

**AWARENESS AND APPLICATION OF LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION IN
PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN POST-CONFLICT AREAS: A CASE OF KALAKI
COUNTY KABERAMAIDO DISTRICT**

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DECLARATION

I, OPIO JAMES, do hereby declare that to the best of my knowledge, this work has never been presented to any University or institution of learning for the award of a Diploma, Degree or Masters Degree.

Signature.....

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Date.....

APPROVAL

This is to certify that this dissertation has been submitted for an award of Masters of Education Degree in Science Education with my approval as the university supervisor.

.....

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.....

Date

DEDICATION

This research study is dedicated to my dear parents Mr. Elesu Gusberito and Mrs. Buladinah Ayayo for their inspiration and support throughout my course of studies; and to my brothers, sisters and my family for their valuable support and encouragement.

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ABSTRACT

This research study was conducted in Kalaki County, in Kaberamaido district, in north eastern Uganda, in April 2009, using cross-sectional survey, since a large sample was required and involved respondents of different age groups. The methods used for data collection included questionnaires, interview guides and observation. Data was collected from 12 schools in the study area. 12 headteachers, 73 teachers and 380 pupils took part in the study. Kalaki County experienced traumatic situations for about two decades, due to war between Lords Resistance Army (LRA) and the Government of Uganda.

The study therefore set to find out;

- i) Lifeskills awareness of pupils and teachers in selected schools in the county.
- ii) The learners application of lifeskills.
- iii) The challenges teachers face in promoting lifeskills development among the learners.

In establishing lifeskills awareness of pupils and teachers and application of lifeskills by pupils, the schools were grouped into two, based on their proximity to camps as; schools near camps and schools far from camps. The schools near camps were ½ -2km from the camps, while schools far from camps were 4km onwards from camps. The pupils were also grouped according to gender, as male and female.

The study established that, despite a significant awareness of lifeskills among teachers and pupils, pupils in schools near camps were more aware of lifeskills than pupils in schools far from camps. The headteachers and teachers in schools far from camps were less involved in the promotion of lifeskills than their counterparts in schools near camps.

Application of lifeskills also varied between pupils in schools near camps and those far from camps. This is partly due to the less involvement of headteachers and teachers, less utilization of

structures such as debating/writers clubs, guidance and counselling sessions. The study further established that teachers do not have enough time, funds, lack lifeskills materials, face cultural influence.

In conclusion most pupils in schools far from camps are not aware of lifeskills compared to pupils in schools near camps. Application of lifeskills by pupils is still weak. Most teachers face numerous problems in the promotion of lifeskills.

Therefore to reduce the level of awareness of lifeskills, materials on lifeskills need to be supplied to schools. Other stake holders like parents, medical personnel need to be brought on board. On challenges faced by teachers; lifeskills could be allocated time on the timetable or a core subject on lifeskills be introduced in schools. Funding lifeskills activities could be considered.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Historical background

The introduction of current life skills initiatives in Uganda follows a series of other related activities by the Government, Non Governmental Organisations (NGO) or Government in collaboration with NGOs.

For example, the Government of Uganda in collaboration with UNICEF country programme introduced the School Health Education Project, (SHEP). Programme (1985-1989) and (1990-1995) which was aimed at:

- Reducing infant and child morbidity and mortality, and
- Reducing sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and HIV infection among youth aged 6-20 years. To effect the project, the content was identified, materials produced and teachers trained.

The project was initially introduced to primary 6 and 7 , with the intention of equipping children, especially girls with health knowledge, skills and attitudes prior to them dropping out of school, often to start their own families, but was later on extended to all primary school classes.

Despite its good intentions, SHEP was found unsuitable. An impact evaluation by found that although the children's knowledge on health issues had increased significantly, there was no corresponding behaviour change. The "missing link" according to the report was the life skills needed to assist the children translate knowledge into positive health behaviour.

The World Health Organization, (WHO, 1997), defines life skills as “the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of every day life.”

Generally the term life skills refers to a group of psycho-social and interpersonal skills which can help people make informed decisions, communicate effectively, think critically and creatively, cope with stress and emotions, problem solving, have empathy and self awareness.

Meanwhile, throughout the Eastern and Southern Region of Africa (ESAR), there was growing awareness that the life skills of children and adolescents had largely been neglected in education programmes in and out of school.

That the life skills were essential in confronting the crisis caused by HIV/AIDS pandemic, and other social problems facing young people. These findings culminated into a series of workshops including the UNICEF-ESAR regional workshop in June 1994, Entebbe, Uganda. This workshop was aimed at reaching a common understanding of the concept of life skills and how it could be adopted to the African situation.

Subsequently, the 1995-2000 Uganda Government/UNICEF country programme stressed the promotion of positive behaviour change with emphasis on women, children and adolescents (GOU/UNICEF, 1994). Four intentions were developed to bring about such a behaviour change. Prominent among them was the Basic Education Child Care and Adolescent Development (BECCAD). BECCAD was aimed at equipping children and

adolescents with the life skills to enable them deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.

Accordingly, the Uganda government in collaboration with UNICEF country programme produced a booklet: Life Skills Education Resource Booklet (1996); “Helping Young Ugandans to be strong and make choices for a bright and safe future” (GOU/ UNICEF 1996). This was a deliberate attempt to encourage all people who worked with children and adolescents to adapt life skills education approach to their work.

A baseline study conducted in 1996, to determine the level of the life skills of Uganda’s primary school children (*Cele et al, 1997*) found that:

- i) The children had a moderate but insufficient level of life skills.
- ii) Teaching strategies in schools were content and examinations oriented and were therefore neither pupil-centred nor suitable for life skills transmission.
- iii) When life skills were explained to teachers, they quickly saw their value and were keen to embark on such an initiative.
- iv) Community representatives, like the teachers, welcomed the idea of initiating life skills education, even though they had not known about life skills previously.

In 1997, the government of Uganda launched the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme. The major aims of UPE were;

- To raise school enrolment and empower the future generation, socially, economically and politically.

- To reduce school drop out, thus improve retention and contribute to an increase in age of marriage especially for the girls. This saw the enrolment in primary schools increase threefold and class sizes grow to over 100 pupils in lower primary. In 1997 alone 79% of boys and 67% of girls were enrolled in school (UNICEF, 2000) as cited in Buczkiewicz and Carnegie (2002).

However in 1999 only 55 percent of primary school entrants completed primary 5, (UNICEF, 2000). Reasons given for this state of affairs, included increase in dropouts, early marriages, late enrolment, repetition of classes. (Buczkiewicz and Carnegie, 2001).

After disseminating the life skills manuals to every district in the country, a joint review committee comprising of UNICEF Regional Educational Consultant on life skills initiative in government and NGO's was setup to assess the progress of the life skills initiative in Uganda. (Obura and Carnegie, 1999). The team found that the participatory training approach adopted at the training workshop could not automatically be applied in the class room. The major reasons given included inadequate time for life skills activities on the time table and the big number of pupils in primary schools.

Consequently, the life skills review committee held in July 1999, recommended the following:

- Life skills education be very explicitly integrated into the health/science syllabus.

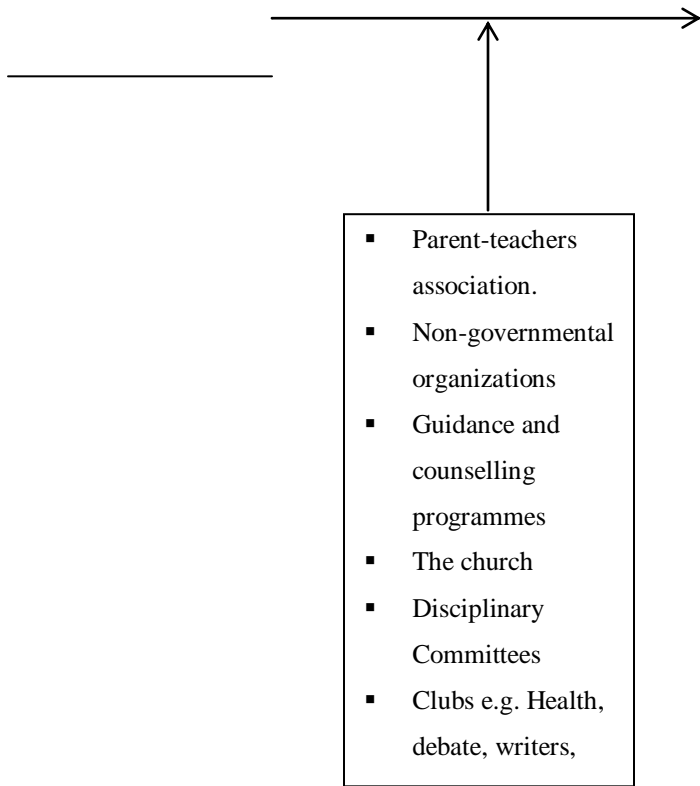
- Life skills education should not just be taught in the class room, but across the whole of the school experience, in daily health activities, school clubs and out reach activities in the community.
- Life skills initiative must re-emphasize its role to build upon, rather than replace health promotion activities in schools for instance the child –to-child approach of the 1980s.
- National examination for the 7th grade on life skills be introduced to assess children’s awareness of life skills. And supplementary materials for teachers based on specific topics in health science syllabus be developed.

Other previous initiatives included the Sara Communication Initiatives (SCI) in the ESAR countries (UNICEF/ESARO, 2000). The SCI were a series of stories based on Sara, an adolescent girl, presented as a role model of a girl who is assertive, yet respectful and with clear goals that she utilizes her life skills to achieve, despite all the social-cultural obstacles she faces.

Thus whilst some recommendations have been partially implemented, a lot remains to be done. Therefore as the 1999 review team observed, “there is a very high level of support, formal and professional commitment to the life skills initiative throughout the education system.” The an unanswered question though is. “How to deliver this to the classroom.” How do we reach the child?”

1.2 Conceptual background

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness - Knowledge and attitudes • Application of lifeskills - Decision 	a) Positive outcomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Better ways of coping with stress and emotions. 	b) Negative outcomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased school dropouts • Indiscipline, strikes. • Early sexual activity
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Life skills are essentially those abilities that help promote well-being and competence in young people as they face the realities of life.

Life skills are also regarded as personal and social skills required by all people to function confidently and competently with themselves with other people and with the wider community.

Different countries have identified and categorized life skills differently, however, in the case of Uganda, life skills have been categorized into three broad areas:

1. The skills of **knowing** and **living with one-self**, which include, self awareness, self esteem, coping with stress and emotion, assertiveness.

2. The skills of **knowing** and **living with others**; these include: interpersonal relationships, friendship formation, empathy, negotiation skills, non violent-conflict resolution and effective communication skills.
3. The third category; namely the **skills of making effective decisions** include: critical thinking, creative thinking, decision making and problem solving.

Life skills can be utilized in many content areas, issues, subjects, including drug and substance abuse prevention, HIV and AIDS prevention, sexual violence, teenage pregnancy reduction, suicide prevention, environmental education, peace education, livelihood and income generation (UNICEF and WHO, 1997).

Therefore for the purpose of this study; the application of life skills is used to refer to the practical use of life skills by the teachers and pupils. Use by the teachers both in the classrooms, in co-curricular activities at school and outside school and by the pupils when at school and out of school. These could be demonstrated by the methods used in disciplining pupils, learning-teaching methods, debating clubs, pen pal clubs, straight talk clubs, the existence of such structures such as senior woman teacher, senior male teacher, mode of leadership applied by the administration, the relationships between the school staff and pupils. Applications of life skills in various spheres of life, both by the teachers and pupils indicates their awareness of life skills.

Post conflict areas are areas that were previously under armed rebellion; and usually characterized by a break-down in socio-economic infrastructure.

The World Health Organisation, (WHO, 1997), defines life skills as “the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of every day life”.

The United Nations International Children’s Education Fund (UNICEF, 2000) defines life skills based Education as basically being behaviour change or behaviour development approach designed to address a balance of three areas: attitudes, skills and knowledge. Generally the term life skills refers to a group of psycho-social and interpersonal skills which can help people make informed decisions, communicate effectively, think critically and creatively, cope with stress and emotions, problem solving, empathy and self awareness.

1.3 The contextual background.

The introduction of Life skills education in primary schools in 1997 came against the backdrop that knowledge alone cannot change behaviour. “Doctors continue to smoke even as they tell others the dangers of smoking.” (UNICEF/GOU, 1997). Thus, with life skills education in place it was hoped that vices in our community such as early marriages thus relatively high school dropout, defilement, early involvement in sexual activity, female genital mutilation, drug and substance abuse, armed conflicts and any form of violence, STI infections among the youth, health and sanitation in schools and the general awareness of pupils on issues of reproductive health, would improve. This

however, does not seem to be the case on the ground in Kalaki county, Kaberamaido district and other war affected districts in the North and Eastern Uganda.

The over 18 years civil war fought between the Lords Resistance Army (LRA) and the Government of Uganda has either caused so many young people to miss out many years of schooling, subjected to all forms of harmful child labour, maimed, struggle for education in Internally Displaced Peoples Camps (IDPs) but also led to decline in academic performance at national level examinations.

In Kaberamaido district, found in the North East of the country, about 43 kilometers on Soroti -Lira road, the insurgents killed, maimed and abducted so, many people, setting up waves of fear and unrest across the district. On 21st June 2003, the Insurgents attacked Lwala Girls Secondary School in Kalaki County and abducted 100 girls, 55 of which were rescued by the Uganda Peoples Defence Force (UPDF) and Arrow group-a local militia after one month.

This situation, caused many people to leave their homes for urban centers, IDP camps and villages guarded by the local militia and UPDF soldiers. At the end of 2003, a number of IDPs in Kaberamaido alone were 35,039 (UN office for Humanitarian Affairs) as cited by US Bureau of Democracy Human Rights and Labour (2004).

The Insurgents intensified their operation in 2003 throughout to 2005 bringing more social, economic and political activities to near stand still. Education too, was affected. For instance, in 2002 only 19 pupils out of 2576 who sat for Primary Leaving

Examinations (PLE) in Kaberamaido district, passed in division 1 and 657 in division 2. In 2003, 13 pupils out of 2276 passed in division 1 and 450 in division 2. Given the above scenario, it is paramount that regions affected by conflict need lifeskills, because such areas have many social and psychological problems.

For example, in the study conducted by the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine (2006) in 28 camps in the districts of Amuru and Gulu, the symptoms of post traumatic stress disorders (PTSD) and depression among the IDPS were higher than those recorded for displaced groups in other conflict areas such as Afghanistan, Croatia and along the Thai-Burma boarder.

Post traumatic stress disorders (PTSD) is an emotional illness that develops as a result of terribly frightening, life threatening or otherwise highly unsafe experience such as rape, sexual abuse, murder of family members or a friend, beating or torture. Of the 210 IDPs assessed during the study, 54% displayed symptoms of PTSD and 67% showed signs of depression. Some PTSD symptoms include; insomnia, nightmares, isolation, aggression and guilt. The study attributed high stress rate to extreme high civilian exposure to violence and poor health care. It attributed poor health care, to lack of medical care and access to food and water. These findings are corroborated by Kigozi (2008) observations on the level of mental disorder in Uganda. Kigozi noted that at least 9 million Ugandans suffer from some form of mental disorder, including PTSD, depression, anxiety, epilepsy and schizophrenia. The majority of PTSD hailed from the post conflict areas of Northern, Eastern and Western Uganda.

In a related report by Etop, Ateso news paper, 500 children between the ages of 12-15 years become pregnant every year in Soroti district alone and 339 children under the age of 18 years were defiled in Kumi district within the period 2006-2007 (Etop, May 15-21, 2008, July 5-11th/2007). Other cases of rape, drug and substance abuse, high alcohol consumption by the youth and increased cases of school dropouts have also been reported in most parts of the country.

1.4 Statement of the problem

The cardinal reason for introduction of lifeskills education in primary schools and other educational institutions was to bridge the gap between knowledge and behaviour.

However, even with life skills education in primary schools in Kalaki county cases of early sexual involvement and early marriages, defilement, drug and substance abuse among the youth, persist. This state of affairs coupled with high levels of poverty especially in rural areas and unemployment have by and large contributed to increased school dropouts, early involvement in sexual activity, early marriages and a general decline in academic performance in the PLE in the county. Reassessing the level of awareness and application of life skills education in the county, could go along way in reducing or remedying such vices in Kalaki County.

1.5 Aim of the study.

To establish awareness and application of life skills on the education of pupils in primary schools in Kalaki County.

1.5.1 Specific objectives of the study.

- i) To determine life skills awareness of pupils and teachers in selected schools in the county.
- ii) To establish the learners' application of life skills in the county.
- iii) To find out the challenges teachers face in promoting life skills development among the learners.

1.6 Research questions.

- i) How life skills are integrated in the teaching/ learning process in primary schools?
- ii) What is the pupils' level of awareness and attitude to life skills approach?
- iii) What are the major obstacles in the application of life skills education?
- iv) To what extent have the obstacles been overcome?

1.7 Significance of the study

It is hoped that the findings of this research study will energise peer education and peace education especially in conflict areas.

