Drylands Learning and
Capacity Building Initiative
for Improved Policy and
Practice in the Horn of Africa

Framework for Improved Integrated Education in the Arid and Semi-Arid Lands of Kenya

By Daniel Wesonga, April 2015

Humanitarian Aid
and Civil Protection

Contents

List of Tables

Acronyms

ACE	Adult and Continuing Education
APBET	Alternative Provision of Basic Education and Training
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
BoG	Board of Governors (secondary schools)
BoM	Board of Management
CBO	Community-Based Organization
CDF	Constituency Development Fund
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CS	Cabinet Secretary
DEB	District Education Board
DFID	Department for International Development, UK
DL	Distance Learning
DLCI	Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative
DP	Development Partner
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECDE	Early Childhood Care and Development Education
ECDE	Early Childhood Development and Education
EFA	Education for All
EMACK	Education for Marginalized Communities in Kenya
EMIS	Education Management Information System
FBOs	Faith Based Organizations
FPE	Free Primary Education
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GoK	Government of Kenya
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HNSP	Hunger Safety Net Programme
IP	Investment Programme
IQS	Integrated Quranic Schools IQS

KCPE	Kenyan Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE	Kenyan Certificate of Secondary Education
KDHS	Kenyan Demographic and Health Survey
KESSP	Kenyan Education Sector Support Programme
KHPC	Kenya Household Population Census
KIHBS	Kenyan Integrated Household Budget Survey
KNBS	Kenyan National Bureau of Statistics
KNEC	Kenyan National Education Council
LATF	Local Authority Trust Fund
LCBS	Low Cost Boarding Primary Schools
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science & Technology
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MVC	Most Vulnerable Children
NASMLA	National Assessment Systems for Monitoring Learning Achievement
NCONEK	National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
N-NFEI	Network for Non Formal Education Institutions
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PTR	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
REGLAP	Regional Learning and Advocacy Program for vulnerable dryland communities
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Measuring Education Quality
SMC	School Management Committee (primary schools)
SMCs	School Management Committees
SNE	Special Needs Education
TIVET	Technical Industrial Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training
TOR	Terms of Reference
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TTC	Teacher Training College
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
WFP	World Food Programme

Acknowledgements

Executive Summary

The Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI) (formerly REGLAP) is a capacity building organisation for learning and advocacy on critical issues for the drylands in the Horn of Africa. DLCI has long promoted awareness on the importance of appropriate education for development and resilience building in the drylands. In 2011, REGLAP published an article on nomadic education in Kenya as part of its second journal on improved policy and practice in the drylands of the Horn of Africa. In 2012 it presented at the Pastoral Education Conference in Nairobi on education and resilience which led to the setting up of a Kenya Advocacy Group to lobby for the establishment of the National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya (NACONEK). In 2014 DLCI organised a workshop to review the distance education strategy for nomadic communities which was eventually included in the Government of Kenya's Ending Drought Emergencies strategic framework on human capital.

Recognizing the potential benefits in establishing NACONEK and concerned by the slow of progress since the passing of the Act, DLCI carried out this study to develop an integrated framework for education in the ASALs of Kenya (both in terms of curricula and delivery mechanisms) in order to provide a basis for NACONEK once operationalised, to focus its activities and for other stakeholders to collaborate on advocacy on improved resourcing and more appropriate delivery mechanism for education.

Integrated education means a linked system of education that is not developed and delivered in silos, but one that maximises opportunities for complimentarity, the sharing of resources, and transition. DLCI's proposed integrated framework incorporates the recently established NACONEK alongside all stakeholders working in the education sector. It considers formal and non-formal, public and private, as well as secular and religious education alternatives, as part of a strategy to work collaboratively on education priorities and improve provision. The framework also considers plans for continued provision during seasonal movement and possible disasters, such as drought and conflict, which are particularly common in the ASALs.

The framework is based on a review of available literature and consultations with key informants on the current status of education in ASALs in Kenya and what is working in other dryland areas of the world. It proposes a mix of delivery mechanisms and more relevant curricula and proposes some general principles to promote improved education planning in the ASALs for the future.

The status of education in Kenya's ASALs is extremely poor, with 90% of the 2 million Kenyan children who have never been to school living in the ASALs. Primary enrolment rates are as low as 40% in many counties, compared to a national average of 95%. Between 2005 and 2010 the gender parity index has worsened, with female literacy rates remaining below 10% in some counties. Teacher pupil ratios are below other areas of the country, and completion rates and performance are way below national averages. A large number of youth who have been through the education system are now disconnected from their traditional livelihoods and do not have the right skills to find employment. This disaffected cohort is vulnerable to crime and extremist influence.

The national government has made repeated commitments to provide education for all, including in the new Constitution, but educational investment is having limited impact in the ASALs. Many of the delivery mechanisms that have been designed to reach ASAL children have not been implemented—particularly distance learning and non-formal provision—or are under-resourced and supervised, for example mobile schools, feeder schools, low cost boarding schools and adult literacy classes.

Many argue that education provision should be the same as in other areas of the country—in terms of delivery mechanisms, levels of human resources and curricula—despite huge differences in the infrastructure, human resource and livelihood base, and the social and environmental conditions of the ASALs. This insistence is resulting in 50% of the population in these areas not being reached by education at all; and those that are getting it having no prospects of employment and being alienated from their communities.

In the context of the ASALs, flexibility, innovation and new technologies need to be applied creatively to ensure an education system that is of equal quality; but that is also relevant, culturally appropriate, strengthens existing and alternative livelihoods, and facilitates effective progression through to the formal education system.

The constraints and opportunities of education delivery mechanisms in the ASALs

The current format of education provision in ASAL areas is described below, together with some of the critical activities needed for their improvement:

Formal schooling:
This is currently a mixture of day schools, private provision and low cost boarding schools, mainly in urban areas. Boarding schools are broadly popular, as pastoralist households can then maintain their livelihood strategies of mobility and migration while their children receive a formal education. The concept of 'low cost' boarding schools however has led to an unacceptable level of resourcing and should be scrapped. Currently they are characterised by dilapidated and inadequate infrastructure—lacking sufficient beds, mattresses, clean drinking water and classrooms. There is low capitation (8ksh per day per child for food), inadequately qualified support staff, teacher shortages, and limited capacity of education boards to undertake oversight functions, as well as inadequate safety and security.   These issues should urgently be addressed so that parents feel comfortable that their children will have adequate education provision and security in such institutions. Given the resource constraints, private and NGO provision should be promoted for boarding schools. Models are starting to emerge on how to integrate these, but this needs further exploration and emphasis.

Feeder schools to cater for younger children should be established for lower primary, particularly in locations where children walk for more than three kilometres to reach the nearest primary school. This will help increase participation by younger children. Such schools could be established in smaller

settlements, grouped in clusters working with a larger, central primary school, to which the older children would transition. Existing feeder schools are inadequate, lack necessary teaching-learning materials, and teachers are not given sufficient professional support.

Non-formal education

Mobile schools are still operational in some ASAL areas, although many have stopped functioning due to inadequate funding and supervision; and lack of support by the community due to the poor quality of education provided. There are possibilities of improving mobile schools by supporting them with distance learning, in which the majority of education is provided via radio or the Internet—with mobile teachers holding tutorials or camps. Other possibilities of improvement include payment by results, clustering and placing them under the supervision of formal schools, improving teacher quality and monitoring, and using remote technologies. Mobiles schools must either be improved or they should be scrapped and resources transferred to more appropriate provision, as they are currently using resources without clear evidence of effective operation or educational impact.

There is a variety of non-formal education provision in the ASALs, mainly by NGOs or religious institutions including shepherd schools and *duksis.* Where these are attracting students and are showing impact they should be recognised and supported by government.

Distance learning is yet to be tried in the ASALs, despite its huge potential in reaching remote and scattered communities in ways that do not disrupt livelihoods and are culturally appropriate. A distance learning strategy was developed in 2010, as well as a costing and teachers manual, however no attempt was ever made by MOEST to even pilot the strategy. This strategy needs updating given the advance in technologies, distance learning experiences elsewhere, and communication infrastructure; and also needs to integrate face-to-face provision particularly in the early years. Distance learning can also offer complementary education to those children in school and can provide on-going training to teachers.

Adult literacy

With literacy rates so low in ASALs, particularly for women in rural areas, there is an urgent need to increase adult literacy and numeracy in ways that are culturally appropriate and take into account women's time availability and preferences e.g. for *duksis* in North Eastern. The requirements include teachers being reviewed and lessons learnt from campaign approach in other countries; where educated people in communities, especially unemployed youth, are trained on mass for literacy campaigns.

Vocational training

Vocational training for the practical skills that are in demand in the ASALs should be prioritised in order to promote employment prospects for school leavers, and provide the necessary skills for economic development in these areas. Subjects should be based on current and future human resource needs including, for example, animal health workers, health and education and local government staff, and emerging mineral and infrastructure development sectors. As many pastoral drop outs will need to become self-employed due to lack of formal employment opportunities, marketing and business skills

should be prioritised and linked to the governments' youth and women's credit, startup finance and work placement schemes.

A framework for improved integrated education in the ASALs

In engineering, system integration is defined as the process of bringing together the component sub-systems into one system and ensuring that the sub-systems function together as a system. System integration is also about adding value to the system: capabilities that are possible because of interactions between sub-systems. This framework for integrated education consists of a series of proposed principles to guide education planning in the ASALs, as well as priority activities to improve key approaches to education delivery and promote linkages.

Principle 1: Build on existing resources and what is already working, or that has the potential to work in a particular context.

ASAL areas differ considerably from the rest of Kenya in terms of livelihoods, the mobility of their populations, cultures, infrastructure, and human resource base, even within their county boundaries. Education provision needs to respond to this context. For example in some areas, private provision and non-formal Islamic education e.g. *duksi's* are what is being accessed; in others mobile schools and shepherd schools are attracting children. ASAL areas generally lack fully qualified teachers, but there are numerous educated youth that are currently unemployed or under-employed who could be mobilised and trained to provide basic literacy or non-formal education. These young people could become fully-fledged teachers using fast track approaches and distance learning, and receive other forms of continuous professional development.

Principle 2: Use innovations to address the problems of distance and poor quality that are constraining education

There are a number of recent studies on the status of education in the ASALs that identify the constraints and challenges in the ASALs, including lack of resources, inadequate numbers of and poor training of teachers, limited monitoring and supervision, and mistrust and disillusionment of education provision by communities. Each of these issues requires specific interventions to address them, but the standard responses currently being used should be interrogated given their lack of progress in recent years. Innovative thinking is needed, learning from experiences elsewhere but adapting them to the specific contexts. For example, improvements in technologies and experiences of distance learning provide huge opportunities to increase the reach and quality of education in these remote areas, as well as improve monitoring and supervision. Distance education is being used in other sectors in the country e.g. financial, higher education and refugee camps; and methods of monitoring using mobile phones and GIS technologies are widespread, for example water point monitoring, and smart cards being used for cash transfers and service provision; but these are yet to be adapted to ASAL education. In cases where direct monitoring is difficult, results based payments could be introduced e.g. for adult literacy and mobile schools.

