrastructural facilities. These included the extension of the coverage of basic amenities and services, particularly to the rural areas where the majority of the poor lived. During the NDP period, antipoverty programmes focused on the hardcore poor. These programmes included several components aimed at children, mothers, senior citizens and heads of the households. Priorities were given to income generating projects, the inculcation of positive values and providing direct welfare assistance. The programmes involved the delivery of appropriate projects to meet their specific needs, such as additional opportunities to increase their employability and income, better housing, food supplements for children and educational assistance. Less emphasis was given to welfare handouts as a means of eradicating poverty, except for aged and disabled who are unable to engage in employment. In addition, the government introduced the Bumiputera Unit Trust loan scheme in 1992.

That programme provided each Bumiputera hardcore poor family with a RM 5000 interest free loan to purchase shares in a unit trust scheme so as to increase their incomes. Other than government programmes, non-government organizations (NGOs) and the private sector implemented their own programmes for the poor and the hardcore poor. With the support of private companies, NGOs provided interest free small NGOs loans to poor and hard core poor families. Other programmes focused on skills training with guaranteed employment, educational assistance and better housing. During the periods of NEP and NDP, Malaysia achieved rapid and almost continuous rates of economic growth, remarkable reductions in incidence of poverty and marked progress in meeting targets for the restructuring of society by bringing the Malays into the mainstream economic activities. During the NEP period, the economy grew at an average annual growth rate of 6.7 percent. Though the growth rates fell short of expectations, annual growth rate of real GDP was higher than 6 percent except during the recession in 1985-86 and the financial crisis which swept across the region in 1997.

In the 1970's the economy grew at a 15 average annual growth rate of 8.3 percent as against 5.1 percent during the pre NEP decade of the 1960s. Due to the depressive effects of the recession in 1985-86, the average annual growth rate in 1980's was slowed down to 6 percent. After recovering in 1987, the economy grew at roughly more than 8 percent annually until the financial crisis 1997. The economy experienced a negative growth in 1998 but picked up from 1999 and sustained at an average annual rate of 4.5 percent. Consistent with the high growth rates during this period, per capita income in 1987 prices increased by 3.5 times from US\$1371 in 1970 to US\$ 4600 in 2000 (Khan, 2002). Malaysia's performance on poverty reduction not only met expectations but exceeded them. The incidence of poverty in Peninsular Malaysia declined from 49.4 percent in 1970 to 15.0 percent in 1990. The incidence of rural poverty and urban poverty in Peninsular Malaysia also declined to 19.3 percent and 7.3 percent respectively. These figures show that the NEP had reduced poverty beyond its target (Malaysia, 1991, 1996). Despite the impressive progress made in reduction of incidence of poverty, ethnic disparities in poverty have continued. The poverty rate for the Bumiputera decreased from 65.0 percent in 1970 to 20.8 percent in 1990. Although the incidence of poverty among Bumiputera has decreased by about 68 percent since 1970, it is still high compared to only 5.7 percent for the Chinese and 8 percent for the Indians.

#### ***Regional poverty elevating strategies:***

To most South Africans (and to some parts of the international community for that matter), April 27th 1994 signified an unprecedented political transformation in South Africa. This is when this country finally emerged triumphant from more than a century of de facto and de jure apartheid oppression, which meant that there would be the advent of a new, democratic political dispensation. What is even more impressive about this political transformation is that it came about with minimal violence. Hence, South Africa's democracy is held in high regard throughout the world, especially on the African continent. Notwithstanding this unique political transformation, however, the truth of the matter is that the first democratically elected government, led by the African National Congress (ANC), inherited a country that was described by the World Bank as one of the world's 2 most unequal economies, with a gini coefficient measuring 0.58 (Hunter et al, 2003).

The ANC-led government also inherited a country that was characterized by vast inequalities in the quality of education, health care and basic infrastructure, such as access to safe drinking water, sanitation and housing. For instance, while only a quarter of all Blacks had access to piped water in their houses, Asians and Whites had universal access in 1995

(Hoogeveen & Özler, 2004). Over and above this, the country was disfigured by widespread poverty, with almost half of the South African population being categorised as poor in terms of the national poverty line of R 354 (Klasen, 1997). Even though such problems may have been common in many societies throughout the world, the uniqueness of the South African situation was that these problems were primarily engendered by the four decades of apartheid legislation built on the earlier policies of colonialism (May, 1998).

In 2004, South Africa celebrated a decade of democracy and the demise of apartheid. While significant progress has been made in education, healthcare, housing and provision of basic services the general consensus among development practitioners and institutions is that poverty is still widespread in South Africa. Depending on the poverty line, the method employed in measuring poverty, and whether poverty is measured at the household or individual level, the extent of this phenomenon is estimated to range between 45 and 57% (Human Development Report, 2003; Taylor Committee, 2002; HSRC & Whiteford, 2004). Given the foregoing estimates, common wisdom dictates that this is an obvious area of concern in the post-apartheid era. Fortunately, the government acknowledges that a lot more effort needs to be made in order to eradicate or at least reduce this social ill (see for example Mbeki, 2004). What is also encouraging is that the State President, Thabo Mbeki (in line with a number of ANC policy documents, most notably the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development) unequivocally.