The study may also help policy makers and implementers design more focussed and effective life skills policies for post conflict areas.

The study may also bring to light the protective role of life skills education such as provision of psychosocial healing of the youth in post conflict areas.

In addition, the findings of the study may help teachers and pupils work harmoniously and confidently. Good working relationship is a factor for better performance in all spheres of life.

1.8 Scope of the study

The study was conducted in 12 primary schools in Kalaki County, Kaberamaido district in North Eastern Uganda. The study centred on establishing the various life skill practices in the study area and pupils awareness and use/application of such life skills. The obstacles faced by teachers in imparting life skills to the learners and how the teachers are coping with them.

The study did not however attempt to establish the impact of lifeskills on the learners and teachers.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the theoretical and conceptual background of various researchers on life skills shall be given. Other sections shall be categorised into the following: pupils awareness and knowledge of life skills. The application of life skills in primary schools and the role and challenges of teachers in the implementation of life skills education.

2.2 Theoretical background

The foundation of life skills approach is embedded in the theories that explain the way human beings and specifically, children and adolescents grow, learn and behave (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2002). These theories work in association to build synergy in the promotion of life skills approach.

They include among others:

- Social learning theory
- Problem behaviour theory
- Social influence theory
- Cognitive problem solving
- Resilience and risk development theory.
- Child and Adolescent development theory.

Despite the close relationship of the theories, the researcher, considers the Child and adolescent development theory very relevant to this study and shall therefore expound it to some detail.

2.2.1 The child and Adolescent Development Theory:

This theory explains the complex biological, social and cognitive changes that occur from childhood through adolescence. According to the theory the fundamental change from childhood to early adolescence occurs at the onset of puberty Piaget (1951). This period which occurs early in girls than in boys but generally between the ages of 10 to 14 years is characterised by; growth spurt, development of primary and secondary sex characteristics, becoming fertile and increased sexual drive among the boys and girls. These and many changes are due to secretion of hormones that control physical development at the onset of puberty. Aware of the various physical and physiological changes during puberty, it is the duty of the teacher, life skills educator or any one dealing with children, to ensure that children are prepared for such changes.

Though many scientists and researchers have written and published studies on child development over the last hundred or so years, only a few of the theories have stood the test of time and have proven to be widely influential Oswalt (2002). Among those core groups of theories, which the researcher found suitable for this study are five. These are:

- Freud's psycho social sexual stage theory.
- Erikson's psycho social stage theory.
- Kohlberg's moral understanding stage theory.

- Piaget's cognitive development stage theory.
- Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory.

In his psychosexual theory, Freud (1856-1939) describes children as going through multiple stages of sexual development to adulthood. He categorized the stages as, oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital basing on the sexual activity and the pleasure received from a particular area of the body. He argued that if the stages are not psychologically completed and released, the individual may become fixated later in adulthood or may exhibit various defence mechanisms to avoid the anxiety produced by the conflict of leaving the stage.

In the oral stage (birth-2years), Freud (1933) noted that the focus of the child is on pleasure that they receive from sucking, biting and swallowing with their mouth. The mother or maternal equivalent becomes the centre of attachment. Therefore how the child is treated will determine whether he or she will become a well adjusted person or fixated later in adulthood. Fixation has two possible outcomes. Either the individual develops oral receptive personality or oral aggressive personality. Oral receptive personality becomes preoccupied with eating and drinking and reduces tension through oral activity such as eating, drinking, smoking, biting nails, such people are also generally passive, needy, sensitive to rejection and easily swallow other people's ideas. The oral aggressive personality is hostile and verbally abusive. Freud observed.

The anal stage which spans 2-4years is marked by a shift of focus to the anus. “The child derives pleasure in defecating or retaining feaces as he or she learns to control their bowels” noted Freud. Toilet and potty training should be the focus of attention for every child care taker. Fixation at this stage may lead to two possible personality developments later in life. Either the individual develops the anal retentive personality attributable to too much punishment during toilet training. In which case the individual becomes stingy with a compulsive seeking of order and tidiness or becomes generally messy and careless, lacking self control. The anal expulsive personality which Freud urged occurs due to little toilet training during childhood.

It is therefore important that child caretakers give children proper toilet training, at this stage of development.

In the phallic stage (4-5years), the focus moves to genital stimulation and the sexual identification that comes with having or not having penis. According to Freud, children turn their interest and love towards their parents of the opposite sex and begin to strongly resent the parent of the same sex. Freud called this the Oedipus complex.

The girl in this regard suffers a penis envy, while the boys suffer castration anxiety. Noted Freud. In respect to this, children should be given proper information about growth and development. They should be assured of their sex and that they are normal.

The phallic stage is followed by the latency stage (5-12years). During this stage sexual urges and interests are temporarily repressed. The focus is on learning and skill development. Parents and teachers could enhance the in-built interests by not only encouraging and guiding children but also by providing basic learning materials.

Finally children were thought to remain in a final genital stage (11years- upwards), during which grandular, hormonal and physical changes in adolescents cause a resurgence of adult sexual thoughts, feelings and behaviours. This is in line with the social influence theory by Bandura (1977), which recognizes that children and adolescents at a certain stage of development come under pressure to engage in risk behaviours, such as sexual experimentation and drug use. The pressures include: peer pressure, misleading media messages, modeling other peoples behaviour etc. The theory therefore argued that engagement in unhealthy behaviours can be dissipated by addressing them before the child or adolescents are exposed to the pressures. It emphasizes early prevention rather than later intervention and more importantly equipping children with specific skills such as peer resistance.

This theory is in agreement with the government of Uganda evaluation of the SHEP and related programmes that mere provision of information on the consequences of risky behaviour such as early sexual activity, drug use, combined with the use of fear (for example, of death in the case of HIV) may not prevent children from engaging in these behaviours (Ministry of Education and Sports (2001).

Freud's psychosexual theory though criticised by the modern scientific researcher as lacking in substantial corroborative data, paved way for the development of many child developmental theories. It also holds the widely accepted view that every individual at birth and at later stages of development possesses a variety of physical needs such as

food, proper temperature, activity and elimination of wastes and sex drive and social or personality needs like status, security, affection, independence and competence.

The needs create a state of restlessness or tension in an individual that is only reduced when the appropriate goal is reached. Thus they serve as potent motivators of behaviour which may gradually develop into character. (Freud, 1993). In addition, Freud and others of the psychoanalytical school hold that frustration of the sex drive is a chief cause of personality maladjustment and nervous disorder in adolescents.

Aware of the various needs of individual's right from birth, parents and teachers should strive to provide children with basic needs, Adolescent should be given appropriate sex information for proper transition to adulthood. Other school activities like sports and games, debate drama and play should be encouraged. These help adolescent to sublimate or develop substitute outlets for the extra energy until such a time as marriage is possible.

Erikson's (1950-1968) put forward the psycho-social theory which asserts that people experience eight psycho social crisis which significantly affect each person's development and personality. He observed that the crisis is a sort of internal struggle or challenges which a person must negotiate and deal with in order to grow and develop. The crisis stages are not affected by age but rather by physical and sexual growth which prompts life issues that in turn create the crisis. Each of the eight psycho social crises is characterized by a conflict between the positive and negative dispositions, emotional forces or attitudes. Successful development through each stage require striking the right

balance between the positive and negative dispositions and not total adoption of the apparent positive disposition. Observed Erikson.

In the first stage namely trust verses mistrust which spans from 0-½ years (birth to walking), The infant completely dependent on the mother or maternal equivalent, develops a healthy balance between trust and mistrust, if fed and well cared for and not overindulged or over protected. He further noted that insulation of an infant from all and any feelings of surprise and normality or unfailingly indulged creates a false sense amounting to a form of maladaptation known as sensory distortion. The individual in this state fails to appreciate reality. He/she becomes spoilt, deluded so to say.

He further observed that infants who grow up to trust, develop hope and faith that things will generally be okay. On the contrary, abuse, neglect or cruel treatment of an infant destroys trust and fosters mistrust. Mistrust increases a person's resistance to risk exposure and exploration. Erikson noted. "Extreme mistrust leads to withdrawal, depression and the child becomes afraid to attempt any task." Observed Erikson.

It should therefore be noted that a child whose basic physical needs are unmet will not develop or behave normally. Rejection or cruel treatment of children very likely leads to aggressive, negativistic, quarrelsome, rebellious or untrustful personality later in adulthood. The over protected child on the other hand is likely to be submissive, anxious and lacking in self-reliance (Allison, 1944). Clay (1961) noted that children who are overprotected often exhibit such nervous habits as thumb sucking, enuresis, and temper tantrums. The teacher and parent therefore need to foster the development of trust in

children by showing love, care and exposing them to situation that cultivate trust for other people.

The second stage: Autonomy versus shame and doubt (1–3years) is when a child develops independence of thought, self determination, discipline and a basic confidence to think and act for one self. Significant part at this stage concerns toilet and potty training, muscular control and walking. Remark Erikson. Positive reactions from parents like encouragement, patience and guidance, play an important role in shaping the young child's experience and successful progression through this period. For example children become autonomous when care givers are supportive and give them the safe space to make their own decisions, to experiment with their bodies and develop problem solving skills without ridicule.

Improper upbringing of the child at this period leads to shame and doubt. This stunts a positive self esteem in children who then perceive his/herself as stupid. Loss of self esteem leads to withdrawal and hence reduced participation, for instance playing with other children. This affects language and motor development.

Initiative versus guilt, which spans 3-6 years, is when children become playful, make sense of purpose, work with and lead others. It's a period of exploration. Erikson asserts that initiative flourishes when adventure and game playing is encouraged. Suppressing adventure and experimentation or preventing children from doing things for themselves inhibits the development of confidence to initiate, replacing it instead with an unhelpful fear of being wrong or unapproved. This leads to a feeling of guilt. Noted Erikson.

He however cautioned that extreme freedom to explore may result to a development of ruthlessness. The individual becomes exploitative and dispassionate. On the other hand extreme sense of guilt leads to inhibition. The child becomes risk averse and unadventurous. Parents and teachers should not only encourage the children but also avail them with the necessary playing tools to enhance initiative but at the same time guide them towards the development of beneficial characteristics

The fourth stage; industriousness versus inferiority (5-12 years), described by Erikson as a sort of entrance to life, is a period when an individual child concentrates in purposeful or meaningful activity, usually leading to the development of competence and skills. "A child who experiences the satisfaction of achievement of anything positive will move towards successful negotiation of this crisis stage." Observed Erikson. "However extreme industriousness may result into an individual who is a workaholic and obsessive specialists". He remarked. Thus like in every situation such individuals will be lacking in other spheres of life, for instance friendship formation and can get difficulties socialising with others. This negatively impact on their life.

On the contrary a child who continually experiences failure at school tasks and work or who is denied the opportunity to discover on their own, capabilities and strengths and unique potentials is quite naturally prone to feel inferior and useless and usually develops low self esteem. Extreme inferiority leads to laziness, pathetic and purposeless personality. Noted Erikson. Thus the schools and other people in charge of children of

school going age should strive to develop the hidden potentials in children at this development stage by making them do things practically. However activities should be structured with the interests, abilities and age of the child in mind.

In the fifth stage namely identity versus role confusion, (9-18 years) Erikson asserts that the adolescent struggles to belong, to be accepted and affirmed while at the same time wanting to be him or her self. He further observed that self confidence and self esteem necessary to freely associate with other people become important aspects of the young person. This stage is characterized by various emotional changes such as sensitivity about self, need for recognition and independence and psychological changes like shyness which are usually difficult to handle by the unprepared adolescents. As a result role confusion which is the negative perspective in which the person fails to see clearly who they are and how they can relate positively with their environment, sets in.

“Unchecked and unguided freedom at this stage may lead to fanaticism, in which the individual becomes an extremist and usually prides in self importance” argued Erikson. He further posits that repudiation a form of extreme role confusion in which the individual becomes socially disconnected may also occur.

Lewin (1954) noted that in jumping from childhood to adult hood great strain and confusion result, that the adolescent is really in a no man’s land. He /she is neither a child nor an adult but is caught in a field of overlapping forces and expectations that he or she never really knows how he or she stands. At one moment he or she is told by his /her parents that he/she is too young to do certain tasks. The next moment he/she is chided for

not acting as a man or woman. “This uncertainty as to what their role are, causes many adolescents to be in conflict, to vacillate and to be sensitive”. He remarked.

Kirby et al (2001) asserts that there are internal and external factors that interact among themselves and allow people to overcome adversity. They identify internal protective factors as self esteem and self confidence, internal locus of control, and a sense of life purpose. External factors include support from the family and community. A caring family that sets clear, non punitive limits and standards; the absence of alcohol abuse and violence in the home, strong bonds with and attachment to the school community; academic success; and relationships with peers who practice positive behaviours.

The above observations by Kirby et al (2001) are also shared by Bernard (1991) who noted that characteristics that set resilient young people apart are social competence, problem solving skills, autonomy and a sense of purpose.

Thus a teacher whose tasks is to help adolescents make good adjustments to school and life should take into consideration the nature and effects of both biological and social factors in adolescents development. Equipping adolescents with skills such as decision making, critical thinking, interpersonal relationship would also be very important at this age.

Intimacy versus isolation, the sixth psychosocial stage (18-40 years) also described as the stage of sexual maturity is characterized by the act of giving and receiving of physical

and emotional connection, support, love, comfort, trust and all the other elements typically associated with healthy adults relationships, conducive to courtship and early parenthood” However extreme intimacy may lead to promiscuity, the victim becomes sexually needy and vulnerable, warned Erikson. Conversely other individuals experience isolation, namely the feeling of exclusion from the usual life experiences of dating and mating and mutually loving relationships. In this regard the individual feels lonely, alienated and socially withdrawn.

Again it is within the powers of the school and in particular teachers to cultivate a culture of good relationship among the learners. Activities such as debates, group work, picnics, tours and more child centred, approaches to teaching should be encouraged.

Generativity versus stagnation (30-65 years) viewed as a culmination of one’s achievements and contribution to descendants and future generations, is characterized by unconditional giving, positive parental love and care for the offsprings and all future generations. Erikson describes stagnation as an extension of intimacy which turns inwards in the form of self interests and self absorption. He urged that the individual in a state of stagnation exhibits feelings of selfishness, self indulgence, greed lack of interest in young people and future generations and the wider world.

“Extreme generativity results into over extension in which the individual becomes do gooder, busy person and meddles in any affairs” remarked Erikson. Conversely “extreme stagnation leads to a state of malignancy called reactivity in which the person becomes

disinterested and cynical” He observed. Thus a balance between these two dispositions would be enhanced by involving young people in community activities such as taking roles in the church, schools and helping the needy early enough in life.

In his eighth and last stage integrity versus despair (50+), Erikson (1968) describes integrity as a feeling of satisfaction, when one is at peace with oneself and the world. No regrets or recrimination. The extreme of which leads to a conceited pompous and usually arrogant person. He observed.

Despair represents the opposite disposition, a feeling of wasted opportunities, regrets, wishing to be able to turn back the clock and have a second chance. Such individuals feel miserable, present an image of unfulfilment and are usually blameful. Erikson observed. This stage is a powerful lens through which to view one’s life even before old age is reached.

However from the educational point of view, no period during the life cycle is more important than childhood. Therefore teachers who work at this level of development should understand children, their fundamental needs, their problems and the forces that modify and produce behavior change. The statement that “the child is the father of the man” bears much psychological validity. For patterns of growth, learning and adjustment established in childhood reach into the future and influence the entire course of life (Lovell, 1968).

In his theory of cognitive development, Piaget (1965) described how children's way of thinking developed as they interacted with the environment. He noted that cognitive development involved major transformations in the way knowledge is organized, namely organization and adaptation. He urged that adaptation of knowledge schemes occurs through the process of assimilation and accommodation. Through assimilation children take information from the environment using their senses and mould it to fit the existing knowledge structures. Through the process of accommodation, children change their schemes to restore a state of equilibrium. "The process of assimilation and accommodation explains changes in cognition at all ages" He urged.

Piaget further asserts that cognitive development follows an invariant sequence. The early childhood years being characterized by two stages, the sensorimotor stage (birth to 2years) and the preoperational stage 2 to 7years. The elementary and secondary school years are characterized by the concrete operational stage 7 to 11years and formal operational stage (12-upwards)

During the sensori-motor period, children acquire schemes for goal-directed behaviors and permanence of objects using their senses. For example they recognize self as agent of action and begin to act intentionally. He /she can pull a string to set a toy mobile or shake a rattle to make a noise. With regard to objects permanence, the child realizes that things continue to exist even when no longer present to the sense. He or she begins learning how to understand and create language. They are prone to absorb and copy the language they

hear around them. In this regard, parents should provide children with suitable playing materials and use appropriate language.

In the preoperational stage children begin to use words, numbers gestures and images to represent objects in their environment. For example the child can group together all the red blocks regardless of shape or square blocks regardless of colours. Language development also becomes a prominent feature of the growing child.