A strategy that ensures the relevance of the education provided, both in terms of the formal curricula but also vocational training for youth, needs to be prepared to address current and future livelihood options.

Provision should also plan creatively with the realities of the ASALs in mind, particularly in terms of seasonality and regular drought and conflict so that learning is not constantly interrupted.

Principle 3: Advocate for considerable increases in resources and improved efficiency to deliver quality education

Given the poor state of infrastructure and education in the ASALs a major education overhaul is needed to reach all children and adults. A massive increase in resources is needed to support quality education provision and reforms. Resources have to be found that really can provide 'education for all', or alternative cheaper mechanisms for delivery have to be adopted. Joint financing from county governments and the private sector could be promoted. Some resources could also be recouped from current inefficiencies however: i.e. non-productive and underutilised staff and facilities, and the scrapping of inappropriate or non-priority provision.

Civil society should lobby for this major change and donors should play their part in encouraging the Government to meet its stated commitments. Cheaper alternatives to provision or enhancement, e.g. distance learning, should also be considered. The sharing of resources, e.g. the sharing of buildings, teachers, materials and supervision, can also make savings. Using primary school buildings and teachers to provide other forms of education when they are not being used; sharing or adapting local language teaching learning materials between non-formal and formal provision; and adapting and drawing on NGO provision e.g. vocational training curricula, should be considered.

Given the major lack of qualified teachers and reluctance of teachers from other areas to be posted to the ASALs, particularly in remote or insecure areas, other grades of teachers and mechanisms for training should be considered. The provision of intensive courses and on-going skill development, financial incentives, lower levels of teachers working under the supervision of qualified teachers, and distance learning should all be considered.

Principle 4: Involve communities and promote accountability

Community engagement in the planning of education provision will not only enhance ownership, relevance and sustainability of the approach, but will also enhance accountability and efficiency in its delivery. Accountability mechanisms should be built into all education interventions to increase efficiency and accountability as well as responsiveness. Where social accountability mechanisms already exist e.g. Transparency International's mechanisms in Turkana, Wajir and West Pokot, the Ministry of Education should actively engage with them. In other areas, accountability mechanisms including complaints and feedback mechanisms should be developed, with a clear feedback mechanism and follow up of issues to be addressed. Accountability for education among education managers requires bold discussions and a review of the job descriptions of County and Sub-county directors of education and the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), to reflect the real needs of pastoral areas.

Principle 5: Prioritise education efforts

There are many activities that need to be carried out in the ASALs, however those that will have the most impact the most quickly must be prioritised, to prevent losing another generation to illiteracy and limited

futures. Quality basic education and literacy for all, and ensuring that education enhances livelihood options through vocational and other training are clear priorities, although consultation with communities on what should be done is fundamental.

Principle 6: Advocate for devolution of functions that the county government has potential to deliver
Counties are prioritising education, however they are limited in the ways they can improve provision because of national level control and limited devolution. The Constitution allows for devolution of facilitative roles. The national government is failing the ASALs and should focus on providing quality assurance and support, especially for formal education, while allowing counties themselves to take on other functions e.g. adult literacy, school infrastructure development and non-formal education and vocational training. The national government should oversee examinations, curricula and teacher quality, and support capacity building in counties; but reaching out of school children and education campaigns requires responsiveness in particular contexts and communities—approaches that should be overseen by county governments. At the very least, county governments should define what mechanisms for provision are the most appropriate. Teacher management, resourcing, monitoring, and advocating for flexibility in the curriculum and school calendar, should all involve the counties more.

1. Introduction

1.1. About Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI)

The Drylands Learning and Capacity Building Initiative (DLCI) (formerly REGLAP) is a capacity building organisation for learning and advocacy on critical issues for the drylands in the Horn of Africa. DLCI has long promoted awareness on the importance of appropriate education for development and resilience building in the drylands. In 2011, REGLAP published an article on nomadic education in Kenya as part of its second journal on improved policy and practice in the drylands of the Horn of Africa. In 2012 it presented on education and resilience at the Pastoral Education Conference in Nairobi which led to the setting up of a Kenya Advocacy Group to lobby for the establishment of the National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya (NACONEK). In 2014 it organised a workshop to create awareness on and review the distance education strategy for nomadic communities which was eventually included in the Government of Kenya's Ending Drought Emergency strategic framework on education[1].

1.2. Background to the Assignment

Kenya has committed to providing quality education to all its citizens as a basic human right. As a signatory to the Jomtien Declaration on Education for All (EFA) (1990); the Dakar Declaration of Education for All (2000); and the Millennium Development Goals (2000) that call for universal access to quality basic education. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) as the implementing agency of the Government of Kenya has committed itself to achieving all these targets. Policies and laws have been passed to enforce the delivery of education including the Children's Act of 2001; the Persons with Disabilities Act of 2003; and the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005. As one of the initiatives to achieve the national and international EFA commitments, the Government introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003. The FPE programme witnessed an influx of children into schools. Over 1 million pupils were enrolled in standard 1 in 2003 at the onset of FPE initiative, 741,500 of whom completed Standard 8, representing a completion rate of approximately 76.8 percent. Despite the growth in pupil enrolment following the implementation of FPE, over two million school-age-going children are still outside the school system, most of which are in the ASALs. At the same time about 20 percent of adults and youths aged 15 years and above are still illiterate (National Education Sector Plan, 2013/2014-2017/2018).

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 includes the right to free and compulsory basic education for every child aged from 4 to 17 years. The Basic Education Act No. 14 of 2013 provides for free and compulsory basic education and provides for the establishment of a National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya (NACONEK), which was approved in November 2013 and is responsible for overseeing nomadic education in Kenya as well as other hard to reach children.

Despite the passing of the Basic Education Act, No. 14 of 2013 and the approval of NACONEK, little progress has been made in improving the quality and reach of education in the ASALs, despite the dire situation. However 2 years on, NACONEK is only juts being set up. Recognizing the potential benefits in establishing NACONEK and concerned by the slow of progress since the passing of the Act, DLCI now plans to focus on promoting an integrated framework for intervention in education in the ASALs of Kenya (both

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[1] GOK (2015) Ending Drought Emergencies Program Strategy for Human Capital.

in terms of curricula and delivery mechanisms) in order to inform NACONEK once operationalised, and as a basis for advocacy for stakeholders working in this sector.

1.3. Objectives of the Assignment

The objectives of the assignment were to i) develop a shared framework of interventions in education ASALs together with other educational actors including NACONEK and ii) define an advocacy strategy with clear responsibilities shared across the education actors in the ASALs in support of and co-ordinated by NACONEK. The framework focuses on the mix of <u>delivery mechanisms</u> and <u>curricula</u> for functional education for enhancing current livelihoods and as a building block to the more formal system and vocational and other training that leads to alternative and complimentary livelihoods. The audience for the framework is mainly NACONEK and the Ministry of Education, Science and technology which oversees it, and other educational actors engaged in advocacy on education in the ASALs.

1.4 Approach and methodology

The development of the strategy included the following key steps;

1. Literature review
2. Stakeholder consultations and interviews (see list in Annex)
3. Drafting of framework
4. A stakeholder consultation workshop with key education actors interested in the ASALs and NACONEK.
5. Finalisation of the framework incorporating stakeholder comments and recommendations.

2. Overview of the Current Status of Education in the ASALs of Kenya

A review of key education indicators show that the ASALs are shockingly low particularly given the praise the Government attracted for universal primary education achievements. Now that the Millennium Development Goals have been replaced by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) which look beyond national averages and promote equity in achievements, this praise is likely to be less forthcoming in the future.

The education situation in the ASALs is a result of neglect of these areas in the current and past governments. 'Since Kenya's independence, districts situated in the ASALs, particularly the arid areas of Kenya have continued to exhibit extensively lower access, participation, completion, and achievement rates.' (Sifuna 2005).

2.1. Adult Literacy Levels
A National Adult Literacy Survey conducted in 2007 revealed that 61.5% of the adult population had attained the minimum literacy level, leaving 38.5% (7.8 million in absolute numbers) adults illiterate. The survey also showed that only 29.6% out of the 61.5% of the adult population with minimum literacy level had acquired the desired mastery literacy and numeracy competency. About 29.9% of the youth aged 15 to 19 years and 49% of adults aged 45 to 49 years were illiterate. Adult literacy rates in ASALs are considerable lower than the rest of Kenya (Nairobi had the highest at 87% while North Eastern recorded the lowest at 8%). Female literacy rates were below 10% in northern eastern – Mandera, Turkana and Wajir Counties but as high as 90 percent in Nairobi and Uasin Gishu Counties (NESP, 2014).

2.2. Enrolment Rates
Kenya is rated highly in terms of access to basic education, but both gross and net enrolment rates for the arid districts are well below the national average (see Table 1). The Gross enrolment rate (GER) for North East was 78% in 2008/09 compared to 101% in Nairobi. The net enrolment rate (NER) percentage point difference between North Eastern and Nairobi remained largely unchanged between 2006 and 2009 at around 40 percentage points. Gender enrolment differentials in the North East remain large, but have narrowed appreciably in recent years; the Gender Parity Index (GPI) increased from 0.62 in 2005/06 to 0.76 in 2008/09.

Kenya has recorded tremendous growth in acess to basic education since independence but ASALs remain underdeveloped and unreached. At the primary level national GER and NER stands at 99.9% and 84.6% respectively. As shown in table 1 below, counties with the lowest primary GER are mainly in nomadic pastoralist areas namely, Mandera (28.5%), Wajir (34.3%), Garrissa (61%), and Turkana (73.1%).