#### **Local poverty elevating strategies:**

High levels of poverty, characterized by a poor record of economic growth and high inequality in income and asset ownership, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa have become major development challenges. Kenya's economic performance has been declining and poverty has increased. The country has not been able to generate the growth necessary to reduce the social and economic inequalities. The key challenges facing the country at the moment are deteriorating economic performance and high levels of poverty, with more than one half (56% by 2000) of the population living below the poverty line. Consequently, the twin objectives of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) are poverty reduction and economic growth. These are based on two broad objectives: to reduce poverty levels in half by the year 2015 and to achieve a 'Newly Industrialized Country' status by 2020 (GOK 2001). The PRSP is a short-term strategy that seeks to implement these objectives.

Since the idea of equity is central to the poverty reduction initiatives as indicated in the PRSP, gender equality should also be central to the PRSP. Without women's empowerment and advancement through promotion of gender equality, poverty cannot be reduced (UNDP 1998). Similarly, it is difficult if not impossible to reduce poverty without addressing the gender imbalances reflected in the different dimensions of poverty. This calls for the incorporation of gender in the formulation of policies at the macro and sectoral levels, expenditure allocations as well as monitoring and evaluation.

A favorable and stable macroeconomic environment is essential for economic development. The three main types of policy objectives at the macro level are attainment of price stability, full employment, and foreign sector balance. In pursuing these objectives, policy makers use the traditional policy instruments: fiscal policy, monetary and exchange rate policies. The general assumption is that these policy objectives and the instruments are both gender-neutral. This assumption has widely been contested. Macroeconomic policies have implications at the micro-level. Similarly, activities at the micro and meso levels have implications at the macro level. There are gender implications involved at both the micro and meso levels. For instance, at the meso level, there is a growing understanding of markets as social institutions, encompassing relationships that embody social values. Often, imbalance of power along gender is one form of social differentiation that shapes such relationships/imbances (Elson 1993; Baden 1996).

Various macroeconomic problems emanate from gender inequalities at the micro and meso levels (Çagatay 1998). The gender debate is not something that is entirely new. However, previous efforts have mainly focused on involving women in development in the form of Women in Development (WID) analysis as opposed to gender dimensions. Initial efforts to integrate women in development were primarily with national planning bodies and sectoral departments, particularly education, health and agriculture, which dealt with women in their traditional gender roles (Corner 2002). The gender dimension, rather than treating women in isolation, is a relational concept that also means that men are to be explicitly brought into the analysis. Despite a long history of lobbying by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and women's organizations, policy makers traditionally see gender as essentially a social issue with little relevance to the macro economy (Evers 2001). Consequently, their attempts to incorporate gender perspectives are limited to taking account of women's needs in social sectors such as social welfare and health. However, Gender is an issue for economic policy and not just for social policy (Evers 2001). Trade, investment, competition and macroeconomic policies are not gender-neutral. They have tremendous implications for women's employment, poverty, social burden and ultimate societal well-being.

Elson (2002) appropriately puts the whole concept of engendering the budget and macroeconomic framework into perspective; it is not producing separate budgets for men and women. Engendering the budget involves investigating the policy impact on women and girls as compared to men and boys to establish whether gender gaps are bridged, widened or the status quo maintained by the budget and macroeconomic framework. Clearly, such an analysis can only be done after a country's gender analysis has been undertaken to bring out such gaps and identify the relevant policy actions to bridge the gaps. With globalization, gender implications have become not only a concern of individual countries but also the world as a whole. The Commonwealth Secretariat's role in encouraging member countries to mainstream gender concerns into macroeconomic policy dates back to 1989.

In 1995, realization of considerable differences in women and men's access to and opportunities to exert power over economic structures, governments worldwide made a commitment to promote women's economic rights including access to employment and control of economic resources (Oyugi, 2002). The 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development and the 2000-2005 update—Advancing the Commonwealth Agenda into the New Millennium—for instance calls for monitoring and analysis of the impacts of macroeconomic and economic reform policies on women and men, and the development of strategies, mechanisms and corrective measures to address gender imbalances in key areas. To date some significant progress has been made and gender responsive budgets have been developed in over forty countries, including Australia (1984), Canada (1993) and South Africa (1994), among others. Kenya is signatory to various gender conventions and declarations, including the 1979 Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the 1980 Copenhagen World Conference that stressed the need for women to participate in the development process as both experts and beneficiaries, and the 1995 Beijing Platform for Actions where affirmative action was identified as an indispensable strategy for gender mainstreaming. So far, there is hardly any assessment that has been done on the implications of gender dimensions and how these relate to the overall objective of development and poverty alleviation in the Kenyan PRSP.