Smith (1941) noted that although the development of vocabulary in the typical child proceeds rather slowly at first, there is a marked acceleration during the last few years in the pre school period. This stage is however limited by ego centrism, the belief that he or she is the centre of the universe and centration; the inability to differentiate classes of objects and the rigidity of thinking.

Piaget (1951) further observed that playful activities facilitate associative fluency in children. "In playing we learn about the child, for through it he or she expresses his/her wants, problems and his/ her potential future development" remarked Piaget.

Therefore those who work with children and who want play to become a constructive force in child development should take into consideration Piaget's observation about children namely that curiosity and assimilatory action are aroused by the new or novel in the context of the familiar and that children should be given the opportunity for

exploratory activity, real events and concrete objects in their play world in addition to some degree of self direction and self regulation (Edward, 1969).

During the concrete operational stage, children begin to use mental operations to think logically about objects and events in their environment. Classification of objects conservation of items such as numbers, mass and seriation for example arrangement of items along a particular dimensions like size take form.

Shure and Spivack (1980), advocates of the cognitive problem solving theory noted that imparting interpersonal cognitive problem solving skills to children at an early age, helps them to learn and to consider more solutions and consequences. In addition to preparing them to; cope better with frustration and emotions. Thus emphasizes the need to instil in children, the skills of problem-solving early in life.

In the formal operational stage, adolescents and adults can think about abstract objects, events and concepts. They are able to reflect on the hypothetical, the future and ideological problems.

In the school setting, late childhood and early adolescence are critical moments of opportunity for building skills and positive habits. During this age span children are developing the ability to think abstractly, to understand consequences, to relate to their peers in new ways and to solve problems. They also tend to distance themselves from parents and develop greater control over their own lives. However even within this age

span, the skills of young people of the same age and different ages can vary dramatically hence the need for educationist to structure activities according to the children's level of development.

Piaget's theory spells important factors in the teaching- learning process which should be emulated by the teachers. These include the need to involve the child in the learning process- use child centred approach.

Educators should help children learn how to learn. Learning activities should be matched to the child's level of conceptual development and peer interactions play an important role in the child's cognitive development. The theory further emphasizes the role of teaches in the learning process as organizers, collaborators, stimulators and guides Piaget.

Kohlberg (1968) developed moral development theory which describes the process through which people learn to discriminate right from wrong and to develop increasingly sophisticated appreciations of morality.

He noted that moral development is a life long task which occurs in stages and is cumulative. He categorized the stages as preconventional, conventional and post conventional.

In the pre conventional level, children's understanding of morality is based on obedience to rules and self gratification. The rules are seen as fixed and absolute and obeying rules becomes the means to avoid punishment. Similarly children account for individual points

of views and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs. Reciprocity is possible but only if it serves one's own interest. Observed Kohlberg.

To this end, parents, schools and other learning institutions have rules and regulations to guide behaviors and conduct of children for the smooth operation of any learning activity.

During the conventional morality level, people are perceived to act morally because they believe that following the rules is the best way to promote good interpersonal relationships and a healthy community. For instance a conventional morality person believes that it is wrong to steal not just because he does not want to get punished but also because he does not want his friends or family to be harmed.

This is in agreement with Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) in the theory of reasoned action who noted that an individual's intention to perform a behaviour is a combination of his/her attitude towards performing the behaviour and the beliefs about what others think he/she should do. The implication is that if other people perceive the act of a given behaviour as positive, then an individual shall be motivated to act, so as to meet the expectations of others and vice versa. This calls for cultivation of skills of decision making critical thinking among the learners in a school setting.

Schools and other learning institutions can best promote a healthy relationship by adopting a participatory approach in the running of the institution. For example learners should be assigned responsibilities and be involved in the general administration of the

institution. Activities such as sports and games, group discussions that foster unity and friendship should be encouraged.

In the post conventional level, people's view of morality transcend what the rules or laws stipulate. Instead of just following rules without questioning, people determine what is moral based on a set of values or beliefs that they think are right, that is, the members of society agree upon the standards of rules that govern them. To this end the learners should be made aware of the constitutional provisions, their rights and accordingly how to conduct themselves.

Lovell (1968) gives five different theoretical approaches which though individually are inadequate to explain the problems of the moral development. These include; the learning theory which postulates that punishment produces anxiety while positive reinforcement strengthens desirable responses which lead to moral action.

In the psycho-analysis theory, he posits that the child internalizes the voices of his or her parents in his or her superego, hence resists temptations to avoid self punishment for wrong doing.

The role theory contends that through identification and modelling, children learn what are appropriate roles. The last approach, the moral knowledge theory, moral development is believed to occur when people know what is right and wrong.

However as noted earlier, these theories work together to produce a morally upright person. It is therefore up to the teachers, the school and society at large to promote social experiences, provide adequate models, corrective feedback and trust to provide an ultimate solution to this pressing problem.

Bronfenbrenner (1970) developed the ecological systems theory to explain how everything in a child's environment affects how a child grows and develops. He urged that children's development is influenced by different aspects or levels of the environment. He categorized this aspect into the microsystem, mesosystems, exosystem and the macrosystems.

According to Bronfenbrenner, the microsystem is a small immediate environment of the child which includes the immediate family, care givers and the school. "How these groups or organizations interact with the child determine how the child grows" Bronfenbrenner observed. He further urged that, the more encouraging and nurturing the relationships and places are, the more enhancing they are to the child's growth. However how a child acts or reacts to these people also determines how they treat him/her in return.

Bronfenbrenner's observation about the effect of Microsystems on child's growth is true, for an individual at any stage of his/her development is a product of biological and environmental factors working together, thus influencing the way he/she reacts and behaves in all life situations (Marrow, 1969). For example a child may misbehave in

school because of an abnormal glandular condition or because he/she comes from a home where good manners are not stressed. Similarly a child may fail to learn because of a vitamin deficiency or because he/she is not sufficiently motivated.

Biglan, et al (1987) agrees with Brenfen Drenner's micro system, when they say that social influence to smoke, drink, or use of drugs can originate from the attitudes and behaviours of family members (particularly parents, teachers and older peers) and friends. They further noted that such a behaviour may arise from the way society portrays the use of substance as both acceptable and an essential ingredient in popularity, sex appeal, sophistication, success and good times. The observation by Biglan is like an eye opener to teachers, parents and other people who deal with children not to take for granted, certain adult practices, such as smoking, drinking alcohol, use of language, since they can have a negative effect on the young ones.

In short the individual makes changes in the environment and in turn the environment changes the individual and his behaviour (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Therefore it is crucial in an attempt to understand children, that teachers find out how the child perceives the situation that surrounds him/her. Such a procedure should greatly facilitate the predictions and control of youngsters.

In the mesosystems which describes the work of different parts of the child's microsystem and how they enhance the child's growth and development. For example a

child whose care givers take an active role in activities that affect the child such as attending parents teachers meetings, watching their children play, is better motivated.

According to Winfred (1971), quoting Thorndike and Skinner leading, learning theorists, noted that learning is most effectively accomplished when a child's efforts are followed by reinforcement. They contend that, the way to get pupils to learn rapidly and to like their schoolwork is to take notice of good work they do and commend them for it. Praise other than censure is a motivating device in producing learning, they urged.

Conversely if the child's two sets of care takers; for example his /her mother and step father or the father and step mother disagree on how best to raise the child and hence give conflicting lessons, the child's growth is hindered in different ways. Observed Bronfenbrenner.

His observation is shared by Baldwin (1967) who reported that children brought up in a democratic home tended to be active, aggressive, fearless, planful, curious, non conforming and more likely to become school leaders than average children from authoritarian homes, whom he urged were quiet well behaved socially, unaggressive, restricted in curiosity, originality and fancifulness. He however noted that children from homes where parents disagree on methods of discipline, more often become problem cases at school than children whose parents agree on methods of control.

Jessor and Jessor (1977) of the problem-behaviour theory contend that adolescent behaviour (including risk behaviour) is the product of complex interactions between people and their environment. They further argued that behaviours are influenced by an individual's values, beliefs and attitudes and by the perceptions of friends and family about these behaviours. They recommend that skills in critical thinking, decision making, effective communication and negotiation are important aspects of skills-based health education and lifeskills.

Bronfenbrenner describes the exosystem as comprising of the parents' work places, extended family members, and the neighborhood. The places that the child may not directly interact with but still have an effect on him or her. For example if a child's parents are laid off from work he or she may not be able to provide the child with the basic physical and social needs. This will have a negative effect on the child and thus affect his or her school performance. Similarly uninspiring neighborhood with no recreational factors, stunts a child's performance.

However, if the parent is promoted at the work place, they will be better able to provide the child with not only the basic needs but also other recreational facilities. This enhances the child's interest and ability at school and therefore lead to improvement in performance. In the same vain a child born to relatives who have excelled in a given field, for instance medicine will likely be inspired to strive to do a related course or at least work hard for a better future.

Wendel (1950) in his book, people in quandaries noted that when the child is preoccupied with personal concerns and problems and when he or she is beset by fear and anxieties

his or her energies are directed to these problems and not to the intellectual problems in school. This retards the child's academic performance. In this regard parents should endeavour to always provide their children with the basic essential educational materials, schools too could identify needy students and help them.

The Macrosystems, the largest and most remote set of people and things to a child which still have a great influence over the child includes things such as freedom permitted by the national government, cultural values, the status of the economy, wars. Observed Bronfenbrenner. Wars for instance lead to destruction of infrastructure, loss of life and property and migration of people to safer places. This in the field of education retards performance in schools as most teaching materials are destroyed, qualified teachers move away to safer places.

Psychologist Lewin as cited by Muss and Rolf (1971) once noted that to understand or to predict behaviour, the person and his environment have to be considered as one constellation of interdependent factors. Therefore to understand the child, the teacher must (1) know the child, his physical condition needs and abilities and (2) know the environmental, social and cultural forces that act on him or her (Edward, 1972).

Other psychologists of child development like Bandura (1977) of the social cognitive theory contend that an individual's behaviour is uniquely determined by his/her environment and cognition which operate together, exerting important influence on the other. In addition, the SCT posits that most behaviour is learned vicariously.

Vicarious learning also called observational learning refers to the human ability to learn not only from direct experience, but also from the observation of others. Bandura (1989) asserts that children learn to behave through: Instruction (i.e; how parents, teachers and other authorities and role models tell them to behave), as well as by observation (i.e, how they see adults and other peers behaving). Children's behaviour is reinforced or modified by the consequences of their actions and the responses of others to their behaviour. He observed.

Vygotsky (1978), a prominent cognitive theorist, proposed that new levels of understanding begin at an interpersonal level: Originally between infant and adult, and then through continuous social interaction: His concept states that "the distance between the actual and the expected stage of development of a child is determined by his, or her capacity for problem-solving, when working alone as compared with when interacting with adults and other, more capable peers (Newman and Newman, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978). As observed by the trio, the social environment has a strong influence on the structure of one's thinking, and cognitive skills can be enhanced by more extensive, structured, high quality interactions with others.

2.3 Awareness of life skills in Uganda

Cele et al (1996), in the baseline study of the level of life skills of Uganda's primary schools stated that, life skills, was not something teachers and school administrators considered important for the children, but rather academic learning and vocational education. The study also found out that the level of psychosocial skills of the children

was generally low. The need to focus on such skills as critical thinking, decision making and other cognitive skills was identified as urgent. The study further noted that Uganda is a country that is transforming itself fast and also becoming more urbanised. Such developments, cause the loosening of the family and community ties, leaving a lot of responsibility to the child and the school.

The implication for the teacher is that the teaching of lifeskills needs to replicate the natural processes by which children learn behaviour: modeling, observation and social interaction and that reinforcement is important in learning and shaping behaviour. Positive reinforcement should be applied for the correct demonstration of good behaviour and skills while negative or correct reinforcement for behaviour or skills which need adjustment.

According to Cheryl *et al* (1992), early attempts at prevention of adolescent use of drugs and consumption of alcohol assumed that adolescents lacked information about the negative effects of alcohol and drugs, and that if students were sufficiently aware of their negative consequences, they would make rational decisions not to drink or smoke. The findings of the study however proved the contrary. It concluded that prevention strategies should not only focus on information and knowledge but include acquisition of specific social skills, such as interpersonal relationship, peer resistance, non-conflict resolution skills.

CARICOM and UNICEF (1991) noted that for effective skills based health education and lifeskills teachers need to employ methods in the class room that let young people model,

observe the skills being practiced and then use the skills themselves. They argue that if young people can practice the skills in the safety of the classroom environment, they are much more likely to use them in and outside of school. Their view is shared by Wilson et al (1992) and Tobler (1998) who said that approaches to health education and life skills show that active participatory learning activities for students are the most effective methods of developing knowledge, attitudes and skills to enable students make healthy choices.

The above observations point to the need for teachers and any lifeskills educator to use participatory teaching methods to build skills and influence attitudes of the learners. CARICOM, (2000) identifies some participatory teaching methods as; class discussions, brainstorming, demonstration and guided practice, role play, case studies, story telling, debates, educational games and simulations, audio and visual activities such as arts, music, theatre, dance, and decision mapping or problem trees

Also according to the Ministry of Education/UNICEF, (1996), base line study on the level of life skills education in primary schools, the teachers were found to be very well qualified, however, the qualifications were not reflected in the method of teaching in the class rooms, necessary for the promotion of life skills. When life skills concepts were explained to the headteachers and teachers who participated in the base line survey, they enthusiastically welcomed the importance. These findings point to the inadequate knowledge about life skills among some teachers and thus their absence or lack of application in some schools.

However since introduction of life skills in 1996, the Ministry of Education and Sports has used various strategies to promote life skills. For example through teaching at Primary Teachers Colleges (PTC), at primary school and secondary schools and other Tertiary schools and in collaboration with the President's office, developed, the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to the Youth (PIASCY) in 2007. PIASCY is aimed at empowering pupils in primary and secondary schools and other post primary institutions with information about HIV/ AIDS.

The life skills initiative has also moved to synergise the efforts to broaden range of partners. For examples, UNICEF's Sara communication initiative uses multiple channels such as video, radio, TV, print media and local drama groups. The straight talk foundation is yet another NGO, that has been involved in the provision of sexual and reproductive Health and life skills guidance and counselling services to the youth both in primary and secondary schools and out of school. However the effectiveness of various stakeholders imparting life skills especially in post conflict areas in particular primary schools remains to be seen.

2.4 Application of Life skills

UNICEF and WHO (1997) states that life skills can generally be applied in various aspects of life. In Health, life skills can be utilised in many content areas, such as; the prevention of drug and substance abuse, sexual violence, teenage pregnancy, HIV/AIDS/STDs prevention, suicide prevention. It further noted that life skills education

programs can also be effective in preventing school drop out and violence among young people and can lay the foundation for skills demanded in today's job market. This explains why the emphasis on lifeskills education would be a great remedy to children coming from a war situation as a case of Kalaki County.

Glynn (1989), found that teaching and understanding of life skills was considered to be a necessary component of effective programmes for the prevention of smoking, while Kirby *et al.* (1994) found that the most effective programme to reduce sexual activity devoted some time to the development of communication, negotiation and refusal skills.

Dryfoos (1990) asserts that lifeskills approaches typically work to promote self esteem and self efficacy. He contends that self esteem and self efficacy are mediating factors in behaviour related to health and social problems. He further observed that low self esteem as being associated with alcohol and drug use. Delinquency, teenage pregnancy and suicidal thoughts (Choquet, 1993).

The above observations not only spell out the importance of life skills education but more specifically point out the relevance of particular lifeskills in reducing some unhealthy behaviour in people. They also point out the need to identify unhealthy behaviour and use appropriate lifeskills to reduce it. This is supported by Kirby, (2001) noted that effective programmes focus narrowly on a small number of specific behavioural goals and give a clear health content and health-promoting stance on these behaviours.

Till man (1997) noted that education is practically useless unless it offers practical solutions for everyday problems and situations. He contends that education should include strategies which focus on resolving all sorts of issues in order to encourage the students self confidence, self esteem, and independence. These skills would help the students grow up and develop as individuals with sound values. Life skills education helps to develop creative thinking thus building capacity for reasoning and analysis and a sense of caring for self and others.

Faced with HIV/AIDS scourge, Zimbabwe launched the AIDS Action programme for schools in 1991, through a partnership between UNICEF and the Zimbabwean Ministry of Education and Culture. The programme explicitly focused on behaviour, providing information about STIs and HIV/AIDS and also built skills to enable youth to make better decisions. (Gatawa, 1995).

According to Fawole et al (1999), Health education programs focussing on HIV/AIDS prevention were carried in schools in Nigeria. The aim was to increase levels of knowledge, influence attitudes and encourage good sexual practices among secondary school students. A group of students who received comprehensive sexual health education were compared with the controls; those who did not receive the sexual health education. Students in the intervention grouping showed a greater knowledge and increased tolerance of people with HIV compared to the control. The mean number of sexual partners also decreased in the intervention group, while the control showed a slight increase. There was also increased condom use among the intervention group. Activities

included lectures, film shows, role play stories, songs, debates and a demonstration of the correct use of condoms.