Table 1: Ten Counties with the highest and lowest primary GER and NER, 2014

Counties with Low GER				Counties with High GER		
County	**GER**	**NER**		**County**	**GER**	**NER**
Kilifi	105.90%	75.10%		Kitui	118.70%	98.70%
Kajiado	84.80%	70.20%		Busia	118.60%	98.60%
Nairobi	73.50%	66.70%		Kakamega	117.70%	98.50%
Tana River	77.20%	63.80%		Vihiga	116.20%	98.70%
Marsabit	76.30%	63.70%		Siaya	115.80%	98.80%
Samburu	72.80%	58.10%		Siaya	115.80%	98.80%
Mombasa	67.40%	55.20%		Makueni	115.30%	98.60%
Turkana	73.10%	54.40%		Elgeyo Marakwet	113.90%	98.60%
Garissa	61.00%	39.90%		Machakos	113.80%	98.70%
Wajir	34.30%	25.90%		Kirinyaga	112.10%	98.50%
Mandera	28.50%	22.60%		Murang'a	111.80%	98.70%
Kenya	99.9%	84.6%		Kenya	99.9%	84.6%

Source: MoEST EMIS, 2014

At the secondary level, the national GER is 58.2% in stark contrast to the low coverage in ASALs. The lowest secondary GER is concentrated in six ASAL counties: Mandera (9.8%), Turkana (12%), Wajir (12.6%), Garissa(19.1%), Marsabit (15.6%) and Samburu (19.8%). These counties have equally low secondary NER compared to the national average of 47.5%.

2.3. Out-of-School Children (OOSC)

The Kenya Household Population Census (KHPC), 2009 estimates that 2 million children aged 6-13 years (the official primary age population) were out of school. Most of the OOSC are in arid counties and according to the 2005/06 KIHBS, OOSC are heavily concentrated in 9 arid counties (Garissa, Isiolo, Mandera, Marsabit, Samburu, Tana River, Turkana, Wajir, West Pokot). In seven of these counties, over one-third of primary school aged children were not in school. According to this survey, the bulk of OOSC in the arid counties comprise children who have never-attended school with relatively low drop-out rates once they have enrolled in school.

Uwezo Kenya Annual Learning Assessment reports (2011 and 2012) estimate that nationally, 9% of children aged 6-13 were out of school in 2012 and in 2011 a '*child in an arid district is 3 times more likely to be out of school than a child in an urban district and a girl in North Eastern is 7 times more likely to be out of school than a girl in central province*.' Counties with high percentage of OOSC include Samburu, Garissa, Turkana, Wajir and West Pokot[2].

According to the 2010 Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) baseline survey of the four targeted arid counties (Marsabit, Turkana, Wajir and Mandera), only 45% of 6-12 year olds were attending primary

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[2] Uwezo Kenya (2010) "Are our children learning?" Annual Learning Assessment Report, Kenya 2010

school (43% girls, 48% boys) and only 8% of 13-17 year olds were in secondary school (6% girls, 9% boys). Attendance rates are strongly related to household wealth; only 34% were attending primary school among the poorest household income quintile.

The 2005/06 KIHBS established that children aged 10-14 in 'nomadic' households have particularly low attendance rates. In this category percentage of children who had **never enrolled** was highest in Turkana (70%), Marsabit (67%), Mandera (60%), and Garissa (53%) - all arid counties.

The HSNP Baseline study of four arid counties found that 53% of 6-12 year olds never attended primary school and 92% of 13-17 year olds had never attended secondary school. The 2010 WFP school feeding study found that 21% of households in arid areas had no children enrolled in school.

Drop-outs constitute another category of OOSC. School survival/completion rate data for Kenya are limited and inconsistent. Both the KIHBS 2005/06 and 2011 OOSC study indicate that around 5% of 5/6-17 year old children were 'not in school'. The UNICEF country education statistics indicate that the primary school survival rate (grades 1 to 8) for the period 2005-2009 (based on 'survey data') was 96% and 84% (based on 'administrative data').

According to the 2010 WFP school feeding survey, primary completion rates for urban children were 92% girls, but only 77% boys. In arid areas, the corresponding rates were 25% for girls and 43% for boys. The 2010 WFP school feeding study concludes that 'in many rural schools, the children arrive at ECD and primary school for motives that are strongly linked to food security and economic necessity' (p.24). But, in grade 8, there is a 'significant reduction in the numbers of children taking KCPE'.

2.4. Learning Environment and Outcomes
Completion rates and learning outcomes are appreciably worse among children in arid areas. In the arid districts over twice as many boys than girls sat for the KCPE in 2007. Uwezo annual learning assessments, (2010, 2011 and 2012) show that the ASAL districts have lower literacy and numeracy competences than the national average and the urban/non ASAL districts. The overall raw KCPE mean scores were particularly low in Moyale, Tana River and Wajir. There was a sizeable gender performance gap (in favour of boys) in all arid districts (especially Marsabit, Moyale, Samburu, Tana River and Turkana).

2.5. Returns to Education
HSNP Baseline Survey indicates that herding was practiced by just over half of households[3] and that there was increasing reliance on other sources of income and food. One-third of households engage in selling/trading. Nearly half of households in Turkana engaged in charcoal burning (distress activity). About one-quarter of households have members who are employed – mostly casual labourers.

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[3] Although this under-estimates the proportion of people that rely on the pastoral system for their livelihood e.g. trading, processing etc. See Counting pastoralists, REGLAP/DLCI, 2014

3. Current plans and policies to improve education in the ASALs

There are several policy frameworks and structures targeting improved provision of education in ASALs.

3.1. NACONEK establishment and functionality

NACONEK was formally launched in May 2015, 3 years since it was provided for in the 2012 Basic Education Act. A Secretariat is now in place, the board exists, a strategic plan has been drafted, a CEO with huge interest in education in general and pastoralist education in particular has been posted; the 2010 Nomadic Education Policy has been revised and re-aligned with NACONEK. Despite this considerable challenges exist, not least GoK's resourcing of NACONEK, high expectations, the fact that NACONEK is expected to cover other hard to reach groups e.g. informal settlements which face very different problems and require specific approaches, it's power within the MOEST, independence to operate, and the scepticism among stakeholders that it will be '*just like the many other institutions that were created with hype only for them to be forgotten'*. (Key informant interview, Development Partner, Nairobi, January 2015). The issue of the existence of NACONEK as a legal entity that can source and manage resources independently rather than as a department of the MoEST also needs to be addressed.

3.2. The Policy Framework for Nomadic Education in Kenya (2010)-Under Review

In 2010 the Government of Kenya published its Nomadic Education Policy. The policy recognises the specific needs and rights of nomadic communities to all levels of education. The policy provides for innovation and flexibility in the provision of education of pastoralists acknowledging the role and importance of non-formal schools and alternative approaches. The Policy Framework for Nomadic Education in Kenya was formulated to enable Kenya's nomadic communities to realize the goal of universal access to basic education and training. The focus of this policy framework is all school-going age children from nomadic communities in Kenya. The policy also targets the nomadic parents and teachers deployed in nomadic areas. Among the guidelines that will facilitate the implementation of this policy is the "implementation of alternative interventions and policies which are sensitive to ecological and livelihood systems in the nomadic regions". Also to guide the implementation of this policy framework is the fact that the stipulated policy guidelines on nomadic education will draw from the existing approaches to education provision and strengthen them to achieve their educational objectives.

In relation to alternative interventions, the policy framework recognizes that provision of formal education based on models that work in urban or in sedentary communities is not enough to ensure 'Education For All' in nomadic communities. The Government, as stated in this policy framework, will ensure access to education by nomadic communities by undertaking appropriate modifications on the formal system to suit nomadic patterns, provide grants to mobile schools and ensure that they have enough teachers and learning materials. Quality of the education provided will be ensured by among other strategies, encouraging use of existing national curriculum; encouraging flexibility of the school calendar and timetabling of educational programmes to fit the nomadic life and needs of the nomadic communities; and recruit teacher-trainees from the nomadic regions on affirmative action basis, specifically targeting female teachers for purposes of creating educational role models in the communities, without compromising the quality of education.

The Nomadic Education Policy is currently being revised to align it with the Constitution, and Sessional paper No. 14 of 2012, the Basic Education Act, 2013, MTEF, the NESP and the Education Act. The reviewed policy aims at addressing three distinct challenges in the pastoral nomadic countries and marginalized groups in some key urban informal settlements: the gap (access, quality, relevance and gender disparities in education) between these regions and the rest of the country; protection of mobility and traditional institutional arrangements essential to productive pastoralism, in line with the ASAL Policy and other relevant laws in course of delivery of educational services and mobilization of resources and coordination of a single education strategy to harmonize national, county, development partnership and other stakeholders through partnership.

The revised policy builds on the existing (2009) but is more progressive:

- The policy objectives clearly stipulate the need to 'ensure that the nomadic pastoral production system and lifestyle is incorporated/reflected in the approved national education curriculum'.
- More focus is given to out of school youth to be effective producers and entrepreneurs in their communities and beyond 'in addition, the nomadic youths will also be targeted with programmes to help them acquire relevant *practical/vocational skills'.*
- Expands the guiding principles to include standards of education for nomadic programmes, quality and relevance of the programmes especially transition and completion issues that can guarantee competitiveness in the labour market to overcome the alienation.
- Outlines clear strategies for facilitating the integration of madrassa into formal basic education.
- Recognises the need for '*strategic linkages and partnerships with various national and county stakeholders and partners working in various sectors for the development of nomadic communities partnerships and coordination in delivery of services'.*
- Binds all stakeholders to use the framework to guide education provision for nomadic communities with clear coordination at national and county government levels.

These changes are an important step forward however the necessary resources for the policy's implementation should clearly identified and allocated.

3.3. The Education Act 2013
The Act actualizes the provisions of the Constitution of Kenya, 2010, which in Article 53 (b) states that '…*every child has the right to free and compulsory basic education....' The Constitution also stipulates …the State shall put in place affirmative action programs designed to ensure that minorities and marginalized groups are provided with special opportunities in educational and economic fields'* [Article 56 (b)].

The Education Act, 2013, in Section 25 (1) stipulates that every child has a right to basic education and training and shall be accorded an education and training programme that is appropriate to their needs. Section 29 brings out the responsibility of the Cabinet Secretary in the provision of education '*to provide*

free and compulsory education to every child, ensure compulsory admission, attendance and completion of basic education by every child, ensure availability of a school with full infrastructure, ensure that children belonging to a disadvantaged group are not discriminated against and prevented from pursuing and completing basic education and also ensure good quality education'. There is however no implementation framework for this and the procedure to ensure that the Cabinet Secretary is held to account. The draft Basic Education regulations 2014 are silent on how the CS will ensure that children in marginalised areas enjoy their right to basic education and training and makes no reference to NACONEK. The regulations vaguely state that:

> *'The County Director of Education in consultation with the County Education Board shall institute affirmative action to enable children from the minority groups, hard to reach groups or marginalized, those with special needs or those living in especially difficult circumstances be admitted in secondary schools.'*

There is therefore a need to advocate for the inclusion of a clause in the Basic Education regulations that provides mechanisms through which the Cabinet Secretary can ensure provision of appropriate basic education and training in the ASALs.