#### **Statement of the Problem:**

This theory of poverty is a large and multifaceted set of explanations that focus on the individual as responsible for their poverty situation. Typically, politically conservative theoreticians blame individuals in poverty for creating their own problems, and argue that with harder work and better choices the poor could have avoided (and now can remedy) their problems. Other variations of the individual theory of poverty ascribe poverty to lack of genetic qualities such as intelligence that are not so easily reversed. The belief that poverty stems from individual deficiencies is old. Religious doctrine that equated wealth with the favor of God was central to the Protestant reformation (Weber 2001) and blind, crippled, or deformed people were believed to be punished by God for either their or their parents' sins. With the emergence of the concept of inherited intelligence in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the eugenics movement went so far as to rationalize poverty and even sterilization for those who appeared to have limited abilities. Books like Hurrnstein and Murray's *The Bell Curve* (1994) are modern uses of this explanation. Rainwater (1970:16) critically discusses individualistic theories of poverty as a "moralizing perspective" and notes that the poor are "afflicted with the mark of Cain. They are meant to suffer, indeed must suffer, because of their moral failings. They live in a deserved hell on earth." Rainwater goes on to say that it is difficult to overestimate the extent to which this perspective (incorrectly) under-girds our visions of poverty, including the perspective of the disinherited themselves. Ironically, neo-classical economics reinforces individualistic sources of poverty. The core premise of this dominant paradigm for the study of the conditions leading to poverty is that individuals seek to maximize their own well-being by making choices and investments, and that (assuming that they have perfect information) they seek to maximize their well-being. When some people choose short term and low-payoff returns, economic theory holds the individual largely responsible for their individual choices--for example to forego college education or other training that was lead to better paying jobs in the future.

The economic theory that the poor lack incentives for improving their own conditions is a recurrent theme in articles that blame the welfare system's generosity on the perpetuation of poverty. In a *Cato Journal* article, economists Gwartney and McCaleb argue that the years of the war on poverty actually increased poverty (adjusted for noncash transfers) among working age adults in spite of unprecedented increases in welfare expenditures. They conclude that "the application of simple economic theory" suggests that the problem lies in the war on poverty. They [welfare programs] have introduced a perverse incentive structure, one that penalizes self-improvement and protects individuals against the consequences of their own bad choices (1985). This and similar arguments that cast the poor as a "moral hazard" also hold that "the problem of poverty continues to fester not because we are failing to do enough, but because we are doing too much that is counterproductive" (Gwartney & McCaleb 1985). Their economic model would solve poverty by assuring that the penalty

of poverty was great enough that none would choose it (and welfare would be restricted to the truly disabled or otherwise unable to work).

A less widely critiqued version of the individualistic theory of poverty comes from American values of individualism—the Horatio Alger myth that any individual can succeed by skills and hard work, and that motivation and persistence are all that are required to achieve success (see Asen, 2002:29-34). Self-help literature reinforces the belief that individuals fail because they do not try hard enough. Frank Bettger (1977), in the Dale Carnegie tradition, tells how he got a list of self-improvement goals on which to focus and became one of the most successful and highly paid salesmen in America. He goes on to say that anyone can succeed by an easy formula—focused goals and hard work. This is the message of hundreds of self-help books, articles, and sermons. By extension, this literature implies that those who do not succeed must face the fact that they themselves are responsible for their failure. While scientifically it is routine to dismiss the individual deficiency theory as an apology for social inequality (Fischer et al., 1996), it is easy to see how it is embraced in anti-poverty policy which suggests that penalties and incentives can change behavior

The second theory of poverty roots its cause in the “Culture of Poverty”. This theory is sometimes linked with the individual theory of poverty or other theories to be introduced below, but it recently has become so widely discussed that its special features should not be minimized. This theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. Individuals are not necessarily to blame because they are victims of their dysfunctional subculture or culture. American Sociology has long been fascinated by subcultures of immigrants and ghetto residents as well as the wealthy and powerful. Culture is socially generated and perpetuated, reflecting the interaction of individual and community. This makes the “culture of poverty” theory different from the “individual” theories that link poverty explicitly to individual abilities and motivation. Technically, the culture of poverty is a subculture of poor people in ghettos, poor regions, or social contexts where they develop a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behavior that are separate from but embedded in the culture of the main society. Oscar Lewis was one of the main writers to define the culture of poverty as a set of beliefs and values passed from generation to generation. He writes, once the culture of poverty has come into existence it tends to perpetuate itself. By the time slum children are six or seven they have usually absorbed the basic attitudes and values of their subculture. Thereafter they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities that may develop in their lifetime. (Scientific American, October 1966 quoted in Ryan, 1976: 120). Cultures are socialized and learned, and one of the tenants of learning theory is that rewards follow to those who learn what is intended. The culture of poverty theory explains how government antipoverty programs reward people who manipulate the policy and stay on welfare. The underlying argument of conservatives such as Charles Murray in *Losing Ground* (1984) is that government welfare perpetuated poverty by permitting a cycle of “welfare dependency” where poor families develop and pass on to others the skills needed to work the system rather than to gain paying employment. The net result of this theory of poverty is summed by Asen’s (2002) perceptive phrase, “From the war on poverty to the war on welfare.” This theory of poverty based on perpetuation of cultural values has been fraught with controversy. No one disputes that poor people have subcultures or that the subcultures of the poor are distinctive and perhaps detrimental. The concern is over what causes and constitutes the subculture of poverty. Daniel Patrick Moynihan found the concept particularly applicable to his study of Black poverty in the early 1960s and linked Black poverty to the largely “dysfunctional” Black family found in central cities. Valentine (1968:20) criticizes E. Franklin Frazier, who with Daniel Patrick Moynihan (1965), portrayed the culture of the negro poor as an “immoral chaos brought about by the disintegration of the black folk culture under the impact of urbanization”.