Botvin et al. (1995), reporting about a school based drug abuse prevention programme carried in the USA using general life skills and skills for resisting social influences for use of drugs, involving the control and intervention groups, noted that drug abuse prevention programs conducted during Junior high school, yielded significant and durable reductions in tobacco, alcohol and marijuana use, if a combination of social resistance and general lifeskills are taught and if they are properly implemented and included at least 2 years of booster sessions.

He further observed that a significant reduction was noted for both drug and poly drug (tobacco, alcohol and marijuana) use in groups that received the prevention program, compared to the control groups.

In a similar study, on sexuality and HIV education in the USA, conducted in 4 schools among the 9th and 11th grade students, with the focus on imparting correct information about AIDS, teaching cognitive skills to appraise risk of transmission, increasing knowledge of AIDS-prevention resources, changing perceptions of risk taking behaviour, clarifying values, understanding external influence and teaching skills to delay intercourse and consistently use condoms. An evaluation carried out three months after the end of the program, showed a decrease in intercourse with high risk partners, increase in monogamous condom use among the intervention group. (Vanghan, 1993).

Skills based health education and lifeskills has been shown by research to;

Delay the onset age of using alcohol, tobacco and other drugs, (Griffin et al (1992).

Reduce the chances of young people engaging in delinquent behaviour (Elias, 1991), interpersonal violence (Tolan and Guerra, 1994), and criminal behaviour (Englander et al, 1989).

In Uganda, life skills have been applied in various aspects of life at different educational levels; for example child to child (CTC) Uganda based at Kyambogo University, launched in 1983 with support from UNICEF focuses on primary schools. CTC is involved in such activities as; promotion of HIV/AIDS awareness programmes and inclusive education.

The AIDS Care and Education Trust (ACET) in Uganda is yet another organisation using CTC approach. The organisation uses life skills sessions for some 1912 pupils in 14 schools on issues pertaining to AIDS prevention and treatment.

Other organisations using the life skills approaches include, straight talk foundation, the Presidential Initiative on AIDS Strategy for Communication to the Youth, PIASCY (2003) and the Ministry of Health which is currently promoting what are termed “Adolescents friendly Health Services.” In which health workers are helped to become more open and supportive to young people and adolescents themselves are trained as peer educators.

Ndauti and Wambui (1997) in their evaluation report on the HIV/AIDS prevention in schools strongly recommended the use of peer educators as agents of behaviour change. They noted that schools based programs have been shown to increase the adolescent knowledge about HIV/AIDS and to a greater extent promote healthy behaviour. They further assert that peer education has been shown to be successful in reducing substance abuse, like use of alcohol, drugs, tobacco, and reduction in risk behaviour: peer educators are desirable because they are more credible source of information. They communicate in a language that can be understood by their peers: they serve as role models that dispel normative concepts that all youth are involved in the risky behaviour.

This line of thought is shared by Di. Clement (1997) as cited in Ndauti and Wambui, that “the normative role of the peer educators is important in facilitating adolescent acquisition of social skills of negotiation and assertiveness; essential in avoiding high risk behaviour.

The lifeskills initiative has also moved to synergise the efforts of a broad range of partners. For example UNICEF’s sara communication Initiative uses multiple channels such as video, TV, print media and local drama groups, to promote sara a role model of an adolescent girl coping with challenges, such as harassment by a sugar daddy.

2.5 The role and challenges teachers face in promoting life skills education

Hamburg (1990), in emphasising the role of educational managers as motivators of their students, argued that motivation determines whether or not youngster’s will pay attention and put forth persistent effort to master skills that are well within their abilities or try to

attain goals that they value. He further noted that attributes of the person serving as a model affects the motivation of the learner to pay attention, to select what will be remembered and influence the willingness of the youngster to enact the behaviour. Students pay greater attention to the same sex models, to individuals whom they like and respect to those who are popular, have leadership roles or powerful status. The observations by Hamburg spell out the unique characteristics needed for teachers; an inspiration to his/her pupils, a good role model, show leadership characteristics, attributes which would help to foster life skills amongst learners.

In stressing the need for proper preparation of children and adolescents for adulthood, Rwabita. (2002) noted that the years from 1-25 are formative years and are for character formation. “It’s the time to acquire knowledge and skills that one needs to prepare for development years”. This is a very important stage of one life and all the future depends on it. He further noted that all those who want to succeed in the old age must prepare themselves before this stage. However without good education, good character and more value formation, the future will end in failures and disappointments he observed. The above observations point to the need for teachers to be well a breast with life skills and thus ensure children and adolescents are well prepared for the future during their formative years.

Meanwhile Aspy and Roebuck (1977) show how effective and less effective teachers could be differentiated according to behavioural skills. They assert that teachers who are highest in their abilities to emphasize with their students, who demonstrate respect in and

out of classroom and whose behaviour and intention were genuine, were the teachers whose students showed more cognitive growth, IQ gains, best attendance and fewest examples of destructive behaviour in the classroom. This not only shows the significance of life skills in the mental development of the children but also shows its importance in improving teacher-pupil relationship and academic achievements.

While there are many reasons for youth involvement in drug and substance use, the major reason for youth still at school is perhaps to be accepted by peers. Tezifa (1989) observed that the small society of the child is made up of several groups. As the child grows older he or she moves away from the family and begins to relate more to the peer group. She further noted that once children are at school they become part of the societal system in which they are subjected to a number of influences. Above all they become peer members of a group of age mates with values, norms and status hierarchies which every member must respect or suffer rejection. There is therefore an automatic separation between the world of adults and that of children and this has been worsened by the modernisation process. She observed. The challenge for teachers is perhaps to guide friendship formation amongst the pupils and check on peer practices.

In a related study by Kelder et al (1992), peer influence was found to be the strongest predictor of smoking among adolescents in school. He noted that the problem associated with adolescents alcohol and drug use are global, especially as the third world economies become more interdependent, as drugs become appealing to young people. The study reported that, in the USA, by the time students graduate from high school, and at about

18 years, over 90% have tried alcohol, 33% had been heavy drinkers, 29% are regular smokers, while 44% have tried marijuana.

The children in Kalaki County are no exception to use of alcohol and drugs. The alcohol is openly sold in shops in the market without restrictions and some of the pupils are either 18 years or slightly above.

Kelder et al (1992) further observed that susceptibility to negative environmental influence could be reduced by increasing self-esteem, a sense of personal control, self-confidence, self-satisfaction and assertiveness, with particular emphasis on the need to teach adolescents specific skills such as interpersonal skills, goal setting, self directed behaviour, skills of anxiety reduction and positive thinking.

Harold (1987) noted that one of the major needs of student in schools is a sense of self esteem, a believe that one can succeed there, and quite often students will believe in their fellow students with whom they relate so close than they do with teachers and parents.

Chery et al (1992) talking about the students use of alcohol and drugs; noted that in identifying prevention strategies, schools and institutional administrators need to help the students to identify the social consequences of alcohol, drugs and smoking, such as smelling badly, having accidents or acting out of control, in addition to exploring together reasons why adolescents smoke or drink.

Therefore, with the more emphasis by teachers and school administrators on academic learning and vocational education, low level of psychosocial skills among children,

coupled with increased urbanisation (*Cele et al, 1996*) the increase decline in academic performance, at P.L.E. in post conflict areas, high number of teenage pregnancy needs attention more than ever. The school has a subset of community and vehicle of change can go along way in moulding children from various socio-political and economic settings into acceptable individuals of a large community.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the research design that was employed by the researcher. It also provides the target and sample population of the study, research instruments, research methods, data collection techniques and methods of data analysis and limitations of the study.

3.2 Research design

The researcher used cross-sectional survey research to collect data. A survey research design was used because it is an appropriate technique for collecting information on attitudes, opinions and practices from a large population involving respondents of different age groups.

Questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect quantitative data, while qualitative data involving attitudes, opinions, were categorized into themes and analyzed.

3.3 Study Population and Sample Size

The study was conducted in 12 primary schools out of 40 primary schools in Kalaki County. 12 headteachers, 73 teachers and a total of 380 pupils of upper primary were selected for the study.

3.3.1 Selection of schools

The schools were chosen taking into consideration their accessibility to the researcher, time frame and financial costs that the researcher had to meet. The 12 schools were randomly selected. The researcher assigned each school a number. The numbers were written on small pieces of paper, folded and placed in a small container. The researcher then shook the container to mix the pieces of paper and picked one piece at a time. The same procedure was repeated until all the 12 numbers representing 12 schools were chosen. The numbers on pieces of paper picked, represented the schools that made up the sample.

3.3.2 Selection of headteachers and teachers

The headteachers were purposively selected for the interview, owing to their experience in lifeskills education. Their responses were made to triangulate the responses by the teachers and pupils. The study initially targeted to randomly sample 6 teachers from each school; 3 male teachers and 3 female teachers to avoid gender bias. However in most of the sampled schools, some teachers were in class teaching, others were absent, hence the researcher involved the teachers who were available and free. Therefore 73 teachers took part in the research study. The researcher thought this was representative since there are 106 teachers in the 12 schools sampled.

3.3.3 Selection of pupils/respondents

The researcher initially targeted 400 systematically selected P.5, 6 and 7 pupils from the selected schools, since the total pupil population was 40,000 which is in agreement with Krecie and Morgan statistical methods of determining population sample. However due to some problems, such as absenteeism, some pupils doing exams, the researcher decided to randomly sample the respondents who were available, taking into consideration the gender divide and administered the questionnaire.

3.4 Research methods

The methods for data collection employed included; questionnaires, interviews, documentary analysis and observation.

3.5 Research Instruments

The methods of data collection mainly included questionnaire guides (appendix C and D), interview guides (appendix B). Others were observation and documentary analysis.

(a) The questionnaire guides were constructed basing on the objectives of study and were close ended and open-ended questions. The questionnaire was chosen for use among teachers and pupils of upper primary because the respondents are literate and understand English language. The questions were constructed using the closed ended items of the likert type and others for teachers, in which the respondents were asked to rank the items.

Likert type items were used so as to enable the researcher collect a wide range of responses, ease scoring and interpretation and also give the respondents easy response

on a wide choice of questions. Questionnaires were also suitable for collection of data from a large sample, good for collecting both qualitative and quantitative data.

- (a) Interview guide was used among headteachers to establish more detailed information and to triangulate data collected from teachers and pupils.

The interview method was thought the best for headteachers, compared to questionnaires and observation because its more interactive, flexible and takes a short period of time, since most headteachers are usually busy.

- (b) Documentaries

Documentaries about pupils' enrolment, academic performance at P.L.E were obtained whenever possible. Observation of teachers and pupils during school routine to get additional information about the respondents was also done whenever possible.

3.6 Validity of Instruments

The researcher made a draft of questions and discussed with colleagues on the master of education programme and adjustments were made. The second draft of questions were made and discussed with the researcher's supervisor in which several changes were made. With the recommendation from the supervisor, a pilot study was carried out in two primary schools in Kampala.

The data obtained was scored and the results discussed with the supervisor. With a few amendments the data collection instruments were deemed suitable for use in the field. In this way the researcher ascertained the validity of the instruments.

3.7 Reliability of Instruments

The reliability of the questionnaire was established by pre-testing using a small group of respondents. The respondents' responses were subjected to a Cronbach Alpha coefficient reliability test, using the following formula:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{K (1 - \sum Sd^2)}{K - 1 (SDt^2)}$$

Where; $\sum Sd^2$ = Sum of variance of individual items in the questionnaire

SDt^2 = Variance of the entire questionnaire

K = Number of items in the questionnaire

The reliability was found to be 0.5. The questionnaire was considered reliable for use in the field.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

The data collected was analysed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative data involving ideas and opinions were categorised into themes and analysed.

Quantitative data was edited, tallied to obtain numerical data, coded and computed into frequencies then standardised into percentages using SPSS package. The package was used because it accommodates a large number of variables at the same time and reduces detailed laborious calculations by hand.

Where appropriate, the chi square (X^2) statistical tool was used to establish the significance of results at 0.05 level of significance (P) at appropriate degree of freedom. The chi square test of significance was used because the data was in form of frequency counts.

The following formula was used for determining chi-square observed (X^2_{obs})

$$X^2 = \frac{\sum (fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where \sum = summation

fo = frequency observed

fe = frequency expected

3.9 Limitations of the study

Life skills are behavioural attributes, hence difficult to measure to a high degree of accuracy.

The headteachers and teachers showed some scepticism as to the motive of the research and may not have given a real picture of the situation in some of their responses.

Some of the respondents showed apathy and seemed not to be conversant with life skills programmes.

Time and financial resources were limited in the course of the research as lot of travel had to be made.

The research was carried out at the time when P.7 pupils were doing exams. This coupled with the number of pupils absent could have affected the sample size. However selection of the respondents randomly was meant to minimise such a normally.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is a presentation, analysis and interpretation of data collected using questionnaires, interviews and by observation. A total of 386 questionnaires were administered to pupils in the 12 schools where research was carried out. Only 380 (98.4%) were returned, 75 questionnaire were given to teachers but only 73 (97.3%) were returned and 12 headteachers were interviewed.

Items in the questionnaire that investigated pupils' awareness and application of life skills were tallied into frequencies then presented as percentages in tables.

4.2 Pupils and teachers responses on awareness of life skills

Table 1(a): Pupils awareness of life skills

Awareness of life skills	Pupils near camps		Pupils far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Aware	157	100	210	94.2
Not aware	0	0	13	5.8
Total	157	100	223	100

As observed from the table above, all the respondents near the camps admitted to be aware of life skills, compared to 94.2% of the respondents far from the camps. 5.8% of the respondents far from camps were not aware of life skills. These observations reveal that pupils from schools near camps were more aware of life skills than those far from the camps. When data was subjected to chi-square (X^2) analysis at degree of freedom, $df = 1$ and at 0.05 level of significance, $P < 0.05$. The value of chi-square observed or obtained (X^2_{obs}) was then compared with the value of chi-

square tabulated or chi-square critical (X^2_c). X^2_{obs} was found to be greater than X^2_c ($X^2_{obs}=9.53$, $X^2_c=3.84$, $df=1$; $P<0.05$) (for details see Appendix E). This shows that the results are statistically significant, and implies that there are significant differences in the level of lifeskills awareness between pupils in schools near camps and pupils in schools far from camps.

To further establish pupils' awareness of life skills some items from part II of the pupils questionnaire were picked out for analysis as shown below.

Table 1(b): Pupils awareness of life skills

Item	Statement of investigation	Pupils near camps			Pupils far from camp		
		Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know
11	Most pupils know what is good for them and should be given little or no guidance/help.	59.9	28.7	11.5	57.0	33.2	9.9
20	Co-curricular activities are a better way to relax the body after a busy working day.	83.4	8.9	7.6	67.3	21.1	11.7
21	Prayers help pupils pass exams	93.6	5.1	1.3	91.0		3.1
23	Bullying and teasing fellow pupils is an example of indiscipline	77.7	17.2	5.1	65.5	22.4	12.1

From the pupils' responses on items 20, 21, 23 above, life skills plays a significant role in moulding disciplined pupils and preparing them for better academic performance.

The high positive responses of pupils on items 20, 21 and 23, indicates that many pupils are aware of this particular life skills. However most pupils do not seem to be aware of some life skills as evidenced by their positive responses on item 11.

To ascertain, how statistically the data is significant, items 11 and 20 were subjected to X^2 test, ($X^2_{obs} = 0.96$, $df=2$, $P<0.05$, $X^2_C = 0.05$) and ($X^2_{obs} = 13.23$, $df=2$, $P<0.05$, $X^2_C=0.18$) respectively. (Appendix F and G). Items 11 and 20 which sought to establish pupils self awareness and mode of coping with stress, respectively.

$$X^2_{obs} = 0.96, X^2_C = 0.05$$

This indicates that the results are not significant and implies that pupils are not aware of what is good for them. Calculation of Cramer's co-efficiency to establish the strength of pupils' awareness of what is good for them gave 0.05. This means pupils awareness of what is good is very low and needs to be strengthened.

On co-curricular activities, or mode of coping with stress the results are statistically significant indicating that co-curricular activities are a better way to relax the body. However the contingency co-efficient calculations to determine the strength of significance, indicated it's low. This may mean little attention or support is given to co-curricular activities.

The researcher then sought to establish the variation in awareness of lifeskills among pupils according to gender as shown below.

Table 2: Pupils awareness of life skills according to location and gender

(a) Pupils in schools near camps

Item/Gender	Males			Females		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know
11. Pupils need little/no guidance	64.4	23.3	12.2	50.0	37.3	11.9
20. Co-curricular activities good	85.6	5.6	8.9	82.1	13.4	4.5
21. Prayers good for exams	96.7	1.1	2.2	89.6	6.4	4.0
23. Bullying and teasing e.g. of indiscipline	80.0	15.6	4.4	76.1	20.9	3.0

(b) Pupils in schools far from camps

Item/Gender	Males			Females		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know
11. Pupils need little/no guidance	59.5	27.0	13.5	56.6	33.3	10.1
20. Co-curricular activities good	66.7	20.7	12.6	71.7	21.2	7.1
21. Prayers good for exams	84.7	13.5	1.8	88.9	4.0	7.1
23. Bullying and teasing e.g. of indiscipline	73.0	15.3	11.7	60.6	30.3	9.1

From table 2(a) and (b) it is apparent that most pupils think they know what they want, as indicated by their high percentage yes responses. However the females both in schools near camps and far from camps seem more open to external advice than the males. For instance 23.3% and 27.0% males compared 37.3% and 33.3% females from schools near camps and far

from camps respectively refute the statement that they know what they want and hence do not need any help.