3.4. National Education Sector Plan (NESP), 2014-2018

One of the key policy targets of basic education in the NESP is to accelerate access of education for hard to reach children especially those in ASALs, and informal settlements. Expanding Educational Opportunities in ASALs is one of the investment programmes under NESP. The main objective of the investment programme is to promote access, retention, quality, and equity in the distribution of educational opportunities to children of mobile communities and regions. Key strategies under NESP for Expanding Educational Opportunities in ASALs are to:

i. Establish, rehabilitate and equip low-cost boarding facilities in a manner that resonates with the needs and aspirations of pastoralists.
ii. Strengthen the oversight of County Government (County Education Boards) to ensure valid quality assurance of education programmes.
iii. Improve the capacity of Boards of management members to prudently manage funds in their learning institutions.
iv. Protect and promote access for vulnerable children especially girls by establishing rescue centres.
v. Enhance monitoring and evaluation of mobile schools/low-cost boarding schools for the improvement and maintenance of quality and standards of education.
vi. Establishment of the National Council for Nomadic Education in Kenya (NACONEK) to efficiently operationalize nomadic education programme.
vii. Enhance access through community mobilization and sensitization.
viii. Explore alternative modes of learning to enhance access and improve quality of education.
ix. Establish feeder schools to reduce distance to schools.

The strategy allocates 3.1 billion Ksh to establish, rehabilitate and equip low-cost boarding schools in the ASAL counties, strengthening governance through oversight of county government, enhancing monitoring and evaluation of mobile schools, exploration of alternative modes of learning to enhance access and improve quality of education. This has not been implemented so far.

3.5 The Policy for Alternative Provision of Basic Education and Training, 2009 (APBET)

The Policy defines 'alternative provision' as a provision that intentionally seeks to provide an option that is responsive and relevant to the needs of the targeted population and 'complementary provision' as adding or complementing other education provision.

The broad objective of the Alternative Provision of Basic Education is to increase the participation of children (especially girls) and youth in APBET institutions and improve quality of teaching and learning including the learning environment to enhance their learning achievements. Priorities for APBET include: (i) the development of minimum standards for APBET institutions to facilitate registration by Department of Education; (ii) provision of trained teachers to APBET; (iii) harmonization of capitation grant with those in regular schools for APBET matching criteria; (iv) strengthening data and M& E on APBET.

The policy provides guidelines to streamline the development and management of alternative channels that provide education and training to needy Kenyans. The policy caters for children, youth and adults who are outside the formal education system. One of the guiding principles in this policy is that "the provisions shall be flexible and have linkages to the formal system to allow learners join the mainstream and progress through education". These linkages do not exist in practice illustrate as a five-year costed implementation strategy developed by MoEST with the support from ILO is yet to be approved by the Ministry senior management.

3.6. Policy Implementation Strategy for Alternative Provision of Basic Education and Training (APBET), 2012-2017

ILO and the MoEST commissioned the *interpretation of the APBET policy framework into a sound and costed 5-year implementation strategy* design. The policy implementation strategy proposes three models for: the urban informal settlements; eastern arid areas and northern arid areas.

The **APBET for eastern areas** cater for the arid areas to the east of the country with wide gender disparities in education, with Islam as a big influence on how education is offered and options that parents and communities prefer for their children. This model addresses, challenges related to education and culture, gender and nomadic lifestyles. The counties included in this model are Mandera, Wajir, Garissa and Tana River.

APBET for Northern Arid Areas targets counties such as Turkana, Samburu, Baringo, Marsabit and Isiolo where religion is less influential in determining education choices and the influence of gender is moderated. The region faces challenges of vast distances and low infrastructure, as well as ethnic conflict, seems to shape the access to and quality of education, with high numbers of out-of-school children.

The APBET implementation strategy also provides the menu of costed programs that can be used to implement APBET Policy (2009). The implementation strategy is however yet to be discussed by the senior management of the Ministry and there is need to lobby for its adoption.

4. Current provision in the ASALs: opportunities and challenges

To respond to the diverse nature of livelihoods and contexts in ASAL areas, and cope with the remoteness and mobility of some pastoralists, the education system must be adapted both to their current, diverse status and their likely changing nature. Although there are a variety of reviews of education approaches in dryland areas around the world, for example Save the Children's recent global study[4], there is no single approach that can work everywhere and education provision needs to be adapted to particular contexts, building on and enhancing what is currently working and looking for alternatives on provision that is not.

The pros and cons of current education provision in the ASALs of Kenya is extensively dealt with in UNICEF ESARO's: Study of Education and Resilience in Kenya's Arid Lands, 2015, as well as experiences from elsewhere and emerging possibilities from new technologies and other sectors in Kenya one can start to shape what a functional education system might look like. The education provisions are both state and non-state, most are small scale but some are national, and include: (low-cost) boarding schools, mobile schools, Integrated Quranic Schools, non-formal education, adult literacy, open and distance learning, among others.

4.1. Formal primary schools

This is the main pathway for provision of primary education. With the introduction of FPE in 2003 enrolment surged in most parts of the country but the effect in the ASALs has been more limited, as the GER and NER reveal. Most children in ASALs attend **day primary schools,** many of which have been established through Constituency Development Funds (CDF). The schools receive FPE capitation grants. These are however uniform for all primary schools in the country and does not consider the increased costs of provision in remote, under resourced, and often sparsely populated ASAL areas. The consequence has been levying of hidden costs by schools themselves which are a barrier to access. Besides, long distances to schools have been cited as hindrance[5]. The revised Nomadic Education Policy proposes the establishment of separate centres of excellence for boys and girls. Table 2 below summarises the formal education provision in Turkana, Marsabit and Wajir counties.

Table 2: Highlights on Formal Education in Marsabit, Turkana and Wajir Counties

Marsabit[6]
ECDE: The county has 289[7] ECD centres (both public and private) with approximately 14,277 learners (7,559 boys and 6,718 girls). The GER was 42.5%.

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[4] Save the Children UK (2014) Pastoral Education: evidence base, Save the Children's Education Signature Program.
[5] According to the Save the Children International- Kenya Programme Study, 2014, for 60% of students in Northern Kenya there is no school within 6km; for nearly 50% there is no school within 11km
[6] Information based on telephone interview with CDE Marsabit
[7] 60 of the ECD centres were constructed by the county government in 2013 financial year
http://marsabit.go.ke/education-youthsports-and-skills-development/

Primary: 210 primary schools (166 public and 44 private) with approximately 49,386 pupils enrolled in public primary schools (23,463 girls and 25,923 boys) and 7,225 9ie 13%) enrolled in private schools (comprising 3,819 boys and 3,406 girls).

Secondary: The county has 35 secondary schools enrolling about 5,085 students; 4,560 (2,649 boys and 1,911 girls) attend public secondary school while 525 students (206 girls and 319 boys) are in private schools.

Polytechnics: youth polytechnics in Saku, Moyale, Umuro, Merille.

Turkana

ECD: The county has 450 ECD centres in which 101,775 pupils (54,767 boys and 47,008 girls) attend.

Primary: As at 2007, the County had 202 primary schools with an enrolment of 122,883 pupils and a teacher to pupil ratio of 1:51. Currently there are 392 primary schools, (50 established in the last 3 years) with an enrolment of 159,946 pupils (89,983 boys and 69,963 girls) enrolled in public schools with a further 32,261 (14,546 girls and 19,715 boys) enrolled in private schools, accounting for 18% of the total enrollment.

Secondary: In 2007 there 19 secondary schools with an enrolment of 48,004 students and a teacher to pupil ratio of 1:28. Currently the county has 32 secondary schools with an enrolment of nearly 100,000 students.

Wajir

ECD: 203 centres with an enrolment of 18,800 children (8,158 girls and 10,642 boys).

Primary: The County has 212 regular primary schools, 30 low cost boarding school, 24 private primary schools and 7 mobile schools. The total primary school enrolment stands at 64,493 pupils. 59,258 (36,097 boys and 23,161 girls) are enrolled in public schools while 5,235 (2,752 boys and 2,483 girls) attend private schools. With a total of 889 teachers the teacher pupil ratio is 26% points higher than the recommended of one teacher per 40 pupils.

Secondary: There are 34 secondary schools, with a total enrolment of 10,415 students (846 registered in private schools and 9,569 in public) and 320 teachers.

Polytechnics: 4 polytechnics exist but none are operational.

Source: https://www.opendata.go.ke/Counties/County-Fact-Sheets-2nd-Ed-June-2013/qg44-68h8/; Save the Children International- Kenya Programme, 2014   Wajir study and Interview with County Directors of Education (Turkana and Marsabit), MoEST EMIS, 2014

4.2. Low Cost Boarding Primary Schools (LCBS)8

Low cost boarding primary schools (LCBS) are in theory fully subsidized by the government and parents are not expected to pay for any boarding levies. Due to low capitation schools often pass on hidden levies to parents to meet the operational cost, which limits access. Kenya has a long history of low-cost boarding schools dating from the 1970s. This is not unique to Kenya as most countries adopt the strategy for pastoralist education (Save the Children UK 2014). Currently 426 LCBS exist in the ASALs with slightly over 100,000 boarders are supported by the Ministry of Education. The capitation for LCBS is KES 3,307 per child per year. Another 205 schools have been approved by District Education Boards (DEBs), but are not supported due to lack of funding and are financed by parents. Low Cost Boarding Schools are designed to cater for children from grade 4. The strengths and weakness of this delivery mechanism in Kenya are summarized in the boxes below:

Table 3: Strengths and weaknesses of Low Cost Boarding Schools

Strengths
• Pastoralist households can maintain their livelihood strategies of mobility and migration, while their children receive a formal education (MDNKOAL 2010)
• Are a part of the formal education system/ follow the formal curricula therefore learners receive education and accreditation that is similar to that of conventional schools (Save the Children, Pastoralist Education-Global Evidence Base, 2014)
• The boarding school appeal seems to be high amongst all pastoralist groups apart from North Eastern (due their inability to respond to socio-cultural contexts). (Ruto, Ongwenyi and Mugo ,2009)
• Girls-only boarding schools have increased the average enrolment of girls in their catchment areas (DL strategy, 2010), however are still unacceptable in many areas especially when girls approach puberty.
• Can service a wide variety of livelihood groups and accommodate changes in livelihood strategies and increase sedentarization.
Challenges
• Splits the household production unit- the child is absent from livelihood learning and household labour resulting in high opportunity cost and difficulties of reintegration.
• Immense resourcing problems and poor teachers results in LCBS being often regarded as ineffective and inefficient, unsafe and insecure. They have inadequate boarding facilities and infrastructure [9]

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[9] Ministry of Education/ UNICEF-K comprehensive external evaluation of sampled ASAL boarding and mobile schools in 16 selected ASAL districts established major challenges: GoK allocation, was insufficient and some schools had levies which were found to be a barrier to access by the targeted ASAL communities; most of the LCBS schools were under-staffed; most SMCs lacked the requisite capacity to enable them provide the necessary leadership and oversight in the management of LCB schools; most LCB schools had insufficient infrastructure, tools and equipment including; beds and mattresses, toilets, staffrooms, facilities and equipment for those with special

> - Boarding schools in arid districts are situated far from each other. In Marsabit (Chalbi) district, they draw their learners from a radius of 80km and are difficult to access (Ruto, Ongwenyi and Mugo, 2009).
> - Are only appropriate for children from Class 4.