In other sub-cultural situations the cultural portrayal of the poor is more sympathetic. For example, many liberal scholars understand the cultural problems that Native Americans face trying to assimilate middle class value systems. Ironically, after a number of generations we recall the “heroic” efforts of Irish or Italian immigrant groups and their willingness to accept hard work and to suffer for long term socio-economic gains; we forget the cultural discrimination they faced for not fitting in during the first generations after they arrived. Today the sub-cultural values for higher education and entrepreneurship among Asian and Indian immigrant groups are prized as an example of how subcultures can work in the favor of groups trying to escape poverty. Whereas the first “individualistic” theory of poverty is advocated by conservative thinkers and the second is a culturally liberal approach, the third to which we now turn is a progressive social theory. Theorists in this tradition look not to the individual as a source of poverty, but to the economic, political, and social system which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and wellbeing. Research and theories in this tradition attempt to redress the problem noted by Rank, Yoon and Hirschl (2003):

“Poverty researchers have in effect focused on who loses out at the economic game, rather than addressing the fact that the game produces losers in the first place.” The 19<sup>th</sup> century social intellectuals developed a full attack on the individual theory of poverty by exploring how social and economic systems overrode and created individual poverty situations. For example, Marx showed how the economic system of capitalism created the “reserve army of the unemployed” as a conscientious strategy to keep wages low. Later Durkheim showed that even the most personal of actions (suicide) was in fact mediated by social systems. Discrimination was separated from skill in one after another area, defining opportunity as socially mediated. Taken to an extreme, radical thinkers argued that the system was flawed and should be radically transformed.

Much of the literature on poverty now suggests that the economic system is structured in such a way that poor people fall behind regardless of how competent they may be. Partly the problem is the fact that minimum wages do not allow single mothers or their families to be economically self-sufficient (Jencks, 1996). The problem of the working poor is increasingly seen as a wage problem linked to structural barriers preventing poor families from getting better jobs, complicated by limited numbers of jobs near workers and lack of growth in sectors supporting lower skilled jobs (Tobin, 1994). Interestingly research is showing that the availability of jobs to low income people is about the same as it has been, but wages workers can expect from these jobs have fallen. Fringe benefits including health care and promotions have also become scarce for low skilled workers. These and related economic changes documented by Blank (1997) and Quigley (2003) show the way the system has created increasingly difficult problems for those who want to work. Elimination of structural barriers to better jobs through education and training have been the focus of extensive manpower training and other programs, generating substantial numbers of successes but also perceived failures. However, in spite of perceived importance of education, funding per student in less advantaged areas lags that which is spent on richer students, teachers are less adequately trained, books are often out of date or in limited supply, amenities are few, and the culture of learning is under siege. This systemic failure of the schools is thus thought to be the reason poor people have low achievement, poor rates of graduation, and few who pursue higher education (Chubb and Moe, 1996).

A parallel barrier exists with the political system in which the interests and participation of the poor is either impossible or is deceptive. Recent research has confirmed the linkage between wealth and power, and has shown how poor people are less involved in political discussions, their interests are more vulnerable in the political process, and they are excluded at many levels. Coupled with racial discrimination, poor people lack influence in the political system that they might use to mobilize economic benefits and justice. A final broad category of system flaws associated with poverty relate to groups of people being given a social stigma because of race, gender disability, religion, or other groupings, leading them to have limited opportunities regardless of personal capabilities. No treatment of poverty can be complete without acknowledging that groups against which discrimination is practiced have limited opportunities regardless of legal protections. The process of gaining stronger rights for minorities in poverty is an ongoing one, for which legal initiatives and public policy reform must work with efforts to change public attitudes.

### **Objectives of the Study:**

#### **General objectives:**

The general objective of the study was influence of poverty reduction strategies on the attainment of education goals in Turkana Central Constituency, Turkana County.

#### **Specific objectives of the study:**

1. To establish the effect of school feeding programmes on attainment of education goals
2. To find out how sponsorships influences on attainment of education goals.
3. To find out how medical assistance influences attainment of education goals.
4. To determine how life skills trainings influences attainment of education goals.

#### **Research Questions:**

1. What is the effect of school feeding programmes on attainment of education goals?
2. How does sponsorships influences on attainment of education goals?
3. What is the effect how medical assistance influences attainment of education goals?

4. Does life skills trainings influences attainment of education goals?

#### **Research Hypotheses:**

This research was guided by the following null hypotheses:-

1. H<sub>01</sub>: School feeding programmes have no effect on attainment of education goals
2. H<sub>02</sub>: Sponsorships have no effect on attainment of education goals
3. H<sub>03</sub>: Medical assistance has no effect on attainment of education goals
4. H<sub>04</sub>: Life skills trainings have no effect power, on attainment of education goals

#### **Justification of the study:**

The researcher is a resident in the county and has an interest on community development and wanted to establish the adverse effects of poverty reduction strategies attainment of education goals since the county has high prevalence of school dropouts due to poverty. This study will be beneficial to the following parties, (a) Ministry of Education, (b) County government (c) Policy makers (d) Stakeholders including financiers and parents

#### **Scope of the study:**

The study was based on the topic 'poverty reduction strategies on attainment of education Goals in Turkana county of Lodwar Municipality, Turkana central. The target population was primary schools as well as parents, community members and community health workers. The study was carried among selected managers in NGOs, ministry of Education, county Government- Turkana county Lodwar Municipality. The sample size was 133 respondents.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **Theoretical Framework:**