By inspection the pupils are unanimous on the importance of co-curricular activities to relax the body and prayers in helping them pass exams, items 20 and 21 respectively. For 85.6% to 66.7 and 96.7% to 84.7% of the males compared to 82.1% to 71.7% and 89.6% to 88.9% females agreed that co-curricular activities and prayers respectively are important.

Whilst most males (boys) accept that bullying and teasing is an example of indiscipline, some boys and girls from schools far from camps did not know. While 20.9% to 30.3% of females (girls) near camps and far from camps refused it is not a form of indiscipline. This indicates poorly developed skill of interpersonal relationship.

Table 3: Source of life skills education to pupils

Source of life skills	Pupils near camps		Pupils far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Teachers	113	29.9	159	37.0
Straight talk news letter	71	18.9	60	13.9
Parents	57	15.0	78	18.1

Reading	50	13.2	48	11.2
Ministry of Education and Sports materials	46	12.2	52	12.1
Invited counsellors/guests	41	10.8	33	7.7
Total	378	100	430	100

Table 3 above, indicates teachers were the major source of life skills to pupils in schools near camps with 113 (19.9%) and far from camps with 159 (37.0%); straight talk news letter was second at 71 (18.9) for pupils near camps but third with 60 (13.9%) for pupils far from the camps. Parents were third for pupils near camps with 57 (15.0%) and second for pupils far from camps with 78 (18.1%). Reading which was fourth with 50 (13.2%) for pupils near camps, was the second last for pupils far from camps with 48 (11.2%).

The Ministry of Education and Sports materials as source of life skills was only 46 (12.2%) for pupils near camps and 52 (12.1%) for pupils far from camps. Invited counsellors/guests was the least source for both pupils near camps and far from camps with 41 (10.8%) and 33 (7.7%) respectively.

Generally teachers and parents were the major source of life skills, although their involvement falls far below average. There is less influence of straight talk news letter in schools far from camps than in schools near camps. Also from the percentages, it seems the Ministry of Education and Sports is doing little in the promotion of life skills. This is in part explained by the low contribution of reading as source of life skills. Perhaps the more involvement of teachers in the promotion of life skills is partly explained by the low involvement of other parties, including invited counsellors/guests. The pupils were also asked whether class talks are given and responses are shown in table 4.

Table 4: Shows whether class talks are given

Response	Pupils near camps		Pupils far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	157	100.0	203	91.0
No	0	0	20	9.0
Total	157	100	223	100

From the table 4, all the pupils from schools near camps affirmed that, class talks are given, compared to 91.0% from schools far from camps. 9.0% representing 20 pupils from schools far from camps indicated class talks were not given.

This means class talks were often given to pupils in schools near camps than to pupils from schools far from camps.

The researcher therefore sought it necessary to establish who gave the class talks, what the talks centred on and how often talks were given. The findings are shown on table 5.

- a) Who gives class talks to pupils?
- b) What the talks given to pupils centre on?
- c) How many times talks are given in a term?

Table 5(a): Shows who gives class talks to pupils

Official	Pupils near camps		Pupils far from camps	
	Frequency	(%)	Frequency	(%)
Class teacher	95	35.3	120	35.2
Headteachers	85	31.6	68	19.9
Total teachers	82	30.5	124	36.4
Matron/Patron	07	2.6	29	8.5

Total	269	100	341	100
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(b) Shows what the talks given to pupils centre on.

Issue	Pupils near camps		Pupils far from camps	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Discipline	103	37.6	130	35.1
Boy-girl relationship	86	31.4	99	26.8
Academics	51	18.6	57	15.4
Co-curricular activities	34	12.4	84	22.7
Total	274	100	370	100

(c) Shows how many times talks are given in a term.

Response	Schools near camps		Schools far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
After two weeks	75	49.7	33	14.9
Once a week	28	18.5	23	10.4
Twice a term	25	16.6	121	54.8
A month	23	15.2	44	19.9
Total	151	100	221	100

As observed in table 5 (a), class teachers were the major source of class talks in schools near camps, with 95 (35.3%), followed by headteachers with 85 (31.6%) then other teachers with 82 (30.5%) and lastly the matron/patron with only 07 (2.6%). In schools far from camps, teachers constituted the highest percentage, 124 (36.4%), followed by class teachers with 120 (35.2%) and headteachers with 68 (19.9%) and lastly by the matrons/patrons with 29 (8.5%).

This implies that class teachers and headteachers in schools near camps were more involved in class talks, than did other teachers and matrons/patrons. In schools far from camps headteachers were less involved in class talks, hence came third after class teachers and teachers respectively.

The matrons were generally less involved, taking the least positions in schools near and far from camps.

The headteachers and class teachers in schools far from camps were less involved in giving class talks compared to their counterparts in schools near camps. This could explain the findings on table 4 in which 9.0% of the pupils reported that class talks were not given.

Issues of concern varied from schools near camps and schools far from camps as seen in table (b). In schools near camps, discipline was the main centre of talks with 103 (37.6%) followed by boy-girl relationship with 86 (31.4%). The same sequence was repeated in schools far from camps, with discipline having 130 (35.1%) and boy girl relationship with 99 (26.8%).

Academics was third issue, with 51 (18.6%) in schools near camps, and lastly co-curricular activities with 34 (12.4%). This was not the case, in schools far from camps, in which academics was the least talked issue with 57 (15.4%) after co-curricular activities with 84 (22.7%).

The above observations indicate that the major issues of concern in schools far and near camps were discipline and boy-girl relationship. This could mean that cases of indiscipline exist among the pupils and that pupils could be involved in bad boy-girl relationship, hence the need to talk to children about them.

However, whereas academics was taken seriously in schools near camps it was not the case in schools far from camps, who tended to dwell more on co-curricular activities rather than academics. This could be the reason for the continued decline in academics at the P.L.E. (Appendix L).

Table (c) shows that class talks were often held after a fortnight with 75 (49.7%) in schools near camps compared to twice a term with 121 (54.8%) in schools far from the camps. This means schools near camps gave class talks more often than did the schools far from camps. Which agrees with the findings on table 5(a) that showed less involvement of class teachers and headteachers in giving class talks.

These findings were corroborated with items in the teachers questionnaire that investigated the teachers awareness of life skills, their source of life skills and how they promoted life skills among the learners. The teachers responses are reflected on tables 6, 7 and 8.

Table 6: Awareness of lifeskills by teachers in schools near camps and far from camps

Awareness of life skills	Schools near camps		Schools far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Aware	34	100	39	100
Not aware	0	0	0	0
Total	34	100	39	100

As observed in the above table, all the teachers both from schools near camps and far from camps were aware of life skills. This shows great awareness of life skills among teachers. It was therefore necessary to find out their source of life skills. Their responses to this effect are as shown in table 7.

Table 7: Teachers' source of life skills

Response	Schools near camps		Schools far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Ministry of Education & Sports	28	60.9	35	66.0
Straight talk news letter	11	23.9	10	17.6
Visiting counsellors	07	15.2	08	15.7
Total	46	100	53	100

The major source of life skills to teachers in schools near camps and far from camps is Ministry of Education and Sports with 28 (60.9%) and 35 (66.0%) respectively. This is followed by straight talk news letter with 11 (23.9%) and 10 (17.6%) respectively and lastly by visiting counsellors with 07 (15.2%) and 08 (15.7%) respectively. Thus Ministry of Education and Sports remains the main source of life skills to teachers. Other sources such as straight talk news letter, visiting counsellors and other NGOs such as Girl Education Movement (GEM) and UNICEF only constitute a small percentage.

Table 8: Shows the ranking of life skills as promoted by teachers

Life skills	Near camps			Far from camps		
	Frequency	(%)	Ranking	Frequency	(%)	Ranking
Problem solving	259	13.8	1	232	10.8	4
Negotiation skills	257	13.7	2	292	13.6	2
Coping with emotions	217	11.5	3	269	4.5	3
Empathy	214	11.4	4	294	13.7	1
Coping with stress	194	10.3	5	199	9.3	7
Creative thinking	178	9.5	6	228	10.6	5
Critical thinking	175	9.3	7	201	9.4	6
Decision making	148	7.9	8	113	5.3	10
Effective communication	124	6.6	9	152	7.1	8
Self esteem	113	6.0	10	165	7.7	9
Total	1879	100	10	2145	100	10

The four most emphasized life skills by the teachers, in schools near camps and far from camps were, problem solving, negotiation skills, empathy and coping with emotions. Other life skills were not given much emphasis, a fact that partly explains why they are not well developed among the learners as shown in table 13.

This could be a deliberate move by the schools to inculcate in the learners, such skills to enable them leave in harmony with others and at the same time resisting peer-pressure and other unhealthy practices such as smoking, drug use, early sexual activity and marriage. However other equally vital skills such as self esteem, decision making, effective communication were not given much emphasis.

Table 9: below shows methods by which teachers promote life skills among the learners.

Table 9: Shows methods teachers use to promote life skills among learners

Response	Schools near camps		Schools far from camps	
	No.	%	No.	%
Assembly talks	33	34.7	36	36.7
Class meetings	25	26.3	29	29.6
Group discussions	21	22.1	19	19.4
Invited guests/counsellors	14	14.7	08	8.2
House meetings	02	2.1	06	6.1
Total	95	100	98	100

The most common method of promoting life skills among the learners in schools near camps and those far from camps is during assembly talks. More child centred methods such as group

discussions and house meetings were second and last respectively. The interpretation is that most teachers have little time for lifeskills activities and can only afford to talk about it in assemblies. There is also less involvement of other stakeholders such as counsellors in life skill programmes.

Table 10: Shows the teachers response on the structures/programs available to promote life skills in schools.

Table 10: Shows the ranking of structures/programs schools use to promote life skills

Response	Schools near camps		Schools far from camps	
	No.	Ranking	No.	Ranking
Senior woman and male teacher	31	1	27	3
Sports activities	27	2	30	2
Encourage teacher-pupil meeting	23	3	20	5
Writing/debating clubs	21	4	22	4
Office of career guidance	20	5	15	6
Invite parents of indiscipline pupils.	17	6	31	1
Total	139	6	145	6

Senior woman and male teacher are the most active means for transmitting life skills in schools near camps, followed by sports, teacher-pupil meetings respectively. Writers/debating clubs was

fourth. The least used was meeting parents of the indisciplined children. In schools far from camps, involvement of parents of indisciplined pupils ranked first, followed by sports, senior woman and male teacher were third, writers/debating club fourth. Office of career guidance was the second last and last structure in schools near camps and those far from camps respectively. The writers/debating clubs, careers office and involvement of parents of indisciplined pupils needs to be stepped up in most schools as they play an important role in life skills transmission.

In table 11 below, the response of teachers on the involvement of the school administration in life skills activities is shown.

Table 11(a): Teachers response on the involvement of administration in life skills activities

Statement of investigation	School s near camps					School s far from camps				
	SA(%)	A(%)	PA(%)	D(%)	SD(%)	SA(%)	A(%)	PA(%)	D(%)	SD(%)
Career guidance programmes	23.5	47.1	26.5	2.9	0	23.1	38.5	35.9	2.6	0
Encourage straight talk programs	17.6	64.7	14.7	2.9	0	12.8	35.9	41.0	5.1	5.1
Promotes life skills and other activities	38.2	55.9	0	2.9	2.9	51.3	28.2	17.9	0	2.6

From the table above 47.1% of teachers in schools near camps confirmed the existence of career and guidance programmes at their schools, compared to 38.5% teachers in schools far from camps. 64.7% agree the school encourages straight talk programmes, compared to 35.9% of teachers in schools far from camps. 55.9% of teachers near camps agree to the participation of headteachers in life skills promotion, compared to 28.2% of teachers far from camps. However,

51.3% of teachers from schools far from the camps strongly agree that headteachers participate in life skills activities.

From the foregoing analysis it can be said that career guidance programmes exist in schools, however they do not seem to be very active; especially in schools far from the camps. Schools near camps, encourage straight talk programmes, more than those far from camps. Headteachers of schools near camps support the promotion of life skills more than those from schools far from camps.

The teachers also confirmed that life skills helps to curb indiscipline and that a relatively large number of pupils are involved in drinking alcohol and smoking. Of the teachers interviewed, 61.8% and 61.5% from schools near camps and schools far from camps strongly agreed that life skills helps to curb indiscipline, while 27.3% and 30.8% respectively agreed that a number of pupils are involved in drinking alcohol and smoking. This is a relatively big number, an implication that most children could be involved in smoking and drinking alcohol.

Items (iii), (vii) and (viii) of part II of the teachers' questionnaire were subjected to chi-square test at 0.05 level of significance and the contingency coefficient to determine the strengths of the significance calculated, where it was felt necessary as shown in tables 11(b) and (c) for teachers in schools near camps and far from camps.

11(b): Statistical analysis on the teachers' response about involvement of administration in life skills.

Items	Responses					N	X ² _{obs}	X ² _{cv}	df	Sig.
	SA	A	PA	D	SD					
Career guidance Programmes	7.99	16.0	9.01	0.99	0	34	25.26	9.49	4	0.05

Encourage straight talk Programmes	6.02	21.9	4.90	0.99	0	34	18.01	9.49	4	0.05
Promote life skills and other activities	12.98	19.01	0	0.99	0.99	34	40.79	9.49	4	0.05
Total observed frequency	26.99	56.91	13.91	2.97	0.99	102	84.06	9.49	4	0.05
Total expected Frequencies	20.4	20.4	20.4	20.4	20.4					

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 84.06 \quad X^2_{\text{cv}} = 9.49,$$

11(c): Statistical analysis on the teachers' response about involvement of administration in life skills.

Items	Responses					N	X^2_{obs}	X^2_{cv}	df	Sig.
	SA	A	PA	D	SD					
Career guidance Programmes	9.0	15.0	14.0	1.0	0	39	15.59	9.49	4	0.05
Encourage straight talk Programmes	4.9	14.0	15.9	1.9	1.9	39	19.30	9.49	4	0.05
Promote life skills And other activities	20.0	10.9	6.9	0.7	0.7	39	3.33	9.49	4	0.05
Total observes frequency	33.9	29.9	26.8	3.6	2.6	155	68.22	9.49	4	0.05
Total expected Frequencies	31	31	31	31	31					

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 68.22 \quad C = 0.78 \quad X^2_{\text{cv}} = 9.49$$

As observed from table 2(b) and (c) above the values of chi square observed; X^2_{obs} for both teachers in schools near camps and far from camps are greater than the values for chi-square critical X^2_{C} , indicating that the results are significant. This implies that the administration is involved in the promotion of life skills and other related activities. However values of the contingency co-efficiency (c) for responses of teachers in schools near camps is greater than for

the teachers far from camps. This implies that school administrators in schools near camps are more involved in lifeskills activities than their counter parts in schools far from camps.

4.3 Learners application of life skills

To establish learners' application of life skills, items 3-25 of the pupils questionnaire and items (i), (iv) of part II and part III of the teachers questionnaire were used.

Table 12: Application of life skills by the pupils

Two significant observations clearly stand out from table 13 above; the methods/ways the schools promote life skills among learners, whether or not the skills are noticed/recognized by the pupils and the pupils lack of, or application of life skills in their daily activities.

Items 3, 9, 15, 16 and 24, which sought to establish pupils understanding of some life skills promoted by the schools, not only shows acknowledgement by pupils that schools near camps and far from camps practice life skills but also indicates difference in understanding of some activities. For instance in item 15 and 16, 58.6% and 43.9% and 84.7% and 68.2% of pupils from schools near camps and far from camps respectively, agree that competitions among schools do not cause problems and that debates are not a waste of time. However 33.1% and 41.3% of pupils from schools near camps and far from camps respectively admit that competitions among schools cause problems. Similarly 14.6% and 25.6% pupils also affirm that debates are a waste of time. This indicates lack of understanding and application of life skills and could mean low development of skills of negotiations, effective communication, decision making and problem solving-table

There is therefore need to encourage competitions and debates in schools as this fosters development of skills of friendship formation, negotiations, effective communication, decision making and problem solving.

The other items that sought to find application of life skills by the learners, to a great extent indicate that learners use life skills in their daily activities. For example 71.3% and 67.3% of pupils in schools near camps and schools far from camps accept that a girl can be a friend to a boy without engaging in sexual relationship (item 4), while 86.6% and 87.9% of pupils would encourage pupils who left school not to get married but go back to school.