Key informants made the following observations about LCBs:

> *When we spoke to stakeholders in Wajir they said they would be happy with the low cost boarding schools as a delivery mechanism. But the caveat was they would have to be well resourced. Currently they do not have lights, water, fences so parents say they are not comfortable leaving their children and thus they are underutilized is because of the facilities and food (An NGO worker, key informant interview, January 2015)*

> *We need quality boarding schools, centres of excellence, safe and secure, good food, recreation facilities, lighting, good and adequate teachers, well equipped and managed to attract learners and parents confidence.* (Independent pastoralist education consultant key informant interview, January 2015)

Improvement of (Low Cost) Boarding Primary Schools

- This is a priority within the NESP and is likely to receive government backing.

- There are huge needs for increase in resourcing and staffing (teachers, guards, matrons, cooks); improving the capacity of SMCs/ BoM to enable them provide the necessary leadership and oversight; provision of sufficient infrastructure and equipment including: beds and mattresses, toilets, staffrooms, facilities and equipment for those with special needs, staff houses, fire extinguishers and store rooms.

- Promote single-sex boarding schools for increased acceptance and promote religious and cultural sensitivity, especially in North Eastern.

- Need to incorporate Cash Transfer/stipend component for boarding for Out of School Children in poorest households to cover basic school materials, uniforms, bedding and transport.

- Address the likely alienation from families and communities through the promotion on culture - more active role for BoM and parental involvement in school activities (parents days, cultural days, school visits etc).

4.3. Feeder Schools (FS)

Children who do not attend school regularly in the first years of primary are likely to be hugely disadvantaged in future as they cannot easily acquire the basic literacy and numeracy that they will need to benefit from later schooling. Especially in sparsely populated areas such as ASALs, distance from school is a major reason for non-enrolment, absenteeism and dropout, particularly for girls and young children. The typical primary school is large, often with several streams at each grade; accordingly, it has to be placed centrally, so it may draw students from a wide area within the sparsely populated ASALs, often over several kilometres radius.

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needs, staff houses, fire extinguishers, store rooms with leading unhealthy and risky habits in some of the schools, like sharing of beds.

In ASALs, small feeder schools could increase participation by younger children. Such schools for, say, grades 1 through 3, could be established in smaller settlements, grouped in clusters working with a larger, central primary school which children would eventually join. Feeder schools would ideally be multi-grade, so that in a one-stream school two or three teachers, trained to work in a multi-grade system, could handle the four classes. Smaller schools can fit better into the sparsely populated ASAL community that fall in the sedentary-mobile category, which is becoming a common phenomenon in most ASAL counties. Teacher attendance would be enhanced (and costs reduced) if some of the teachers were locally-recruited, on contract. Feeder schools could also be combined with ECD centres. The success of this approach depends largely on readiness of Government to review its school size and location strategy to address the problems of student attendance. Expansion of feeder schools is needed and an advocacy strategy to influence national (including CDF funding) and county government around this effort is needed.

The Education Sector Report (2008) stipulates that *'in ASALs there is need to establish feeder schools for lower primary in locations where children walk more than three kilometres to reach the nearest primary school, by actively involving parents, CBOs, NGOs and other local groups'*[10].

One of the strategies of the National Education Sector Plan, basic education infrastructure investment programme, is to *establish pre-primary, primary, low cost boarding primary schools, feeder schools in ASAL and urban slum primary schools, rescue centres, and secondary schools in ASAL, urban slums, pockets of poverty and hard to reach and vulnerable areas while* the Alternative Provision of Basic Education and Training Investment Programme (IP) also targets *construction of feeder schools and rescue centres.* As such feeder schools are part of the national strategy to increase access and equity in education provision.

There is however no clear policy on what constitutes a feeder school and the term is used loosely implying that the viability of the schools has not been assessed. Both the Education Act 2013 and the Basic Education Implementation guidelines do not define what a feeder school is but in practice the schools exist, especially in ASALs.

Table 4: Strengths and weaknesses of feeder schools

Strengths
• FS are a key component of the Nomadic Education Policy Framework, are staffed (at least partially) with qualified TSC teachers, have proper classrooms, and are in line with the MoE policy of the integration of ECD with the formal school system.
• FS are based on a sound concept widely adopted elsewhere: ECDs combined with lower primary (several grades/standards) with 2-3 multi-grade teachers (both

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[10] Republic of Kenya, Education Sector Report 2008: Realizing Vision 2030 Goals through Effective and Efficient Public Spending

qualified and para-teachers). Given the devolved responsibility of ECD county governments involvement is key but goodwill exists.
• FS are recognized and prioritized in the current National Education Sector Plan (2013-2018) as a strategy to increase access and equity.

Challenges
• Staffing (teacher deployment and retention) will be difficult (unless good teacher houses built).
• Unit costs are relatively high, given that they serve a small catchment area and a small number of pupils.
• Most feeder schools lack basic facilities such as classrooms, furniture and learning materials.
• Teachers lack the required training and support to teach multi-grades effectively.
• Scattered and difficult to provide professional field support/supervision.
• Lack a clear policy framework.

Improving Feeder Schools

- Support expansion of feeder schools: The investment programme target is to build 300 new feeder schools with four classrooms. With regard to capital costs, it is reasonable to assume that each school will have four classrooms (MoE unit cost of Ksh 1.5 million) and one eight unit latrine (Ksh1.5 million). Also, it is essential to provide good quality houses for the two qualified teachers and their families (two combined units at Ksh 4.3 million). The total capital cost per feeder school is, therefore, around Ksh12 million. Annual operational expenditure comprises salaries for two qualified and two unqualified teachers (at Ksh25, 000 and Ksh15, 000/month respectively) and annual school per capitation grant of Ksh 1,100 for an (assumed) average enrolment of 160 learners. Thus, total operational expenditure per school is Ksh 1.15 million at 2011 prices (£81,000), which should be met by MoE.
- Support the required operational funding for the in-service teacher training (especially for multi-grade teaching).
- Provision of adequate learning materials.
- Provision of intensive professional support in the field (including advisory visits etc.).
- Ensure all feeder schools have pre-primary section to increase school readiness and ECD-primary transition with pre-school years, enabling county governments in supporting feeder schools.
- Putting in place a clear policy framework.

4.4. Low Cost Private Schools

There is a growing body of evidence that challenges the conception that private education is most often perceived to be for the elite and middle classes, not the poor. There is a thriving low cost private school sector in many countries including India, Uganda, Malawi, Nigeria, Tanzania and Ghana. In Kenya as in other countries these 'independent low-cost private schools' are schools of choice for families who are ready to pay for quality education, that the public school system is not providing (Tooley and Dixon, 2005).

Kenya has a large non-government sector and many of these non-government schools serve the poorest families. Although they have to charge fees, there is evidence[11] that many of these schools are both flexible in terms of their demands for payment and often waive fees for OVCs. The fees may indeed be very low: it may cost parents little more to send their child to a non-government school after taking into account the hidden costs of "free" education such as the stringent requirements for uniform, and non-fee payments to schools.[12]

Contrary to popular belief, these private schools for the poor are not a last resort for parents who cannot obtain free places for their child in the public schools but are a positive choice for parents who believe that the private schools offer a higher quality of education. Although the facilities in these schools are often much worse than in the public schools, class sizes are generally smaller and attainment appears to be no worse. Indeed some CBO and private schools report large class 6-8 enrolment, since parents transfer children from public schools to prepare for the KCPE.

These are increasing popular especially in urban areas of the ASALs and fees vary from Ksh 500-750 per child per month. At the primary school level, private schools account for 12% of the total enrollment nationally. The share of the private school provision in ASAL counties is highest in Garissa (51%), Turkana (18%), Marsabit (13%), Wajir (8%), Egeyo Marakwet and Tana River (7%) but is below 5% in West Pokot and Samburu counties.

Existing successful initiatives for delivering low cost private schools include Bridge International Academies, a chain of over 300 low-cost private schools in Kenya with approximately 100,000 students enrolled. (http://educationinnovations.org/program/bridge-international-academies). Bridge has re-engineered the entire lifecycle of basic education, leveraging data, technology, and scale. Bridge is able to keep costs low; offering primary school tuition for $6 a month (average fees as of 2014) and uses scripted instruction to improve learning outcomes.

Other low cost private education providers operate under the umbrella of Complementary Schools Association, Kenya Independent Schools Association, and the Network for Non Formal Education Institutions (N-NFEI). By providing low-cost affordable quality education, low-income families, particularly in the urban slum areas, increasingly rely on the independent schools for continued quality education of their children. Currently there are over 2000 APBET Institutions with over 500,000 learners. The standard guidelines for registration are at an approval stage and are expected to actualize the recognition and integration of APBET sub-sector into the National Education Statistics and ensure minimum standards with regard to provision and assessment to enable the APBET program to benefit from MoEST quality assurance services, curriculum development and teacher provision (MOEST, Draft Registration Guideline for Alternative Provision of Basic Education and Training, March 2014).

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[11] Tooley *et al* (2008)
[12] Non-government schools also often expect uniforms but are less likely to turn away the child without a uniform.

Table 5: Strengths and weaknesses of low cost private schools

Strengths
• Often more efficient and better results than public schools.
• Demand-driven delivery.
Challenges
• Only in the urban areas.
• Fees higher, although bursaries could be considered.
• Needs to be mainstreamed within constitutional requirement for free and compulsory basic education in which a strong public-based system, is viewed as the option to guarantee education for all without discrimination.