##### **Theory of Planned Behavior:**

Prevention efforts have with some frequency included an element of how attitudes may affect the perceptions of this disease and how these attitudes influence behavior or behavioral intent (Bruce & Walker, 2001). However, as was noted above, very few studies have examined teachers' attitudes in the context of HIV/AIDS. Not all prevention efforts are based on theory, but those that are theoretically based and that focus on individuals and their behavior (King, 1999) have commonly been based on one or more of the following theories/models: the health belief model (Rosenstock et al., 1994), the AIDS risk reduction model (Catania et al., 1990), stages of change model (Prochaska, DiClemente, 1992), protection motivation theory (Rogers, 1983), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Middlestadt, 1989) and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985). As Bruce and Walker (2001) note, these models generally have certain constructs in common, including saliency of the problem, perceived threat or personal susceptibility, and often some element of social norm and beliefs about severity of the disease.

##### **Functional Theory:**

Functional theory addresses the motivations that underlie attitudes that people hold (Katz, 1960). The main assumption of functional theory is that people hold attitudes for a reason that they serve a specific psychological function. One of the main appeals of understanding different attitude functions is that if messages and interventions are tailored to the specific attitude functions that people hold, then it becomes much easier to address and manipulate those attitudes. By the same token, gaining insight into the attitude functions that teachers hold toward addressing HIV/AIDS offers an intuitive and practical appeal. Assuming that there is some support for a link between at least certain attitude functions and teacher behavior, it then becomes possible to tailor training, communication messages and support interventions to specific attitude functions and to possibly select from among the pool of teachers those who are more likely to effectively implement their role as teachers. The functional approach to attitudes therefore allows us to consider teachers as individuals, many of whom are probably profoundly marked in their thinking by what they know and have experienced in life, rather than as a homogenous group of people who was blindly follow central instructions on what content to teach and was do so effectively if they have the right conditions.



A number of issues associated with attitude functions have been highlighted such that the use of attitude functions consists of distinguishing between the different motivations that underlie those attitudes. Various forms of categorization continue to exist in the literature and research in this field and a definitive catalog was probably never drawn up. For the purpose of this study I was distinguish between the diversified approach to attitude functions and the dichotomous approach – also termed the “neo-functional approach” in Ressler & Toledo (1997). The diversified approach acknowledges the existence of a larger set of attitude functions, including: utilitarian attitudes that help people organize perceptions of environment in a manner that allows them to obtain rewards and avoid punishment; social- adjustive attitudes that help mediate interpersonal relations; value-expressive attitudes that express values important to the self-concept; ego-defensive attitudes that protect the self from anxiety and attacks on self-esteem; and finally attitudes that serve a knowledge function by satisfying the individual’s need for cognitive learning (Herek, 2000).

The dichotomous approach, on the other hand, emphasizes two broad categories of attitude functions, namely the evaluative and expressive function (Herek, 2000). Expressive functions are served by symbolic attitudes and are “broadly defined as being related to affirmation of identify and enhancement of self-esteem” (Herek & Capitano, 1998). In this case the object of the attitude serves primarily as a symbol. The evaluative functions, on the other hand, are seen as “reflecting an underlying need to understand the social world and are based primarily on self-interested appraisals of the attitude object” (Herek & Capitano, 1998).

### Alternative Development Theory:

Alternative development is the general theoretical underpinning which guides this study. Today in development studies, with the advance of post-structuralism, the alternative development paradigm has taken the hegemonic theoretical advantage over its predecessors for the explanation of the contemporary development discourses. As such, the current scholarships and research in development studies, including this one, position themselves in one or another aspect of alternative development. Alternative development is a development of and by the “third system” - the third system here refers to the local communities and civil societies, while the “first and second system” refer to the state and the market respectively (Pieterse, 2001). What is commonly articulated among proponents of alternative development is the argument that development should begin from below (Pieterse, 2001). With a general, gradual paradigm shift towards alternative development, some specific concepts and strategies have crept into the field of development studies. For the sake of empirical operationally, this study has been guided by the following basic conceptual underpinnings that constitute alternative development theory.