However some pupils did not seem to apply life skills as shown in item 7, in which, 38.9% and 37.7% of pupils in schools near camps and far from camps respectively, conceded to the believe/statement that a pupil who does not hit back when hit is weak. This indicates a weakness or lack of skills of coping with emotions, decision making and problem solving. This is further shown in items 10, 14, 22, 25 in which a relatively high percentage of pupils accept that a pupil trying to solve a problem is making a mistake, and that a reward, should not be given to a pupil who refuses to join others in smoking and drinking alcohol and that the best solution for pupils who steal is expulsion.

In order to establish the significance of the data on application of life skills by pupils items 4, 13, 14 and 18 of part III were subjected to statistical analysis. On whether a girl can be a friend to a boy without having sexual relationships the analysis was $X^2_{obs} = 0.71$, $X^2_c = 5.99$, $df = 2$, at $P < 0.05$ level of significance (Appendix H).

This shows that, the results are not statistically significant. This may mean that some of the pupils do not have the skills to withstand sexual advances from the opposite sex.

While statistical analysis on whether pupils would encourage other pupils who left school to come back to school and not get married, was $X^2_{obs} = 175.66$, $X^2_c = 0.56$, $df = 2$, $P < 0.05$ (Appendix I). The results are statistically significant, indicating that pupils know the relevance of schooling and would encourage their friends not to get married.

However, when the contingency co-efficiency was calculated to determine the strength of significance it was found to be moderate.

The chi-square analysis on pupils' responses on whether a reward should be given to a pupil who refuses to join his/her friends in smoking or drinking alcohol, gave $X^2_{obs} = 3.64$, $X^2_c = 5.99$, $df = 2$, $P < 0.05$ (Appendix J).

This shows that, the results are not statistically significant. This may mean that the pupils are not aware of the dangers of smoking and drinking alcohol to their health and their academic performance. Meanwhile analysis of pupils responses on whether participating in life skills activities improved their academic performance, was $X^2_{obs} = 2.05$, $X^2_c = 5.99$, $df = 2$ (Appendix K). This shows that the results are not statistically significant, indicating that either life skills have not had an impact on academic performance of the pupils are not aware of the importance of life skills on academics.

The application of life skills by pupils was further analysed according to location and gender as shown in table 13(a) and (b).

13(a): Application of life skills by pupils in schools near camps

Item	Males			Females		
	Responses			Responses		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know (%)
3	90.0	4.4	5.6	73.1	16.4	10.4
4	73.3	18.9	7.8	70.1	16.4	13.4
5	66.7	27.8	5.6	77.6	10.4	11.9
6	63.3	23.3	13.3	64.2	29.9	6.0
7	40.0	43.3	16.7	32.8	47.8	19.4
8	58.9	34.4	6.7	49.3	44.8	6.0
9	84.4	11.1	4.4	86.6	7.5	6.0
10	40.0	52.2	7.8	41.8	49.3	9.0
12	82.2	8.9	8.9	83.6	4.5	11.9
13	85.6	12.2	2.2	86.6	9.0	4.5
14	43.3	47.8	9.0	64.4	28.9	6.7
15	36.7	55.6	7.8	29.9	64.2	6.0
16	17.8	80.0	0.2	6.0	92.5	1.5
17	78.9	14.4	6.7	92.5	4.5	3.0
18	76.7	15.6	7.8	86.6	6.0	7.5
19	74.4	15.6	10.0	80.6	16.4	3.0
22	62.2	30.0	7.8	44.8	34.3	20.9
24	86.7	7.8	5.6	94.0	4.5	1.5
25	27.8	66.7	5.6	4.5	88.1	7.5

13(b): Application of life skills by pupils in schools far from the camps

Item	Males			Females		
	Responses			Responses		
	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know (%)
3	91.9	7.2	0.9	85.9	9.1	5.1
4	69.4	23.4	7.2	48.5	40.4	11.1
5	75.7	18.0	6.3	59.6	25.3	15.2
6	64.0	26.1	9.9	56.6	28.3	15.2
7	46.8	30.6	22.5	33.3	39.4	27.3
8	60.4	28.8	10.8	61.6	26.3	12.1
9	80.2	13.3	4.5	81.8	10.1	8.1
10	43.2	46.8	9.9	49.5	42.4	8.1
12	89.2	6.3	4.5	81.8	11.1	7.1
13	83.8	11.7	4.5	85.9	7.1	7.1
14	41.4	53.2	5.4	27.3	58.6	14.0
15	36.0	49.5	14.4	49.5	49.4	11.1
16	28.8	63.1	8.1	29.3	67.7	3.0
17	74.8	19.8	5.4	63.6	29.3	7.1
18	82.0	15.3	2.7	69.7	19.2	11.1
19	73.0	17.1	9.9	76.8	15.2	8.1
22	39.6	43.2	17.1	45.5	42.4	12.1
24	77.5	13.5	9.0	79.8	13.1	7.1
25	23.4	71.2	5.4	39.4	51.5	9.1

From table 13(a) and (b) both the males (boys) and females (girls) in schools near camps and far from camps show understanding of life skills promoted by the schools; items 3, 9, 15, 6 and 24. However, the skills of friendship formation (items 3) seems to be well developed in boys than in girls, for instance 90.0% to 73.1% and 91.9% to 85.9% of boys and girls respectively agree that

books are shared during English lessons. However girls seem to be better at effective communication and problem solving item 16 and 24 because 80.0% to 92.5% and 63.1% to 67.7% then 77.5% to 79.8% and 86.7% to 94.0% respectively, of the boys and girls in schools near camps and far from camps conceded that debates are not a waste of time, albeit pupils far from camps do not seem to know the significance of debates as indicated by their low 'No' percentage responses. This could mean that debates are not seriously taken in schools far from camps.

On girl-boy relationships, the boys seem more assertive than girls, that a girl can be a friend to a boy without having sexual relationships (item 4). However girls in schools near camps seem to be more assertive than their counterparts in schools far from camps, with a 70.1% to 48.5% yes response respectively. This could mean a low development of skills of assertiveness among girls generally but more so amongst girls in schools far from camps.

The skills of making effective decisions notably decision making, critical thinking and problem solving, items, 5, 6, 10, 13, 18 and 22 seems to be fairly developed among males (boys) in schools near camps than boys far from camps. For instance 75.7% to 66.7% to and, 26.1% to 23.3% and 39.6% to 62.2% of boys in schools near camps and schools far from camps, items 5, 6 and 22, agree that pupils should settle disagreements through discussions and not fighting, that they would not blame pupils for giving up when work becomes difficult and that the best solution for pupils who steal is expulsion.

The situation among females is slightly different. Girls in schools far from camps seem better skilled in decision making than those near camps, with 77.6% to 59.6, 29.9 to 28.3% and 44.8% to 42.4% respectively for items 5, 6 and 22.

Generally females seem to observe dress code and prayers more than their male counterparts, although the females and males in schools far from camps are better than those in schools near camps. For instance 73.0% to 74.4% males and 76.8% to 80.6% females concede that their dress code has changed since getting involved in life skills activities and that prayers help one pass exams, items 19 and 21.

The proximity of pupils in schools near camps to trading centres and main roads expose them to the influence of the print media, videos and other people with different socio-economic background. This erodes their cultural norms and makes them adopt other lifestyles including dress code: pupils in schools far from camps owing to their locations in rural areas, live under strong traditional cultural norms, that demands among others decent dressing and where western life styles are still weak.

Items 14 and 25, which sought to establish pupils ways of coping with stress, indicates that most pupils have poor ways of managing stress. For instance, in items 14 and 25 respectively, 53.2% to 47.8% and 23.14% and 27.8% of males refuse that rewards should be given to pupils who accept that taking drugs like tobacco makes one feel better.

The number is almost similar for females in schools near camps with 58.6% and 39.4% for item 14 and 25 respectively. However females far from camps resent the idea of smoking and

drinking alcohol as indicated by their low positive response, at 28.9% and 4.5% for item 14 and 25 respectively.

The interpretation is that girls in schools far from camps, located in rural areas are keenly watched by the community that outlaws girls who smoke and drink as spoilt. Girls in schools near camps are exposed to more influences such as videos and interact with many people from different places, hence easily adopt other people's ways of life including drinking alcohol.

However, the skills of non-violent conflict resolution item 7 seems weak in males than in females. 46.8% to 40.0% males compared to 33.3% to 32.8% females in schools near camps and far from camps respectively agree that a pupil who does not hit back when hit is weak.

In a bid to clearly show the type of life skills developed among the learners responses were tabulated as follows:

Table 14: Pupils responses on lifeskills developed among learners

Item	Life skill being tested by the item	Pupils near camp			Pupils far from camp		
		Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know	Yes (%)	No (%)	I don't know
3	Friendship formation	83.4	9.6	7.0	84.7	10.8	4.5
4	Assertiveness	71.3	18.5	10.2	67.3	21.3	11.2
5	Problem solving	73.9	18.5	7.6	76.2	13.9	9.9
6	Decision making	65.6	24.8	9.6	67.7	21.5	10.8
7	Non violent conflict resolution	38.9	43.9	17.2	37.7	37.2	25.1
8	Coping with stress	54.8	38.2	7.0	65.5	25.6	9.0
9	Decision making	81.5	12.7	5.7	82.1	13.0	4.9
10	Creative thinking	42.0	49.7	8.3	41.3	50.2	8.5
11	Self awareness	59.9	28.7	11.5	57.0	33.2	9.9
12	Empathy	83.4	7.6	8.9	88.3	5.8	5.8
13	Decision making	86.6	9.6	3.8	87.9	8.1	4.0
14	Peer resistance	51.6	41.4	7.0	41.7	47.1	11.2
15	Interpersonal relations	33.1	58.6	8.3	41.3	43.9	14.8
16	Effective communication	14.6	84.7	0.6	25.6	68.2	6.3
17	Self esteem	90.4	4.5	5.1	84.3	12.6	3.1
18	Critical thinking	82.8	10.8	6.4	79.4	15.7	4.9
19	Self awareness	76.4	16.6	7.0	76.2	12.6	11.2
20	Coping with stress	83.4	8.9	7.6	67.3	21.1	11.7
21	Interpersonal relations	93.6	5.1	1.3	91.0	5.8	3.1
22	Problem solving	58.6	28.7	12.7	39.0	45.3	15.7
23	Interpersonal relations	77.7	17.2	5.1	65.5	22.4	12.1
24	Problem solving	90.4	5.7	3.8	85.2	9.9	4.9
25	Coping with stress	7.0	86.1	7.0	29.1	65.5	5.4

From table 13 and 14 above, it can be seen that the skills of knowing and living with one self especially, self esteem (item 7) is fairly developed among the learners in schools near camps and far from camps. However self awareness, assertiveness, coping with stress and emotions as

shown in items 4,8,11,19,20 and 25 are moderately developed among pupils both in schools near camps and far from camps, although pupils from schools far from camps show a slightly low development.

The skills of knowing and living with others; friendship formation and empathy, items 3 and 12 are better developed, while negotiation skills, non- violent conflict resolution, peer resistance and effective communication items 7,14,16 are only moderately developed. Mean while the skills of making effective decisions, problem solving and critical thinking are better developed, while decision making and creative thinking are just moderate. This could be the reason why schools near camps and far from camps emphasized discipline and boy-girl relationship.

Table 15(a): Shows teachers response on values of life skills education to pupils

Attribute	Teachers near camps						Teachers far from camps					
	EX(%)	VG(%)	G(%)	F(%)	B(%)	VB(%)	EX(%)	VG(%)	G(%)	F(%)	B(%)	VB(%)
Cooperation with fellow pupils	2.9	23.5	70.6	2.9	0	0	2.6	30.8	53.8	12.8	0	0
Academic performance	2.9	8.8	55.0	32.4	0	0	0	15.4	64.1	20.5	0	0
Boy-girl relationship	2.9	11.8	52.9	32.4	0	0	0	15.4	66.7	17.9	0	0
Concentrating on studies	5.9	11.8	44.1	38.2	0	0	0	0	23.1	53.8	23.1	0
God fearing	11.8	32.4	47.1	8.8	0	0	5.1	41.0	51.3	2.6	0	0
Openness	5.9	17.6	44.1	32.4	0	0	2.6	25.6	41.0	30.8	0	0
Discipline	5.9	23.5	52.9	17.6	0	0	2.6	10.3	71.8	15.4	0	0

EX = Excellent, VG = Very good, G = Good, F = Fair, B = Bad, VB = Very bad.

A comparative analysis of responses of teachers from schools near camps to teachers from schools far from camps shows that 70.6% to 53.8% of the teachers respectively, agree that life skills are good for instilling a sense of cooperation among pupils, while 50.0% to 64.1% of the

teachers affirm that life skills is good for academic performance. 52.9% to 66.7% of the teachers said life skills cultivates good boy-girl relationship. This is followed by 44.1% to 53.8% of the teachers who agree that life skills are good as it shows students the value of concentrating on studies. On God fearing 47.1% to 51.3% of the teachers confirm that it is good. While 52.9% to 71.8% of the teachers agree that life skills imparts discipline among the learners.

Therefore, whilst there are slight variations on the value of life skills among teachers. Life skills are generally good in instilling a sense of cooperation among learners, improving academic performance and bringing up God fearing young people, among other values.

To establish a statistical significance of teachers responses about the values of life skills education to pupils some items of part III of the teachers questionnaire were subjected to chi-square analysis, table 15(b) and (c) for teachers in schools near camps and far from camps respectively.

Table 15(b): Chi-square on teachers' responses on value of life skills education to pupils near camps.

Items	Responses						N	X ² obs	X ² cv	df	Sig.
	EX	VG	G	F	B	VB					
Cooperation	0.99	7.99	24.00	0.99	0	0	34	79.27	11.07	5	0.05
God fearing	4.01	11.02	16.01	2.99	0	0	34	37	11.07	5	0.05
Openness	2.00	5.98	14.99	11.02	0	0	34	34.11	11.07	5	0.05
Discipline	2.00	7.99	17.99	5.98	0	0	34	41.46	11.07	5	0.05

Total observed frequency	9	32.98	72.99	20.98	0	0	34	191.84	11.07	5	0.05
Total expected frequency	22.67	22.67	22.67	22.67	22.67	22.67	22.67				

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 191.84 \quad X^2_{\text{cv}} = 11.07 \quad C = 0.76$$

Table 15 (c): Chi-square on teachers responses about values of life skills to pupils far from camps

Items	Responses						N	X^2_{obs}	X^2_{cv}	df	Sig.
	EX	VG	G	F	B	VB					
Cooperation	1.01	12.01	20.98	4.99	0	0	39	84.17	11.07	5	0.05
God fearing	1.98	15.99	20.00	1.01	0	0	39	91.92	11.07	5	0.05
Openness	1.01	9.98	15.99	12.01	0	0	39	67.27	11.07	5	0.05
Discipline	1.01	4.02	28.00	6.01	0	0	39	119	11.07	5	0.05
Total observed frequency	5.01	42	84.97	24.02	0	0	156	362.36	11.07	5	0.05
Total expected frequency	26	26	26	26	26	26					

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 362.36 \quad X^2_{\text{cv}} = 11.07 \quad C = 0.83$$

Since X^2 is greater than X^2_{cv} at 0.05 level of significance, the results are significant. This means that life skills education is very valuable to pupils. To establish the strengths of the value of life skills to the pupils, Cramer's co-efficiency was calculated and found to be 0.76, for pupils near camps and 0.83 for pupils far from camps. This means that the influence is strong for both categories of pupils.

4.4 Challenges teachers face in promoting life skills among the learners

To test this objective items (e) and (f) of the teachers questionnaire and (g), (h), (j) and (k) on the headteachers interview guide were used. Items on the teachers questionnaire covered the following areas:

- i) Challenges faced in promoting life skills.
- ii) Suggested solutions to challenges faced: While items on the headteachers interview guide covered;
- iii) Challenges faced in promoting life skills.
- iv) Recommendations for the effective promotion of life skills.
- v) Major causes of pupils drop out of school.
- vi) Ways of reducing drop-out.

Table 16: Challenges faced by teachers in promoting life skills

Challenge	Teachers near camps		Teachers far from camps	
	No.	Ranking	No.	Ranking
Lack of funds	24	1	29	1
Negative peer pressure	21	2	22	5
Lack of time	19	3	27	2
Poor reading culture	18	4	18	6
Lack of interest among pupils	17	5	23	4
Media influence	16	6	09	8
Cultural influence	13	7	26	3
Communication problems	09	8	12	7
Total	137	8	166	8

As observed in the table above, lack of funds and time were the greatest challenge in the promotion of life skills in schools near camps and far from camps. This was followed by negative peer pressure and cultural influence in respective locations. Poor reading culture and lack of interest among pupils were the fourth challenges respectively. Whilst media influence

was the sixth challenge followed by cultural influence and lastly communication problems, in schools near camps. Poor reading culture was the sixth challenge followed by communication problems and lastly media influence in schools far from camps.

Therefore, whilst lack of funds and time are the greatest challenges in both schools near camps and far from camps, cultural influence seems to be another great challenge in schools far from camps compared to negative peer pressure in schools near camps.