4.5. Integrated Quranic Schools (IQS)

Integrated Quranic School (IQS) refers to an Islamic school that has subjects from formal education integrated into the curriculum, often in afternoon classes while a Qur'anic school: An informal school that exclusively teaches Islamic religious education. Experiences and lessons from other contexts, such as Pakistan that engaged with Quranic Schools in the 1980s (Warwick and Reimers 1995; Khamis 2005), the East African Coast with the Madrassah Resource Centre (MRC) funded by USAID (Mwuara 2005), indicate the viability of the approach and should be been taken into account in the IQS project design and development. The Strategic Partnership (SP) Initiative between UNICEF, UNESCO, and DFID for the Recovery and Development of education in Somalia successfully implemented the Integrated Quranic Schools (IQS) Pilot Project. An independent evaluation of the initiative showed that it was highly appreciated and supported by local communities; had initiated a dialogue in the context of relevancy and quality of education; and had the ability to develop into a coherent model of schooling that is in keeping with the aspirations of a vast majority of the population. It also indicated that the potential of the pilot to impact on access by a larger number of students and develop a robust policy framework was helped by the perceived sensitivities of intervening in indigenous education and lack of understanding of what is transacted in Quran schools. The recently gazette Basic Education Regulations procedure for integrating *duksi/madrassa* into formal education system is as follows:

- Provide for *duksi/madrassa* program into formal education and vice versa as appropriate.
- Standardize *duksi/madrassa* curriculum.
- Enhancing access through *duksi/madrassa.*
- Upgrade the pedagogical skills of *duksi/madrassa* instructor through continuous in-service to teach National Curriculum where appropriate.
- Conduct regular consultations on the modalities of integration.
- School programmes shall be responsive to *duksi/madrassa* instructions in predominantly Muslim communities.

Madrassa are formal, tend to be in towns, cover more subjects and keep the pupils for longer hours. There tend to be three levels: classes 1-6 cover the basics of religion and literacy, forms 1-6 then include

a range of academic and religious subjects. This is followed by college. Students receive a certificate on graduation from each level. Some children attend madrassa, but not public school. Others attend both, often learning from 6am to 9pm throughout the week. *Madrassa* fees average 300Ksh per child per term. Madrassa are most common in Wajir County, but are also prominent in larger towns in Marsabit. Muslim schools tend to have higher investment from parents, who will typically be willing to spend much more on their child's religious education than secular school. (UNICEF, 2015)

Duksi on the other hand are less formal are easily sustainable as people are prepared to pay considerable amounts for the education that a *duksi* teacher can provide:

'Our children start at duksi when they are 6 years old and they complete when they are about 14. Every end of the month the teacher is given a goat for each child he teaches. And for every child that successfully graduates the teacher is awarded a camel.' Pastoralist man, Wajir County quoted in UNICEF Study, 2015.

Table 6: Strengths and weaknesses of Integrated Quranic Schools

Strengths
• Culturally acceptable.
• Reduces load on children rather than going to separate institutions.
• Allow offering of both moral/religious education and basic knowledge and skill acquisition.
Challenges
• Perceived fear of secularization.
• Lack of standardized integrated curriculum.
• Low pedagogical skills of duksi/madrassa instructors.

4.6. Non formal education

4.6.1. Mobile Schools

In 2006, UNICEF funded study trip to Iran by delegations from the Ministries of Education of Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia in 2006 that led to revitalization of mobile schools in Africa. UNICEF also successfully supported mobile schools in Sudan. In Kenya, mobile schools were first re-introduced in the early 1990s by the Arid Lands Resource Management Project though pilot projects existed in the 1970's (Krätli and Dyer, 2009) although they were only recognised by the Ministry of Education in 2013.

The Basic Education Act, 2013 recognizes and defines a mobile school as '*a formal flexible institution that allows for mobility of pupils and teachers and is specifically designed to suit the needs of migrant communities'.*

A mobile school (in Kenyan context) consists of one teacher (usually from the community) a mode of transport e.g. camel or a donkey and some limited education materials that move with the troop to allow children to attend lessons during migration. A mobile schools runs from ECD to Class 3 with learners transiting to ordinary primary schools at Class 4.

Mobile schools have been a key strategy of basic education goal that seeks to provide basic education to all by improving access, equity, retention and quality. At least 104 'mobile schools' are said to exist with teachers paid by the government. Through the Expanding Education Opportunities in ASALs investment programme both in KESSP and NESP, establishing, operationalization and grants to mobile schools in ASALs has remained a priority. The functionality of mobile schools has however been of concern with the training, follow-up and supervision of such teachers still faces challenges, impacting on the quality. Many communities and NGOs have established or piloted other types of nomadic schools in Kenya. These include Oxfam's pastoral schools in Turkana until the 90s, and EMACK in the former North Eastern Province; the Catholic Church's nomadic schools along migration routes in Turkana and the promotion of private Quranic integrated schools and the use of *duksis* to deliver functional literacy to both children and adults. Although there are many positive aspects to these initiatives, they remain small scale and not well integrated and coordinated. Consequently children educated in such schools are not considered 'enrolled' and it is not clear how or if they transfer into the formal system. In Wajir the county education officials termed mobile schools as inefficient though in Turkana available data indicates that by 2011 there were 54 functional mobile schools attended by children and adults, with a total enrollment of 7,251 (3,427 boys, 3,106 girls and 718 adults). Mobile schools face major challenges: most are not registered, teachers are poorly paid, the schools receive limited funding and field support services such as monitoring are none existent with '*some of the mobile schools not known if they existed'*. Education outcomes and transition rates have also not been assessed or documented. The cessation of food provision in mobile schools has had a major effect in reducing attendance. Mobile schools have also been reported to be conduits for corruption and are mere 'Mobile schools *are cash cows for Nairobians'* (Education Officer Wajir, January 2015).

Table 7: Strengths and weaknesses of mobile schools

Strengths
- Appropriate for nomadic populations or those who regularly move due to drought or conflict.   - Enable socialization and linkages with community and family and can support family livelihoods.   - Teachers are familiar with the environment and the reality of the community they work with, and can teach in the learners' first language.   - Mobile schools targets enrolment of younger children and can be used to increase transition into a conventional schools.
Challenges
Difficulty to monitor as so remote and mobile.

- Uncertain learning outcomes and transition rates.
- Poor training and supervision of teachers.
- Not eligible for WFP school feeding.
- Not appropriate for very scattered communities.
- Use NFE curriculum, limited linkage with formal schools so less attractive to local communities.
- Major resource constraints – lack adequate teachers and teaching learning materials.
- Inefficiency – resource leakages as they are largely unsupervised.

Due to the increase in urbanization and only a small and reducing proportion of children being purely nomadic, the need for mobile schools is declining and is limited to specific areas. Mobile schools are only applicable for ECD through grade 3, after which children should be able to access low cost boarding schools. For ASAL communities, in certain areas they are not seen as desirable as they follow are non-formal curricula often adopting multi-grade teaching whose effectiveness is in doubt given the training level of the community teachers deployed. Again each mobile school is staffed with only one Government paid teacher. There is an urgent need for a practical plan to improve the quality of education in mobile schools and improved monitoring, supervision and training or enhanced learning through improved teaching resources and distance learning, or they should be scrapped.

Possible Strategies for Improving Mobile Schools
- Quality issue and lack of high level teachers could be alleviated by combining with distance learning approaches. This would be also appropriate for scattered communities where mobile teachers could hold tutorials or camps.
- Review of teacher recruitment and training policy. Continuous professional training in key skills such as multi-grade, multi-age teaching should be supported.
- Review of non-formal curriculum and equivalence and transition to formal should be established;
- Schools could be attached to a designated supervisor e.g. formal school head teachers.
- Improvements in monitoring and supervision through remote monitoring, increased radio and phone contact, mentorship etc.
- Increased community supervision and monitoring and feedback mechanisms;
- Pilot the UKAID model- Payment by Results (PBR) which allows *'transferring risk of* (operating a mobile school) *from funder (principal) to recipient (agent) and aligning incentives around outcomes; stimulating recipient discretion and innovation for how results are achieved; and improving efficiency and value for money through ultimately only paying for what is achieved'.* The payment could be based on outcomes such as enrolment, attendance, retention, learning outcomes etc.

4.6.2. Distance Learning (DL)
The Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands developed 'Getting to the Hardest-To-Reach: A Strategy to Provide Education to Nomadic Communities in Kenya through Distance

Learning', in conjunction with MOEST in 2010. Despite costing and developing a manual for piloting, the pilots were never tried and there is no distance learning provision in the ASALs.

Key components of the Distance Learning programme:
The overall approach of the DL strategy is fully integrated DL option (a full primary DL curriculum education, full integration with conventional schools to create equivalency and a flexible child centred DL) in conventional school-based model of delivery of formal primary education to make the system of education provision more adaptive. Key components of the DL programme are:

1. An induction course broadcast several times per year designed to enable students' access and use the main DL programme.
2. Live community-radio broadcasts of general relevance to link the DL programme with everyday life in the area, enhance local ownership and foster motivation—e.g. broadcasts will include relevant news and discussions with guests (teachers, students and families in the DL programme, other community members, District Education Officers, etc.).
3. Stand-alone subject-modules in the local language—sets of audio units designed to teach the subject-content of the formal curriculum. These modules must be available to the child for re-play, but the actual vehicle can depend on technological opportunities— the simplest options now is a digital audio file (e.g. MP3); in the future, videos and internet-based content might be integrated. The intention was that the DL programme would work with the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development to develop a programme adapted to DL delivery but based on the national curriculum and leading to the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE).
4. Visiting tutors or mobile teachers: whenever possible and cost-effective, living with the community; will interface the DL programme with a set of students, not necessarily all in one location, highlight challenges and receive feedback and support from the programme local hub (e.g. based at the DL community radio station).
5. Printed materials in support to the audio modules.

The strategy outlines the merits of DL: a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted without face-to-face contact, through a technology medium; DL functions outside the classroom model, and is more flexible and better able to adapt to changing circumstances, while maintaining standards as high as those in a conventional school system; a DL strategy combines utilizes diverse delivery mechanisms; curriculum content can be better adapted to the significant differences in livelihood between urban and settled farming areas on the one hand, and the arid and semi-arid pastoral areas on the other.

Four years later (10th July 2014), DLCI and MOEST held a workshop to raise awareness on and review the strategy and discuss ways of taking the strategy forward. The discussions highlighted the need to combine DL with face to face contact especially for early years, to review the technologies used as radio provision could be substituted with MP3 players and tablets etc and the need to reduce the costs of developing DL

materials should be reduced by sharing resources with other forms of provision and drawing from resources developed elsewhere e.g. Somaliland etc. [13]

Table 8: Potential strengths and challenges of distance education

Potential strengths
• Huge potential for provision of stand-alone and complementary support to education.
• Appropriate through radio now and then can be provided via mobile phone and internet.
Challenges
• Difficult for basic literacy in non literate environments.
• Cost of provision in local languages for small population.

4.6.3. Adult Literacy

Given the low levels of literacy in the ASALs particularly among women, there is an urgent need to also strengthen adult literacy in culturally appropriate ways. There have been few literacy campaigns in Kenya and literacy training is largely confined to urban centres, with a lack of qualified literacy teachers, although with the development of the national Youth Service this provides huge potential for literacy provision.