### Conceptual Framework:

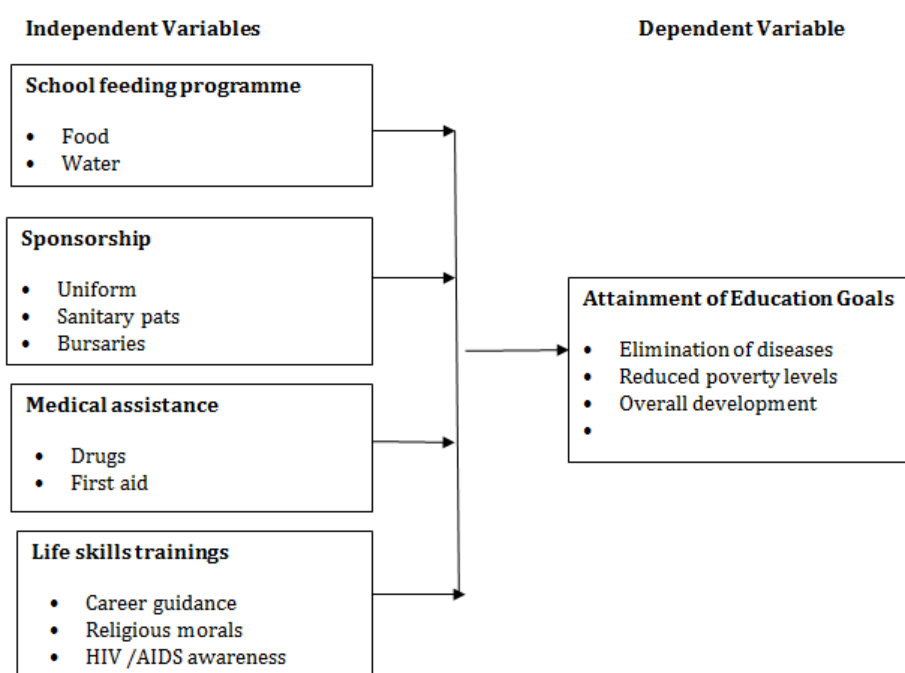


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

**Critique of Existing Literature Relevant to the Study:**

The key challenges facing the country at the moment are deteriorating economic performance and high levels of poverty, with more than one half (56% by 2000) of the population living below the poverty line. Consequently, the twin objectives of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) are poverty reduction and economic growth. These are based on two broad objectives: to reduce poverty levels in half by the year 2015 and to achieve a 'Newly Industrialized Country' status by 2020 (GOK 2001). The PRSP is a short-term strategy that seeks to implement these objectives.

Since the idea of equity is central to the poverty reduction initiatives as indicated in the PRSP, gender equality should also be central to the PRSP. Without women's empowerment and advancement through promotion of gender equality, poverty cannot be reduced (UNDP 1998). Similarly, it is difficult if not impossible to reduce poverty without addressing the gender imbalances reflected in the different dimensions of poverty. This calls for the incorporation of gender in the formulation of policies at the macro and sectoral levels, expenditure allocations as well as monitoring and evaluation. Various macroeconomic problems emanate from gender inequalities at the micro and meso levels (Çagatay 1998). The gender debate is not something that is entirely new. However, previous efforts have mainly focused on involving women in development in the form of Women in Development (WID) analysis as opposed to gender dimensions. Initial efforts to integrate women in development were primarily with national planning bodies and sectoral departments, particularly education, health and agriculture, which dealt with women in their traditional gender roles (Corner 2002). The gender dimension, rather than treating women in isolation, is a relational concept that also means that men are to be explicitly brought into the analysis. Despite a long history of lobbying by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and women's organizations, policy makers traditionally see gender as essentially a social issue with little relevance to the macro economy (Evers 2001). Consequently, their attempts to incorporate gender perspectives are limited to taking account of women's needs in social sectors such as social welfare and health. However, Gender is an issue for economic policy and not just for social policy (Evers 2001).

**Research Gaps:**

The effect of perceptions of this disease and how these attitudes influence behaviour or behavioural intent (Bruce & Walker, 2001) . However, as was noted above, very few studies have examined teachers' attitudes in the context of HIV/AIDS. Not all prevention efforts are based on theory, but those that are theoretically based and that focus on individuals and their behavior (King, 1999) have commonly been based on one or more of the following theories/models: the health belief model (Rosenstock et al., 1994), the AIDS risk reduction model (Catania et al., 1990), stages of change model (Prochaska, DiClemente, 1992), protection motivation theory (Rogers, 1983), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Middlestadt, 1989) and the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985).

**Summary:**

The study employed theory of Planned Behavior, functional Theory and alternative Development Theory. The reviewed literature shows that no substantial work has been done on strategies on poverty reduction in Turkana County. Consequently there is a gap in this area of research. The study heavily relies on studies done in the western countries to provide direction in terms of related literature.

**3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY****Research Design:**

The research design which was undertaken in the study was the survey method. It was used to investigate populations by selecting samples, analyses and discover occurrences. It was also used to provide quantitative and numeric description of some part of the population. The design took a cross sectional exploratory survey with a mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative research in Turkana (Creswell, 2014). This research design was used due to the argument that multi method approach enables triangulation to take place. Descriptive research design was also used in this study. In this process, respondents' views are documented to give the actual scenario. This allows time for the respondent to give their personal interpretation of what they think about the question. Descriptive research design was considered best for its scientific method which involves observing, describing, recording, analyzing and reporting conditions that exist without alterations. The researcher used both primary and secondary data (Kothari & Garg, 2014).

**Target Population:**

The study was target 200 respondents within Central part of Lodwar Municipality. The target population was drawn from community members, community health workers, teachers and parents.