Media influence is one of the great challenges in schools near camps. This is probably due to the location of the camps near trading centres and along main roads. These findings lends credence to the observation by headteachers that low interest among learners and some teachers, negative cultural influence, lack of funds and time, lack of reading materials, communication problems and the technique of teaching life skills as some of the challenges in the promotion of life skills education. Others included media influence, not examinable, low involvement of parents. Observed the headteachers. Item (f) on the teachers' questionnaire sought to establish teachers suggestions to challenges in table 16 above.

Table 17: Teachers suggestions on how to reduce challenges faced in the promotion life skills

Solution	Teachers near camps		Teachers far from camps	
	Frequency	Ranking	Frequency	Ranking
Allocate funds	28	1	30	2
Encourage parent/child interaction	25	2	27	3
Distribute life skills manuals	21	3	17	5

Encourage teachers to attend refresher courses	20	4	35	1
Invite counsellors	13	5	20	4
Total	107	5	129	5

Allocation of funds and encouraging parent/child interaction, featured the first and second respectively in the promotion of life skills in schools near camps, yet they were the second and third respectively in schools far from camps. The first being encouragement of teachers to attend refresher courses which though was the second last solution in schools near camps. The last suggested solution for schools near camps was inviting counsellors which featured the fourth in schools far from camps. The last solution in schools far from camps is distribution of life skills manuals which was the third in schools near camps.

Thus whilst allocation of funds and encouraging parent-pupil interactions rank highest among solutions to challenges in promoting life skills, encouraging refresher courses for teachers is the first solution for schools far from camps yet it is the second last for schools near camps. This shows that teachers in schools near camps are more exposed to life skills activities than the teachers in schools far from camps.

“There is need for refresher courses on lifeskills education, because the last time teachers in this area had lifeskills workshops was in 2007, organized by UNICEF.” Commented one of headteachers when asked about challenges faced in the promotion of lifeskills.

“Our major problem is funds and time for lifeskills activities. Sometimes the school even fails to send teachers for workshops due to lack of money for transport. The timetable is also crowded

with academic programmes that fitting in lifeskills activities become difficult, hence we rely on general assemblies.” Said one of the headteachers.

Asked whether they sometimes invite outsiders such as counsellors to talk to the pupils. One headteacher was rather surprised “my son, you call somebody, then get money to pay him/her from where? She inquired. It has a financial implication, which the school does not have.” Such remarks, partly explain the less involvement of counsellors in lifeskills programmes.

In addition, the headteachers noted, low attitude to education by some parents and some pupils, early marriages, poor sanitation, teenage pregnancy, drinking alcohol and drug abuse as some of the causes of school drop out. This shows less impact of life skills in schools and need to be strengthened.

4.5 Causes of pupils dropout from school

The headteachers gave a number of reasons for dropout of pupils from school. “Some parents and pupils here, view formal education as a waste of time, because they see some educated people not doing well materially and financially compared to some business men, some of whom dropped out in lower primary.” Said one headteacher about the attitude of locals towards education.

Some parent here still view a girl child as a source of bride wealth, as a result young girls are forced into marriage at a tender age. This practice has made the school miss very bright girls and something must really be done to stop this practice. Remarked one headteacher of a girls school.

Another major cause of dropout is unintended teenage pregnancy. Girls generally grow faster compared to boys. The illicit men and boys take advantage of this and lure them into early sexual activity, which at times results into pregnancy. Some pupils even just opt out of school once they see that they are mature. Commented a deputy headteacher in one of the schools far from camps. Many cases of child neglect/poor parental care were also reported.

The headteachers also noted many cases of child neglect or poor parental care. Some parents don't care about the well being of their children, hence fail to provide basic scholastic materials such as uniform, stationery in addition to feeding them well. "Prolonged lack of such materials makes the child lose interest in studies and dropout." Said one headteacher.

Related to child neglect is the raise in child labour. Owing to lack of some essential materials most children have gotten involved in money generating activities such as selling second hand clothes, dry fish on market days, making and selling charcoal and firewood, brickmaking, farming. Some activities become profiting and the child gradually loses interest in studies.

The rampant poverty amongst many parents is also blamed for parents failure to provide their children with even the least required materials such as stationery. "As you know many people relied on cattle for many of their socio-economic well being, including education, but once their animals were taken by rustlers and during the war, many people have never recovered and hence can not sustain their families." Explained one headteacher. Peer pressure was also cited as the cause of drop out." Married girls or boys out of school lure their friends still at school to get married or simply abandon school for some casual jobs.

Related to peer pressure is the increasing cases of young people involved in drinking alcohol and smoking. In a society where drinking the local brew-“Ajon” is taken as a socializing affair and coupled with lack of regulatory laws, many people including young school going children have taken into drinking and even smoking. Observed one headteacher when asked whether there were school children involved in drinking alcohol and smoking.

The headteachers also noted with great concern, the policy of automatic promotion of pupils, saying it was a contributing factor to dropouts in school. “Some children go to the next class when they have not mastered the subject matter in the preceeding class, as a result they continue to perform poorly and begin to see themselves as academically weak and lose interest in studies.” Observed one deputy headteacher.

Lack of midday meals, was also cited as a contributing factor not only to poor academic performance but also to increasing school dropouts. “Some parents insist that government feeds the children when at school, hence either stubbornly refuse to contribute the food ratio or are not able to do so” noted one headteacher. “And as you know without meals child can not concentrate well in class, this contributes to poor performance” he argued.

Children who are orphans are in most cases left to fend for themselves, a task that they are not prepared, given their tender age. This coupled with poverty makes such children lose interest in studies and hence dropout.

Some case of defilement which sometimes results in pregnancy or the boy fleeing the place in fear of arrest, was also reported as a cause for dropout. Some parents however settle it by making the boys parents pay or ‘forcing’ the two children to get married. Noted one of the headteacher.

The lack of proper latrines and urinals for boys and girls, in some schools was noted as contributing factor for dropout, especially for the girl child. The headteacher of the girls schools, being a parent herself and knowing the privacy girls at puberty age would wish to have advised schools especially mixed ones, to ensure proper sanitation for both boys and girls “otherwise most young girls can not stand the intimidation from boys” she remarked.

4.6 Suggestions to reduce school dropout

Based on the aforementioned causes for pupils dropout from school, the headteachers suggested the following as a measure to reduce school dropout.

With regard to negative attitude by some parents and children towards lifeskills and education in general, the headteachers called upon the local councils and other concerned bodies to sensitize the parents and the general community on the importance of lifeskills and education in general. “As for our part, we shall continue telling them about the importance of education in the parents-teachers association meetings, other fora and through the teachers and pupils. We hope the community shall come to appreciate lifeskills.” Remarkd one headteacher.

One headteacher suggested that young girls who are forced into early marriage need to be followed up. This will not only deter others from early marriage but also shows the concern

education institutions have for the girl child. She argued. But hastened to say the major problem though is lack of co-operation from parents some of whom pride in their girls getting married.

The headteachers also requested for adult education. “Most parents are illiterate but if they had some informal education they would change their attitude towards education and would also get involved in some gainful business”-observed one headteacher.

On early marriages and defilement, the headteachers called for stricken laws to deter such vices.

With regard to mid day meals, the headteachers appealed to government to take over the provision of meals to schools. “We get a lot of resistance from parents when asked to contribute food ratios some of whom think the food collected is used by teachers and headteacher.”

Explained one headteacher. The headteachers also called upon the concerned authorities to ban or monitor drinking of alcohol, video shows, arguing that many children were getting involved and hence neglecting studies. They also advised schools to form peer education committee/clubs to foster the promotion of lifeskills.

Related to formation of peer education clubs, was the need to invite mentors and other guests to talk to the children. However most schools visited feared to invite guest speakers saying it had a financial implication, “some of the guest speakers we invite would wish to have something at the end of the session, but given the limited funds, we find it difficult.” Observed one headteacher.

The headteachers also called upon government to empower parents financially with income generating activities, saying it would help parents provide their children with the basic educational materials.

The teachers, other community workers and parents were also called upon to become more friendly and have time for children. “Some parents are too busy for their children, while some

community workers are harsh. This kind of attitudes by adults leaves the child with no alternative but to seek help from peers, some of whom could be involved with bad groups. In such a case the child gets spoilt.” Noted one headteacher. The headteachers also called upon parents to cooperate with the schools with regard to the discipline of their children, saying that most parents do not respond when called to discuss issues pertaining their children.

With regard to child labour headteachers argued the concerned departments to check on the practice, arguing that most children waste a lot of school time on such activities, some of which are just exploitative.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction.

The aim of this study was to establish awareness and application of life skills in the selected primary schools in Kalaki County. The study also wanted to establish the challenges teachers face in promoting life skills development among the learners and how such challenges were being solved.

5.2 Pupil's awareness of life skills in selected primary schools in the county.

The study established that there is a significant awareness of life skills among teachers and pupils. However, whilst all teachers and headteachers in schools near camps and far from camps had heard of life skills and could name most of them, the pupils in schools near camps are more aware of life skills than pupils in schools far from camps.

Also the analysis of pupils awareness of life skills according to gender showed that the boys are more aware of life skills than girls. However the girls were generally more open to advice than boys. Many factors explain these state of affairs.

The study found out that headteachers and teachers in schools near camps were more involved in lifeskills programmes than their counterparts in schools far from camps. This concurs with the Ministry of Education and Sports/UNICEF (1997), findings that most of the work of school headteachers is connected with the ways and means of improving

academic standards, discipline, staff welfare and practically nothing in improving the lifeskills of pupils.

It was further established that pupils in schools near camps received class talks more often than did the pupils in schools far from camps. CARICOM and UNICEF (1999) noted that for effective skills-based health education and lifeskills, teachers need to employ methods in the classroom that let young people model, observe the skills. This observation is shared by Wilson et al (1992) and Tobler (1998) who argued that approaches to health education and lifeskills show that active participatory learning activities for students are the most effective methods of developing knowledge, attitudes and skills. Therefore the disparities in awareness of lifeskills between pupils in schools near camps and pupils in schools far from camps, may not only be due to the number of class talks given or the involvement of teachers but also the methodology used in delivering life skills. The teachers could have dwelt on information giving and lecture methods, in disregard of more child-centered methods such as dramatization, role play, discussions, UNESCO et al (2000) also noted that the most effective methods of skill development involved people in active, participatory learning experiences rather than passive ones. The implication of these findings is that headteachers and teachers in schools far from camps give little time to the promotion of lifeskills and in part explains why pupils in these schools were not very aware of life skills. It further explains why there is high dropout in such schools.

In addition, the study found that teachers and pupils in schools near camps had more access to lifeskills materials, such as straight talk news letters than it was the case with

teachers and pupils in schools far from camps. Teachers in schools far from camps relied mainly on materials supplied by the Ministry of Education and Sports and the centre coordinating tutors. Inaccessibility to adequate lifeskills materials by schools far from camps further explains the disparities in awareness of lifeskills between the pupils in the two locations.

Owing to the proximity of schools near camps to major roads and trading centres, they received more guest speakers from local government and Non-governmental organizations, NGOs such as the GEM and UNICEF, which not only provided scholastic materials, clothes, but also gave lifeskills materials. This further helped boost the promotion of lifeskills in such schools more than in schools far from the camps.

The study further established that assembly talks were the major means teachers used to promote lifeskills, followed by class meeting. More child centred methods like group discussions and house meetings were least considered. These findings agree with the observation by headteachers that pupils and teachers were positive to lifeskills programmes but were constrained by lack of time, coupled by lack of materials for teaching lifeskills. The implication is that lifeskills are given little time, because assemblies and class meetings usually take a short time, and assemblies are held at most, twice a week and quite often many issues are talked at the assemblies.

The researcher further found that the involvement of parents and invited counsellors/guests in the promotion of life skills among pupils was low. UNICEF and

(2001), Jemmott et al (1998) recommended the involvement of learners, parents and community workers in the design and implementation of school health programmes. They also noted that involving a large spectrum of participants makes them likely to demonstrate commitment to and ownership of the programme, which thus enhances sustainability and effectiveness.

While Donnell et al, (1998) argued that a curriculum combined with youth community service reduces risk behaviours such as fighting, early sexual behaviour and substance use more effectively than a curriculum alone.

A school is a small unit of a large community, thus involvement of other members of the community in the education of our children, would go along way in reducing vices in our society, such as early marriages, defilement, teenage pregnancies, negative attitude to education.

Vygotsky (1987) noted that new levels of understanding begin at an interpersonal level; originally between infant and an adult and then through continuous social interaction. This implies that the social environment of the child has a strong influence on his/her cognitive and effective skills and can be enhanced by more extensive, structured high quality interaction with others.

It was further established that important structures in the promotion of lifeskills such as career guidance, writers/debating clubs, though existing were not very active especially in schools far from camps, career guidance and writers/debating clubs not only instil lifeskills in pupils but also helps improve pupils academic performance. Under utilization

of such structures partly explains the declining academic performance of pupils in these schools especially at PLE (Appendix L).

5.3 Learners application of lifeskills

The study established that pupils generally had understanding of lifeskills but variations existed in application. For instance pupils in schools near camps had better understanding and knowledge of most lifeskills and exhibited their application than pupils in schools far from camps. For example, relatively more pupils in schools far from camps indicated that competitions among schools cause problems and that debates are a waste of time. This shows lack of knowledge of the importance of competitions and debates in schools, but also shows that such structures are not very active in these schools. The use of assembly talks as a venue for promoting lifeskills is in direct contrast with the participatory teaching learning methods identified by CARICOM (2000) and recommended by WHO (1997) which include, brainstorming, group discussion, role-playing, story telling, debates and conduction audio-visual activities.

The above findings are supported by *Cele et la* (1996), who in the baseline study of the level of life skills of Uganda's primary schools stated that, life skills, was not something teachers and school administrators considered important for the children, but rather academic learning and vocational education. The study also found out that the level of psychosocial skills of skills of the children was generally low. The need to focus on such skills as critical thinking, decision making and other cognitive skills was identified as urgent. The study further noted that Uganda is a country that is transforming itself fast

and also becoming more urbanised. Such developments, cause the loosening of the family and community ties, leaving a lot of responsibility to the child and the school.

Variations in the understanding and application of lifeskills also existed across the gender divide. The boys showed more understanding and application of the skills of friendship formation and assertiveness than the girls. However, the girls seem to be better at effective communication and problem solving than the boys. Compared according to location, girls and boys in schools near camps were more assertive than their counterparts in schools far from camps.

Generally the skills of coping with emotions, empathy, decision making, problem solving, assertiveness, conflict resolutions, coping with stress, peer resistance are not well developed among the pupils. However the boys in schools near camps have more developed skills of decision making, critical thinking and problem solving than boys in schools far from camps. While girls have better conflict resolution skills than the boys. This findings confirms the observation by teachers that a proportionately large number of school going children are involved in drinking alcohol and smoking and the headteachers observation that many girls dropout of the school due to early marriages and an unintended pregnancies.

Drinking alcohol and smoking by the youth is further supported by a survey done by the Comboni Samaritan (2008), a catholic based agency in Gulu which found that 95.7% of the 448 youth interviewed within the age bracket of 14-35 years were reported taking

alcohol, while 56.9% were involved in both drug abuse and alcoholism. Reasons given for taking alcohol and drugs, ranged from social influence, getting courage and to keep warm.

According to Government of Uganda (1994) and World Bank (1993), brewing alcohol can be harmful to a child's education. They reported that children and adolescents in household that brew and sell alcohol are likely to start drinking which often affect their school attendance, performance and participation.

Meanwhile the GOU/UNICEF (1997) and child Link (1996) assert that parents who are heavy drinkers often direct income away from critical household needs including money for school fees. As a result children tend to lack money for scholastic and personal needs. Which in the long run make him/her to dropout of school.

However, Tezifa (1989) noted that, while there are many reasons for youth involvement in drug and substance use, the major reason for youth still at school is to be accepted by peers. She further asserts that as the child grows older he/she moves away to the peer group. The peer group has considerable influence on the behaviour and attitude in general of the child.

Therefore with low development of skills of peer resistance, assertiveness, problem solving, coping with emotions and stress among the learners, it is not difficult to comprehend why some pupils are involved in drinking alcohol and smoking.

With less developed skills of peer resistance, coping with emotions and stress its not difficult to understand why according to headteachers and teachers some pupils are involved in taking alcohol and smoking especially among pupils in schools near camps. This is in agreement with Cheryl et al (1992) who noted that early attempts at prevention of adolescent use of drugs and consumption of alcohol assumed that adolescents lacked information about the negative effects of alcohol and drugs, and that if students were sufficiently aware of their negative consequences, they would make rational decisions not to drink or smoke. The findings of the study however proved the contrary. It concluded that prevention strategies should not only focus on information and knowledge but include acquisition of specific social skills, such as interpersonal relationship, peer resistance, non-conflict resolution skills.

The study further established that, there was continued decline in performance at P.L.E in most schools visited. This is in part explained by the low development of skills of effective communication, problem solving, critical and creative thinking. Elias et al (1991) lifeskills and skills based health education improve academic performance.