There are some policy developments that aim at revamping Adult and Continuing Education in Kenya, including:

- Vision 2030 through which the Government aims at providing globally competitive quality education, training and research for development commits the country to achieving an 80% adult literacy rate by the year 2030. According to the Basic Education Act, 2013, adult basic education is part of the basic education and is therefore one of the rights that should be enjoyed by Kenyan citizens.

- Adult and Continuing Education (ACE) is the mandate of the Directorate of Adult Education and has a Special Board of Adult and Continuing Education to advice the Cabinet Secretary. The Board was constituted April 2014 but the directorate had no Board since 2008.

- One of the 18 specific education objectives during the NESP period (2013-2018) is to *'ensure universal adult literacy, especially for women by 2018'* and also *'establish an Adult Literacy Centre near every primary school, secondary school and/or a Faith Based Organization (FBO) institution'.* Although in the remote ASAL areas these are largely in the urban and or peri-urban areas so are not accessible to most illiterate women.

- There has been no adult literacy campaign in the ASALs since the 70s. Some NGOs and FBOs are providing various forms of adult literacy, however there is weak co-ordination and provision at scale.

- There is an acute shortage of full time and part-time adult education teachers and overall human resources are not being allocated to places where the needs are greatest.

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[13] See Minutes of a workshop on 'Getting to the hardest-to reach: A strategy to provide education to nomadic communities in Kenya through distance learning' held on 10th July 2014 http://www.dlci-hoa.org/download/distance-learning-strategy-for-the-asals/?wpdmdl=3157

- There is need to in-service adult education teachers to enable them use alternative modes of service delivery in line with changing trends in ACE and to meet the realities of ASALs.

Key challenges affecting the ACE include: inadequate funding, high regional and gender disparities, weak governance management structures and non-implementation of policies, inadequate supervision, monitoring and evaluation services, inadequate infrastructure (existing facilities in most Adult and Continuing Education Centres (ACE) are incomplete, inadequate or dilapidated and), inadequate human/manpower and unreliable data/statistics.

Adult literacy should target out-of-school youth and adults in ASALs to impart basic adult literacy for those whose are illiterate and post literacy for the literate to improve functional skills. In line with ACE provision a community education and empowerment initiative can be developed targeting both the literate and illiterate youth and adults who have an interest in improving their knowledge, vocational and technical skills. This will be adapted to their livelihoods.

Adult learning for women in predominantly Muslim areas can be through duksis, and possibly supported through distance learning.

4.6.4. Vocational Training

Just like other parts of the country, ASALs are experiencing rapid urbanisation. The young in urban areas tend to have different values and aspirations from their rural age-mates and their parents. In most settlements in ASAL counties economic options are limited and as such urbanised youth lack quality education, opportunities for employment or career development. Expanding access to vocational training and professional qualifications is therefore a priority. Vocational training provided should be relevant to the local economy that resolves around pastoralism/ livestock e.g natural resource management, range management, livestock production, management and health, value addition and marketing, plus new emerging livelihoods including tourism, road construction, mineral extraction, technologies, development issues and market linkages value chains for emerging livestock (including fish, poultry and bees). The establishment of polytechnics, support from NGOs projects including placements, and business training are essential. Emerging education approaches such as computer based learning and solar labs, are options in vocational training in ASALs.

4.6.5. Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECDE)

Early Childhood Development has now been devolved and has received considerable support from County governments. For example, the county government of Marsabit has developed a comprehensive Early Childhood Education and skills development and constructed 90 ECDE classes. The State of the Counties report (Daily Nation Newspaper, April 21) notes that 'since the establishment of county governments, all the 47 counties have expanded ECDE structures and enrollment in early childhood institutions has increased significantly…. In Samburu County, ECD enrollment has increased by 50% with 20,000 new children enrolled.'

4.6.6. Polytechnics

Polytechnics have been targeted for refurbishment and tools, equipment have been procured in most of the counties. This will provide the required platform for skills development for out of school youth, most of whom are idle and unproductive. In Samburu, the county has operationalized polytechnics in the three sub-counties and technical institutes are being built. In Marsabit County, 3 twin workshops and 2 administration blocks have been built, two youth polytechnics fenced, tools and equipment for four polytechnics have been procured and distributed. Wajir polytechnic offers free courses, the fees of which are covered by the county government. Building polytechnics is however not enough to spur demand. The UNICEF regional study on resilience notes that:

> *One effect of this policy has been to attract students from other parts of Kenya, but local students, not seeing the value of a technical education as opposed to an academic education, are not taking up the opportunities.*

5. Why the need for integrated education for the ASALs

In engineering, system integration is defined as the process of bringing together the component subsystems into one system and ensuring that the subsystems function together as a system. System integration (SI) is also about adding value to the system, capabilities that are possible because of interactions between subsystems[14].

Integrated education means a linked system of education that is not developed and delivered in silos but that maximizes opportunities to complement each other, share and develop joint resources, that maximizes opportunities for transition and considers informal as well as private provision as well as religious, traditional and secular education. In the ASALs of Kenya which are particularly drought prone, it also needs to be planned with inevitable drought, and conflict and movement in mind and take account of seasonality.

This framework is cognizant of the APBET policy provisions on the various target groups: out-of-school children of primary school age, between the ages of 6 and 14 years; overage children aged 11 to 18 years, many of whom have not been to school; youth and adults, over 18 years of age, whose education must be linked to vocational skills and continuing options; and secondary education for mostly adults who missed the opportunity to attend as children.

The vast majority of the stakeholders interviewed mentioned the following as the components of an integrated education for the ASALs: a) flexibility: putting education in the context of who attends, b) ensure safety and safety; c) has adequate amenities in the schools/institutions with gender and socio-cultural sensitivity, d) relevant curriculum content and high and returns on investment, e) attracts, trains and retains a critical mass of local teachers and review incentives, f) has advocacy and publicity that meets the changes in the governance system in the country , and f) highly coordinated .

6. The Framework for Integrated Education Provision in ASALs

In developing a framework for integrated education, we have defined a series of principles to guide education planning as well as describe improvements in the key approaches to education delivery that need to be linked.

Key principles of an improved integrated education framework

Principle 1: Build on existing resources and what is already working or has the potential to work in a particular context.
ASAL areas differ considerably in terms of the livelihoods, mobility of their populations, cultures, infrastructure, human resource base, even within the county boundaries. Education provision needs to respond to the context. For example in some areas private provision and *duksi's* is what is being accessed,

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[14] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/System_integration

in others mobile schools and shepherd schools are attracting children. Although these areas lack fully qualified teachers, there are numerous educated youth that are unemployed or under-employed who could be mobilized and trained to provide basic literacy or non formal education and become fully fledged teachers using fast track approaches and distance learning and other forms of continuous professional development.

Principle 2: Think innovatively to address problems:
Improvements in technologies and experiences of distance learning provide huge opportunities to increase reach and quality of education in these remote areas as well as improve monitoring and supervision. Distance education is being used in other sectors in the country financial, higher education and refugee camps and methods of monitoring using mobile phones and GIS technologies, smart cards are being used for cash transfers, and water point monitoring, but are yet to be adapted to education monitoring. In cases where direct monitoring is difficult, results based payments could be introduced e.g. for adult literacy and mobile schools.

Explore and innovate within existing provision by ensuring flexibility in timing of provision and transition to cope with seasonality and hazards such as drought and conflict can be an option to work within the existing curriculum. Education in ASAL areas, must respond to the movement and seasonality of livelihoods there, which is different to crop based areas and standard provision. It also must be provided in view of drought and other hazards affect these areas so that learning is not constantly interrupted. The key is identifying and addressing challenges with a creative mind and not being stifled by narrow views of what should and can be.

Principle 3: The need for considerable increases in resources and improved efficiency to deliver quality education in ASALs
Given the poor state of infrastructure and education in the ASALs a marshal plan is needed to improve access, address the relevance of education provided and reach all the children and adults who have been denied the right to basic education and training. Massive resources are needed to support quality education provision and reforms. The resources could be recouped from current inefficiencies: non-productive and underutilised staff and facilities as well new commitments from the government (national and county), private providers and development partners that match 'the talk' are needed, as currently a meagre 0.8% of donor funding in ASALs goes to education[15]. Budget allocations should be reviewed e.g. the national government is planning to invest 1.5Ksh billion per year for the next 3 years in irrigation largely in the ASALs, however without education the potential of this investment will not be maximised.

There are many areas of government that are non functional and draining resources and the potential impact of computers/tablets for all grade one students should be reviewed and resources reallocated to activities that will have more impact on learning outcomes, particularly in ASAL areas.

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[15] Investment tracker at 12th May 2015 http://kenya.droughtresilience.info/filtered%20views

Many savings can be made e.g. by sharing of resources e.g. sharing buildings, teachers, materials, supervision are possible. Using primary school buildings and teachers to provide other forms of education when they are not being used, sharing or adapting local language teaching learning materials between non formal and formal provision, adapting and drawing on NGO provision e.g. vocational training curricula should be considered. Given the major lack of qualified teachers and reluctance of teachers from other areas to be posted particularly in remote or insecure areas, other grades of teachers and mechanisms for training should be considered. Provision of intense courses and ongoing skill development, financial incentives, lower levels of teachers working under the supervision of qualified teachers, distance learning should be considered. Education is a right and has to be provided to every child and is the responsibility of the Cabinet Secretary to fulfill. The right is clearly stipulated in the Constitution and the Basic Education Act 2013. Resources have to be found to provide education for all or alternative cheaper mechanisms for delivery have to be adopted across the country.

Principle 4: Involve communities and promote accountability

Community engagement in planning of provisions will also not only enhance ownership, relevance and sustainability of education provision but will also enhance accountability and efficiency in delivery of education provision.

Accountability mechanisms to the community should be built into all education provision to increase efficiency and accountability. Where social accountability mechanisms already exist e.g. Transparency International's mechanisms in Turkana, Wajir and West Pokot, the Ministry of Education should be actively involved. In other cases accountability mechanisms including complaints and feedback mechanisms should be institutionalised and acted on. Accountability for education among education managers requires bold discussions and review of the job descriptions of County and Sub-county directors of education and TSC, to reflect the needs of nomadic pastoralist areas.

Principle 5: Prioritise efforts

There are many activities that need to be carried out, however those that have most impact most quickly to prevent losing another generation to illiteracy and lack of education must be prioritised. Literacy for all, vocational training for those who are exiting the system and promoting quality basic education for all are priorities.