**Table3.1 Target population**

Category	Target Population
Community members	20
Teachers	50
MOEs	10
NGOs	5
CBOs	5
Tertiary Intuitions	5
ECD	40
Community Health workers	20
Parents	45
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>

**Sample Size and Sampling Procedure:**

The sample size for this study was be obtained using (Abrha, 2016) formula for finite population as follows; and distributed as shown below

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

Where,

n = the sample size

N = the size of population

e= the error of 5 percentage points

$$n = \frac{200}{(1 + 200 \times 0.05^2)} = 133$$

**Table 3.2 Samples size**

	Target population	Sample size
Community members	20	13
Teachers	50	34
MOEs	10	7
NGOs	5	3
CBOs	5	3
Tertiary Intuitions	5	3
ECD	40	27
Community Health workers	20	13
Parents	45	30
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>133</b>

**Data Collection Procedure:**

The research permit was sought from the National Council for Science and Technology after receiving the approval from the university. On receiving the permit, the researcher was allowed to proceed to the field to collect data from Turkana County. The respondents were requested to fill the questionnaires. It's expected that they will hand over back the filled questionnaires to ensure a high return rate. Section A of the questionnaires was be used to address democratic information and section B was asses' poverty alleviation strategies.

**Data Analysis and Presentation:**

Data collected was edited, sorted and coded using descriptive methods, percentages, modes and means to give meaningful results from the questionnaires findings. The stepwise regression analysis technique is a variant of the multiple regression analysis models which is designed to select from a group of independent variables the one variable at each stage that has the largest correlation ( $r^2$ ), and hence makes the largest contribution to the model. The program stops admitting independent variables into the equation when no other independent variable makes a contribution that is statistically significant at a level specified by the researcher. The following equation represents the model that was explain the relationship between poverty alleviating strategies and attainment of education goals.

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \mu_i$$

Where;

Dependent variable is attainment of education goals and is denoted by Y

Independent variables are:

$X_1$  School feeding programme

$X_2$  Sponsorship

$X_3$  Medical assistance

$X_4$  Life skills trainings

$\beta_0$  Constant term

$\beta_j$  Beta coefficients for  $j = 1, 2, 3, 4$  which indicate per unit change in the dependent as the independent variable changes by one unit.

$\mu_i$  Error term for  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, n$

Before running the linear multiple regression models, the model was tested for existence of multi-Co linearity and Heteroskedasticity at 95% confidence interval. An analysis of the various hypotheses was provided as to the way the data was derived by each Hypothesis that was analyzed and measured.

**4. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS****Findings of Demographic Characteristics of Respondents:**

Demographics characteristics of the respondents such as gender, marital status and highest level of education were ideal for this study. The respondents were required to state each of their characteristics. The results are as shown in Table 4.1

**Table 4.1: Demographics Characteristics of the respondents**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	167	65.4
Female	89	34.6

<b>Marital Status</b>		
Married	183	71.6
Single	73	28.4
<b>Highest Education Qualification</b>		
Informal /None	9	3.70
Primary KCPE	16	6.17
Secondary KCSE	32	12.35
College Certificate	57	22.22
College Diploma	107	41.98
University Degree	35	13.58

Gender in this study was critical as it reveal of the two genders which one is dominant in Turkana County. From Table 4.1, male formed the majority of the respondents as they constituted 65.4% of the respondents while female were 34.6% of the respondents. The study revealed that most NGOs in Turkana County are run by male as compared to female. Table 4.1 shows the marital status of the respondents. Majority of the respondents were married as they constituted 71.6% of the respondents while single were 28.4% of the respondents.

#### NGOs Characteristics:

NGOs characteristics of the NGOs such tenure, number of employees and training was also required for this study. Each of the respondents was required to state their NGO characteristics. The results are as shown in Table 4.2

**Table 4.2: NGO Characteristics of the respondents**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Sponsorship</b>		
1-2 years	155	60.5
3-4 years	57	22.2
5 years and above	44	17.3
<b>No. Employees</b>		
1-4	32	12.3
5-9	167	65.4
10 and above	57	22.2
<b>Attended Training</b>		
YES	57	22.2
NO	199	77.8
<b>Training Duration</b>		
Less than a month	43	16.7
1 to 3 months	128	50.0
over 3 months	85	33.3

The study sought to know for how long the NGOs have been running. This helped to researcher to know for how long NGOs have been offering sponsorship to the attainment of education goals in Turkana. Table 4.2 reveals that most of the NGOs in Turkana County have been operating for between 1 and 2 years as they constituted 60.5% of the NGOs in this study. However, NGOs running between 3 and 4 years were 22.2% and over 5 years were 17.3%. Turkana County have been running for over 1 years which was ideal for this study.

The respondents were required to state the number of NGOs employees they are having in their NGOs. Table 4.2 shows the number of employee the NGOs have employed. Most of the NGOs have employed between 5 and 9 employees as shown by 65.4% of the NGOs. Above 10 employees were 22.2% while between 1 and 5 employees was 12.3% of the respondents. It is evident that majority of the NGOs in NGOs in Turkana County have created job to other people and also the addition hand is significant in the school feeding program. Training is important in the sponsorship of NGOs. The respondents were required to state if they have been engaged in training and the duration of the training. From Table 4.2, only 22.2% of the respondents had attended training while 77.8% had not attended training. Of those who attended 16.7%

had attended training less than a month. Half of the respondents had attended training for a period between 1 and 3 months with 33.3% had attended training for over 3 months. The findings indicated that majority of the respondents had not attended training in Turkana county.

### Descriptive Analysis:

Descriptive analysis included an establishment of working capital, determining liquidity management, assessment of Medical assistance and determining Life skills trainings. Descriptive measures included mean, standard error of estimate, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis. Mean is a measure of central tendency used to describe the most typical value in a set of values. Standard error of mean is a measure of reliability of the study results. A small standard error implies that most of the sample means was be near the centre population means; thus, the sample mean has a good chance of being close to the population mean and a good estimator of the population mean. Standard deviation shows how far the distribution is from the mean.