Principle 6: Advocate for devolution of functions that the national government has shown it cannot deliver

Counties are prioritising education, however, are limited in improving provision because of national level control and devolved functions as per the Constitution. The national government is failing the ASALs and should focus on providing quality assurance and support especially for formal education while allowing counties to take on other functions e.g. adult literacy, school infrastructure development and non-formal education. The national government should oversee examinations, curricula and teacher quality, and support capacity building in counties, however reaching out of school children and education campaigns should be decided by county governments. At the very least county governments should define what mechanisms for provision are most appropriate. Monitoring can also be strengthened if it is devolved.

Delivery mechanisms

The main forms of current provision in ASAL areas are given below as well as the opportunities for improvement:

Formal schooling

Currently a mixture of day schools, private provision and low cost boarding schools are available in ASALs, mainly in urban areas.

Low cost boarding schools are generally popular as pastoralist households can maintain their livelihood strategies of mobility and migration, while their children receive a formal education. However there are a number of challenges that urgently need to be addressed: dilapidated and inadequate infrastructure such as hostels, beds, mattresses, clean drinking water, classrooms, low capitation, inadequate qualified support staff and teacher shortages, low capacity of boards to play oversight functions and inadequate safety and security.

Given the major resource constraints private and NGO provision should be promoted. Models are starting to emerge but need further exploration. **Feeder schools** cater for younger children and should be established for lower primary in locations where children walk more than three kms to reach the nearest primary school. In the ASALs small feeder schools could increase participation by younger children. Such schools could be established in smaller settlements, grouped in clusters working with a larger, central primary school; older children would be expected then to join the central school. Existing feeder schools are inadequate, lack necessary teaching-learning materials and teachers are also not given sufficient professional support.

Non formal education

Mobile schools are still operational in some areas, although many have stopped functioning due to inadequate funding and supervision and lack of support by the community due to the poor quality of education provided. There are possibilities of improving mobile schools by linking them to distance learning, where the majority of education is provided via radio or the internet with mobile teachers who holding tutorials or camps. Other possibilities of improvement include payment by results, clustering and placing them under the supervision of formal schools, improving teacher quality and monitoring, using remote monitoring etc. Mobiles schools must be transformed or they should be scrapped.

In addition there are a variety of other non formal provision mainly by NGOs or religious institutions including **shepherd schools and duksis**. However these have different focuses and are not recognized or supported by government or linked to other provision.

Distance learning is yet to be tried in the ASALs despite its huge potential in reaching remote and scattered communities in ways that do not disrupt livelihoods and are culturally appropriate. A distance learning strategy was developed in 2010 as well as a costing and teachers manual, however no attempt was ever made by MOEST to even pilot the strategy. Distance learning can also offer complementary education to those children in school and can provide ongoing training to teachers.

Adult literacy
With literacy rates so low in ASALs, particularly for women there is an urgent need to increase adult literacy and numeracy particularly in rural areas in ways that are culturally appropriate and take into account women's time availability. The requirement that adult literacy training should be reviewed and lessons learnt from the campaign approach of many counties in the past where educated people in communities especially unemployed youth are trained on mass for literacy campaigns.

Vocational training for practical skills that are in demand in the ASALs should be prioritized in order to promote employment prospects for school leavers and provide the necessary skills for the economic development that is happening in the ASALs. Subjects should be based on current and future human resource needs in these areas including animal health workers, para-professionals for health and education, local government jobs, and emerging mineral and infrastructure development sectors. As many pastoral drop outs will need to become self-employed due to lack of formal employment opportunities, marketing and business skills should be prioritised and linked to the governments' youth and women's credit, startup finance and work placement schemes.

Early Childhood Development has received support from County governments: comprehensive development plans with key projects are in place and should be supported to provide the need school readiness.

Polytechnics have been targeted for refurbishment and tools, equipment have been procured in most of the counties. This will provide the required platform for skills development for out of school youth, most of whom are idle and unproductive.

7. Conclusion

The provision of education in ASAL areas is dismal and not in conformity with the Constitution of Kenya or the many policies and declarations that the Government has signed up to. This situation urgently needs addressing by the Ministry of Education in order to fulfill ASALs citizen's basic right to education but also to provided the foundations for improved development in the area. This is in the interest of the entire nation not only as it will benefit from increased productivity in the area, but also without it, conflict, terrorism, drought disasters will continue to drain resources. NACONEK can provide direction and leadership but not without the financial and political support of the Ministry of Education, leaders and all the various education institutions. All have to put aside their institutional and individual interests and traditional ways of working focus on the key objective of addressing the **four A's of education**[16]: **accessibility, availability, acceptability and adaptability**. These issues underpin the framework outlined above.

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[16] Chris Galgalo, Chair of NACONEK, DLCI education stakeholders meeting

In order to move forward in this endeavor there are a number of immediate steps that need to be taken[17]:

- Raising awareness on, resourcing and strengthening NACONEK as the focal point and lead on improving education in the ASALs and providing clarity on what it can realistically achieve, given its current resources.
- Promote commitment of all actors to align their programs with NACONEK priorities and work in conjunction with NACONEK where possible.
- Continued collaboration including sharing of learning and joint advocacy of all educational actors committed to the ASALs and increased linkages with other actors including those providing adult literacy, vocational training and non-formal education.
- Awareness raising and joint advocacy on increased resourcing of education in the ASALs with the Government, donors and others.
- Mapping of existing provision of education in the ASALs and challenges by NACONEK staff in conjunction with county directors and other responsible staff and education providers so that plans to address the challenges can be agreed as part of the exercise and effected immediately including monitoring plans for follow up.
- Engagement in the curriculum review process for basic education to ensure that it follows the principles of integrated education particularly appropriateness and acceptability and facilitates transition between different educational options.
- Further discussion and advocacy on phased devolution and piloting of education functions learning from the experiences of other sectors including health provision.

Only through close collaboration and synergy will progress on this huge challenge be seen. All organisations should put aside their institutional hats and combine efforts to develop and learn from improved educational approaches in the ASALs so that another generation and decades of development opportunities are not lost yet again.

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[17] Based on discussions at the education stakeholders that attended the dissemination and consultation meeting.

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Annex 2: People interviewed/consulted

1. Elyias Abdi, NACONEK
2. Chris Galgalo, NACONEK
3. Mohammed Ibrahim, MOEST
4. Apollo Apuko , MOEST
5. Dorothy Ogega, MOEST
6. Dr Okwach Abagi, UNICEF consultant to NACONEK
7. Jane Mabonga, Save the Children, Kenya
8. Alistair and Patta Scott Villiers, and Sarah Wilson, PCI
9. Izzy Birch, NDMA
10. Tom Tilson and Hussein, KEEP, Adam Smith Institute
11. Director, Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development
12. Charles Kesa, Education Specialist, UNICEF Kenya
13. Dr John Mugo, Uwezo at Twaweza East Africa
14. Elizabeth Gitau, Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development
15. Gregory Naulikha , DFATD-CIDA
16. George Mikwa, Kenya Independent Schools Association
17. Prof. Ibrahim Oanda, Kenyatta University
18. Mohamud Hure, UNHCR – Kakuma Sub-office
19. CDE, Marsabit County
20. CDE, Turkana County

Annex 3: Terms of Reference to develop a framework and plan for integrated education provision in the ASALs of Kenya

1. Objective of the Assignment

Develop together with key actors a framework and action plan for promoting integrated education provision in the ASALs of Kenya.

2. Tasks, activities and proposed timelines

	Activities	Professional Time (Days)
1	Literature review	3
2	Key informant interviews	3
3	Drafting of the framework	3
4	County consultation workshops in Turkana and Wajir	7
4	Stakeholder consultation workshops – Kenya advocacy group, INEE, education sector group	2
5	Finalising the framework and plan	2
6	Presentation at the ASAL donor group and INEE technical working group, UN Somalia Education cluster	5
7	Presentation in Uganda or another IGAD country	4
8	Review of minutes	1
	TOTAL	**30**

3. Outputs

1. Draft framework
2. County consultation workshops in Turkana and Wajir (or another county)
3. Consultative workshop of education actors and the government to:
    - ➢ Enrich the findings and framework;
    - ➢ To get buy in for a combined strategy;
    - ➢ To develop a plan for promoting the framework in future.
4. Final framework and action plan
5. Presentations to the ASAL donor group, INEE, education cluster donor working group, UN Somalia education cluster group, Uganda education actors

4. Structure of the report:

1. A two page executive summary on integrated education, what needs to be done to improve education provision in ASAL areas to promote resilience building on the recent UNICEF and Save UK reports.
2. An overview of the importance of education in resilience building and the challenges in ASAL areas (i.e. the potential to undermine livelihoods and social cohesion)

3. A brief overview of the current status of education in the ASALs of Kenya drawing on the UNCEF regional study on perceptions of education, the recent reviews of boarding schools and mobile schools, the 2007 literacy survey and information on who is doing what where etc.
4. An overview of the key potential delivery mechanisms necessary to provide quality education of all in the ASALs and what need to be done to improve them. This should include: day schools, boarding schools, distance education including IRI, duksi's, Koran schools, private schools, non formal education, adult literacy, vocational training, ECD and how they should be integrated. Reference should be made to evidence in drylands elsewhere in the world e.g. Iran, Mongolia, West Africa, Sudan, Australia's education in the air, emerging distance education technologies, build on Save the Children Kenya's report (once available).
5. A brief overview of the potential of current plans to improve education in the future. Refer to the Basic Education Act, NESP, NACONEK, nomadic education policy revision, human capital pillar of the Ending Drought Emergencies process.
6. A framework for integrated education.
7. A plan (together with other education actors including Naconek) for how this framework should be taken forward including an advocacy strategy with education actors and clear roles and responsibilities.
8. Dissemination of this framework to county education actors and others.

5. Consultant requirements:
- Deep understanding of the situation and challenges of education provision in the ASALs and who is doing what;
- Understanding of the good practice from other dryland areas for education provision;
- An understanding of education policy making in Kenya;
- A wide network of education actors.

6. References:
1. A study of education and resilience in Kenya's Arid Lands, UNICEF
2. Global review on pastoralist education, Save the Children
3. Save the children report on pastoralist education in Wajir/Kenya
4. Revised Nomadic education policy
5. Literature on ABEK in Uganda (DLCI)
6. The Primary School syllabus of Kenya
7. Literature on Somaliland education (DLCI)
8. UNICEF (2014) Adaptive Basic Social service provision to reduce disaster risk of populations especially children in selected Horn of Africa countries.
9. Napier (2012) BRIDGES project: piloting the delivery of quality education services in the developing regional states of Ethiopia
10. The role of education in Livelihoods in the Somali region of Ethiopia, Eleanor Jackson
11. Education at the Margins: pastoral education in Somali region, Ethiopia
12. National Education Sectoral plan 2013-2018