### School feeding programs:

The study was set out to determine how often poverty reduction strategies towards attainment of sustainable education goals is practiced by NGOs in Turkana County. The statements were anchored on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=Very rare to 5= Very often and respondents were asked to indicate the frequency to which they agreed to the statements. To establish the School feeding programme, the respondents were asked to indicate how often they offer support. 3 reveal that 60.5% of the respondents indicated that they often ensure that they keep track of the assistance received at any given time with further 16% of the respondents rated it as very often. However, 9.9% of the respondents stated they rarely ensure that they rarely keep track of the assistance given by NGOs and well-wishers at any given time. The overall mean of 4(often) show that they often ensure that they keep track of the assistance given by NGOs at any given time. Similarly, 64.2% of the NGOs often have a clearly specified limit of their sponsorship while further 12.3% do that very often. Nonetheless, 9.8% of the respondents stated that they rarely have a clearly specified limit on the on the assistance they give for attainment for attainment of education goals. The overall mean of 4 (often) with standard error of 0.1. However, 63% of the NGOs stated that sometimes they ensure that they shorten that process cycle by ensuring quick delivery of their assistance while 14.8% of the NGOs indicated that they often ensure that they shorten the procurement cycle by ensuring working with pre-qualified suppliers of their goods, furthermore 17.3% of the NGOs rarely do that. The overall mean was 3 (Sometimes) with a standard mean error of 0.1. Furthermore, 40.7% of the NGOs and 27.4% of the NGOs indicated that rarely and very rarely respectively that they maintain an optimal working capital base to enable a smooth running of their NGOs sponsorship programmes in Turkana. However, 6.1% of the NGOs they often maintain School feeding programme to enable a smooth running of their NGOs. With a mean of 2(rarely) maintain an optimal capital base to enable a smooth running of their NGOs with a standard error of 0.1.

### Linear Regression analysis of School feeding programs on Educational goals:

Pearson correlation analysis revealed that all the independent variables had significant positive effect on the performance of NGOs in Turkana County. The study carried out linear regression analysis the find out the effect of each independent variable on the performance of NGOs through R square which is the coefficient of determination. The results are as shown in Table 4.3

Table 4.3: Linear regression results for independent variables

ANOVA and Model Summary						
Predicator Variables	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Df		Sig.
				Regression	Total	
School feeding programme	.512	.506	82.911	1	80	.000
Sponsorship	.481	.474	73.126	1	80	.000
Medical assistance	.272	.263	29.513	1	80	.000
Life skills trainings	.251	.242	26.521	1	80	.000

Dependent Variable: NGOs performance

## 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Summary of the findings:

The study analyzed the influence of poverty reduction strategies on the attainment of education goals in Turkana central constituency, Turkana County. A sample size of 133 respondents was used in the study and a response rate of 85.0% was achieved.

### On School feeding programme on performance of NGOs:

Objective one of the study sought to establish the effects of School feeding programme on performance of NGOs in Turkana County. The findings established that School feeding program with a mean 4 (agree) and standard deviation 0.96 indicating that it has effect on the performance of NGOs. The correlation results indicated that School feeding program has significant strong positive effect on the performance of NGOs with  $R = .716$ ,  $p < .01$  at 99.0% confidence level. Regression analysis showed that School feeding programme significantly accounted for 51.2% of variation in performance of NGOs with  $F(1, 80) = 82.911$ ,  $p < 0.05$ .

### Conclusions:

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be made based on the research questions. First, the overall conclusion is that sponsorship have significant effect on the performance of NGOs in Turkana County. Secondly, the study established that medical assistance has significant positive strong effect on the performance of NGOs with specific practices like keeping track of the stocks and specifying credit limit. Basing on the third objective of the study, the study was able to determine that sponsorship have significant strong positive effect on the performance of NGOs with specific practices like analysis of NGOs cash flows, analysis of cash outflows and analysis of the liquidity position of a NGOs. Basing on objective three of the study, the study assessed that Medical assistance had significant moderate effect on the performance of NGOs with practices such as up to date asset register and system for maintenance of assets ensures that assets are kept in the best condition until disposal.

### Recommendations:

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations can be made. The overall recommendation is for NGOs which have not been using sponsorship to adopt them in their operations. This was enhance the NGOs overall performance by more than 50%. This was ensure that NGOs there is sufficient working capital for NGOs operations and was increase the NGOs value

Thirdly, basing on sponsorship, the study recommended that NGOs compare the near cash in with the cash payment obligations before making payment decisions this was ensure that that the organization does not risk running into a cash deficit which in turn would lead NGOs running into overdrafts which are more expensive source of finance. Fourthly, on life skills NGOs should allow for training of skills to all the residents towards .

### Areas of Further Research:

The scope of the study was based on effects of poverty eradication strategies on poverty eradication in Turkana County. The following are areas of suggestions for further research to be taken up. Investigate the influence of life skill training on food security and carrier choice in Turkana County as well as effective sponsorship programs to be put in place for realization of sustainable attainment of education goals in marginalized Turkana County.

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