With low development in the aforementioned skills, pupils can not logically express themselves and thus fail to comprehend more high order questions.

It was also discovered that structures and programmes tailored to the promotion of lifeskills such as class talks, house meetings, career guidance, debating clubs, music and drama clubs, health education programmes existed in most of schools visited. However

despite the existence of such vital structures, they are under utilized especially in schools far from camps. This is further supported by the request by both the teachers and headteachers for the provision of lifeskills manuals to schools.

By observation, the researcher could see some straight talk news letters, PIASCY charts, and charts by UNICEF, on the walls in the staff rooms, headteachers' offices in some of the schools visited. However when one of the headteacher was asked as to how they ensured pupils access to such news letters, she said, the teachers either take them to the class during lesson time or the pupils could borrow them. But knowing the restrictions schools place on pupils visiting the staffroom, such vital information does not usually reach most pupils. The pupils therefore end up missing vital information meant for them.

On the whole the skills of knowing and living with one self are just moderately developed among the pupils both in schools near camps and far from camps, except self esteem, which is fairly developed. The skills of knowing and living with others especially friendship formation and empathy are better developed. The rest such as non-violent conflict resolution, peer resistance, effective communication are only moderately developed, whilst the skills of effective decision making are not developed, save for problem solving, critical thinking which are fairly developed. With low development of vital lifeskills, the pupils are prone to indulge in bad practices such as early sexual indulgence, early marriages, drinking alcohol and smoking. These lead to absenteeism, unintended pregnancy, poor academic performance and high rate of school drop out.

With regard to the value to lifeskills to learners most teachers were unanimous that lifeskills are good as it instils a sense of cooperation and discipline to the learners, improves academic performance, cultivates good boy-girl relationships and good for bringing up God-fearing young people. The impact of lifeskills was however stronger amongst pupils in schools far from camps than among pupils in schools near camps. Thus if the teachers and headteachers in schools far from camps could step up the use and promotion of life skills, coupled with provision of life skills materials by Ministry of Education and Sports and NGOs, the situation could be better improved.

5.4 Challenges teachers face in promoting lifeskills development among the learners.

The study found out that lack of funds and time are the greatest challenges faced by teachers in the promotion of lifeskills in both schools near camps and far from camps. Owing to lack of funds, some schools can not even facilitate some of their teachers to attend some refresher courses conducted by NGOs such as GEM. Observed one headteacher.

Mangrulkor et al (2001) reported that; insufficient infrastructure for teacher training, lack of quality teaching materials and participatory methods as some of the barriers to success of skills based health education and lifeskills. This line of thought is shared by Kann et al (1995) who noted that various individuals involved in skills based health education must be trained to ensure successful implementation of such programmes. Trained educators observed Kann, are more likely than those who are not specifically trained in a given learning area to implement the programme using effective high quality teaching and learning methods.

On lack of time, one teacher reported that the overloaded teaching timetable, coupled with the pressure from the administration for teachers to complete the syllabi early enough, renders the practice and teaching of lifeskills almost impossible. These findings are in agreement with a base line study by Cele et al (1996) on the levels of lifeskills of Uganda's primary schools children. According to the report, lifeskills were not considered by teachers and school administrators as important for the children, but rather academic learning and vocation education.

The implication is that even with the availability of funds and time, the schools could probably channel such funds to other school programmes other than for the promotion of lifeskills and until the system of education is changed from being examination oriented or lifeskills taught and examined, schools may not devote enough time to lifeskills education.

However, whilst negative peer pressure and poor reading culture, were among the top most factors faced by teachers in schools near camps, cultural influence and lack of interest among pupils ranked among the most factors hindering the promotion of lifeskills in schools far from camps. The negative peer pressure and poor reading culture among pupils in schools near camps could be attributed to the influence of the surrounding environment. Most schools near camps are found in trading centres and along main roads. Such areas have people of different socio-economic backgrounds, have access to different modes of communication and entertainment, that affects pupils concentration on studies.

Far from camps the cultural influence of the natives is a strong factor to reckon with. This waters down pupils interest on lifeskills, a practice some people view as foreign and meant to replace their cultural practices.

This is in line with Jessor and Jessor (1977) who asserts that adolescents behaviour (including risk behaviour) is the product of complex interactions between people and their environment. “An individual’s values, beliefs and attitudes and the perceptions of friends and family members influence behaviour.” They observed. To this end they recommend the skills of critical thinking, decision making, effective communication and negotiation.

The teachers also cited lack of lifeskills materials, low involvement of parents in school issues, pertaining education of their children, high cases of child labour thus rampant absenteeism, early marriages and school dropouts as bottle necks in the promotion of lifeskills.

5.5 Conclusions:

In light of the preceding data presentation, analysis and discussion of the results the following conclusions obtain;

1. Headteachers, teachers and pupils are aware of lifeskills. However, despite of a significant level of awareness of lifeskills some variations exist;
 - a) The pupils from schools near camps are more aware than pupils from schools far from camps and the boys are more aware of lifeskills than the girls hence the need to bridge the gap.

- b) The headteachers and teachers in schools far from camps are less involved in the promotion of lifeskills than their counterparts in schools near camps. Consequently few class talks are conducted in schools far from camps than in schools near camps.
 - c) Structures tailored for the promotion of lifeskills such as debating clubs, career guidance and counselling are currently inactive especially in schools far from camps.
 - d) Schools especially those far from camps have inadequate lifeskills manuals.
2. With regard to application of lifeskills the following conclusions were made;
- a) The level of understanding and knowledge of lifeskills among pupils is still low, especially in schools far from camps and among girls.
 - b) Certain vital lifeskills such as non conflict resolution, peer resistance, coping with emotions and stress, decision making and effective communication are less developed in both boys and girls.
 - c) There is less involvement of parents, counselors/guests and other stakeholders in school activities and in the promotion of lifeskills.
 - d) Lifeskills are valuable component in a school setting especially in instilling co-operation and discipline to the learners, cultivating good boy-girl relationship and moulding God-fearing young generation.
3. On the challenges teachers face in the promotion of lifeskills, the under mentioned conclusions were drawn.

- a) The greatest challenges teachers face are lack of funds and time for lifeskills education, negative peer pressure, low interest among pupils and cultural influence.
- b) The schools are also faced with inadequate lifeskills materials.
- c) Involvement of some pupils in drinking alcohol child neglect/poor parental care, lack of midday meals, early sexual involvement and marriage also pose a great challenge to promotion of lifeskills.
- d) Other challenges include, involvement of pupils in petty jobs (child labour), rampant poverty, negative attitude to education by some parents and less manpower in some schools.

5.6 Recommendations

From the preceding discussions and conclusions, the following recommendations are made.

1. With regard to lifeskills awareness by pupils and teachers.
 - a) All teachers should be involved in the promotion of lifeskills among pupils, so as to ensure adequate attention to all pupils.
 - b) There is need to supply schools especially those far from camps with lifeskills education materials so as to expose more pupils to lifeskills activities.
 - c) Academics should be balanced with extra-curricular activities involving use of structures like debating club, music and drama clubs, health and writers clubs that are child centred for promotion of lifeskills.

- d) Refresher courses for teachers should be encouraged and supported by either inviting a resourceful person or facilitating teachers to attend the course elsewhere.
2. The following are recommended with regard to application of lifeskills by pupils;
- a) The parents and other stakeholders including the medical personnel need to be brought on board to help in the promotion of lifeskills among young people.
 - b) The Ministry of Education & Sports or individual schools could consider introducing sex education.
 - c) Similarly, peer education committee/clubs, peace clubs could be created and where possible invite mentors and other guests to talk to pupils.
 - d) Consumption of alcohol and smoking by teenagers should be discouraged through sensitizing them about the dangers of alcohol and smoking or the local government enacts by-laws to stop the youth from consuming alcohol.
 - e) Parent-teacher, pupil-teacher and parent-pupil interactions should be encouraged, through school visitations, parent-teacher associations, extra-curricular competitions in which parents could be invited. Through such interactions the two parties would appreciate the importance of education and in particular lifeskills.
 - f) Structures such as debating clubs, writers clubs, health and straight talk clubs that promote lifeskills should be put to maximum use, through regular practice, competitions etc.
 - g) A more focused lifeskills education programme for pupils in war disturbed areas could be drawn by establishing the common psychological problems pupils face.

3. On the challenges faced by teachers in the promotion of lifeskills the recommendations are;
- a) Lifeskills programmes either be allocated special time on the teaching timetable or be integrated in the teaching/learning process and be examined, or better still a core lifeskills education subject be introduced in the school curriculum
 - b) The government should put in place strict laws against practices such as early marriages, child labour and child neglect, defilement and make intensive follow-up of girls who go for early marriages using the local councils and in collaboration with police.
 - c) The Ministry of Education and Sports should step up its Supervisory role on the progress of lifeskills education by for instance forming lifeskills committees/clubs in schools and also fund the life skill programmes.
 - d) The government should consider increasing capitation grants to primary schools to enable them run some activities such as refresher courses for teachers purchase exercise books for pupils and or provide meals for all pupils, but also institute measures to check on hidden costs charged by schools such as food ratios.
 - e) In a bid to cultivate the culture of reading and writing, writing and debating competitions could be introduced and supported in the primary schools.
 - f) There is need to empower the parents economically through some income generating activities. This will not only go along way to reduce levels of poverty but also enable parents provide their children with the basic school requirements.

Suggestions for further research

The following are areas that the researcher feels require for the research.

1. Establish the impact of lifeskills education in primary schools.
2. Assess the feasibility, relevance and acceptability of the program among teachers and learners.
3. Assess the impact of life skills;
 - a) In semi urban primary schools.
 - b) Rural schools

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APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

APPENDIX B

Interview Guide for Headteachers

Research on the effectiveness of life skills in primary schools

Interview questions for Headteachers.

The information given shall be kept confidential.

- 1 (a) What major life skills does your school promote among the learners?
- (b) How does the school promote those life skills you mentioned?
- (c) i) Do you think the introduction of life skills has had any significant contributions to the school. Give reasons.
- (d) How does the situation compare before and after the insurgency?
- (e) What is the pupils' attitude towards life skills programmes?
- (f) What is the teachers' attitude to life skills programme?
- (g) What challenges do you face in promoting life skills programmes?
- (h) What recommendations would you give for the effective promotion of life skills in primary schools?
- (i) Would you please give any other comment in relation to the performance of life skills education since its introduction?
- (j) What in your view, are the major causes of pupils drop-out of school.
- (k) Suggest ways of reducing cases of dropout.

Thank You

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire for Teachers

This questionnaire is an attempt to find ways of improving education and especially life skill programmes in schools. Please, complete the following section.

Name of school:.....Zone.....

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

You are kindly requested to respond to the following statements by filling in the spaces provided.

The information you give shall be kept confidential.

PART 1

1 (a) Have you ever heard of life skills education (Please tick () the option of your choice.

Yes No

(b) If ☐ from who? ☐

Ministry of education and sports ☐
Straight talk news letters ☐

Visiting counselors ☐

Others (specify).....

(c) What life skills do you as a teacher promote in your pupils? Rank them by putting 1st ---10th e.t.c according to how you feel they are developed/ promoted.

Decision making	<input type="checkbox"/>	Creative thinking	<input type="checkbox"/>	Critical thinking	<input type="checkbox"/>
Self esteem	<input type="checkbox"/>	Effective communication	<input type="checkbox"/>	Coping with emotions	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coping with stress	<input type="checkbox"/>	Negotiation skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	Problem-solving	<input type="checkbox"/>
Empathy	<input type="checkbox"/>				

(d) How do you try to promote those life skills in your pupils? (Tick one or more)

Invited guests/counselors	<input type="checkbox"/>	Group discussions	<input type="checkbox"/>	Assembly talks	<input type="checkbox"/>
House meetings	<input type="checkbox"/>	Class meetings	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Others.....					

(e) What challenges do you face in promoting life skills

Lack of interest among pupils	<input type="checkbox"/>	Lack of funds	<input type="checkbox"/>
Negative peer pressure	<input type="checkbox"/>	Communication problems	<input type="checkbox"/>
Media influence	<input type="checkbox"/>	Lack of time	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

Cultural influence

Poor reading culture

(f) Suggest ways by which the challenges you mentioned could be solved.

Allocate funds

Encourage parent/child interaction

Distribute the life skills manual ☐

Invite counsellors

Encourage teachers to attend refresher courses ☐

Others(specify).....

(g) What structure / programmes are available at school to promote life skills in your school.

Sports activities

Senior woman and male teacher

Writer/ debating clubs

encourage teacher- pupil meetings

Office of carrier and guidance

Invite parents of indiscipline students

PART II:

You are requested to respond to the following statements by putting a circle around or tick () the answer that best represents your feelings.

Select your responses as follows;

Circle SA- If you strongly (very much) agree with the statement

A- If you agree with the statement

PA - If you partly agree with the statement

D- If you disagree with the statement

SD- If you strongly disagree with statement

(i) The introduction of life skills helps to curb cases off indiscipline among pupils.

SA A PA D SD

(ii) It is a must for teachers to be involved in co-curricular activities.

SA A PA D SD

(iii) Career and guidance programmes are very active at school.

SA A PA D SD

(iv) An increasingly large/ big number of school age children are involved in drinking alcohol and smoking.

SA A PA D SD

(vii) The school encourages straight talk programmes without reservation

SA A PA D SD

(viii) The Head teacher supports the promotion of life skills in addition to other activities.

SA A PA D SD

PART III

APPLICATION OF LIFE SKILLS

Please respond to the following values regarding the influence of life skills programmes to pupils by ticking the options of your choice.

Value	influence					
	EX	VG	G	F	B	VB
Cooperation with fellow pupils						
Discipline						
Openness						
Academic Performance						
Boy-girl relationship						
God fearing						
Concentrating on studies						

EX=Excellent

VG= Very Good

G=Good

F=Fair

B=Bad

VB= Very Bad

Thank You

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire for Pupils

School:.....Class:.....

Age:.....Sex:.....

This is a study research and NOT a test. You are therefore requested / asked to answer/ respond to the following statements / questions by putting a tick () on the option which you think is the most correct. The information you give shall be kept secret.

SECTION I: LIFE SKILLS AWARENESS

1(a) Have you ever heard of life skills

Yes ☐

No ☐

(b) If yes from who? (You can tick one or more of the following)

Ministry of Education and Sports ☐

Invited counsellors/ guests ☐

Straight talk newsletter ☐

Parents ☐

Teachers ☐

Reading ☐

Others (name them).....

2.(a) Are class talks given to you?

Yes ☐

No ☐

(b) If yes, what are the talks about? (You can tick one or more)

Academics ☐

Co-curricular activities ☐

Boy-girl relationship ☐

Discipline ☐

Others (name them).....

(c) If yes, how often are the talks given.

Once a week ☐

Month ☐

After two weeks ☐

Twice a term ☐

SECTION II

11. Most pupils know what is good for them and should be given little or no guidance/ help.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

20. Co- curricular activities are a better way to relax the body after a busy working day.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

21. Prayers help pupils pass exams

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

23. Bulling and teasing fellow pupils is an example of indiscipline.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

APPLICATION OF LIFE SKILLS

You are kindly requested to respond to the following statements by drawing a circle around or tick the answer that best represents your feelings.

3. During an English lesson, pupils are encouraged to share the few textbooks provided

- a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

4. A girl can be a friend to a boy without having sexual relationships

- a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

5. Pupils should settle any disagreements through discussions and not fighting.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

6. I would not blame a pupil who gives up when work becomes too difficult for him/her.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

7A pupil who does not hit back when he is hit is weak.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

8. When examinations are nearing , our school helps pupils to cope with the pressure.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

9. The Head teacher invites parents of indiscipline children to school.

- a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

10. A pupil who tries to solve his/ her own problems is making a mistake.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

12. When a fellow pupil is un happy I try to make him/her happy.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

13. I would encourage a pupil who left school to come back to school and not to get married.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

14. A reward should be given to a pupil who refuses to join his/her friends in smoking or drinking alcohol.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

15 Competitions amongst schools cause problems.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

16 Debates at school is a waste of time

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

17. I have turned away from my bad friends ever since I learnt about life skill activities.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

18. My academic performance has improved ever since I begun participating in life skills activities.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

19. My way of dressing has changed ever since I got involved in life skills activities.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

22. The best solution for pupils who steal is expulsion from school.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

24. Pupils should be encouraged to compete for leadership positions at schools

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

25. Taking drugs like tobacco makes one feel better.

a) Yes ☐ b)No ☐ c) I don't know ☐

Thank You

APPENDIX E

Pupil's awareness of lifeskills

Awareness of life skills	Near camp	Far from camps	Total
Aware	157 ^(151.6)	210 ^(215.4)	367
Not aware	0 ^(5.4)	13 ^(7.6)	13
Total	157	223	380

$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 9.53$, $df = 1$, $P < 0.05$, $X^2_c = 3.84$ (obtained from the chi square tables).

Calculation

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = \sum \frac{(157-151.6)^2}{151.6} + \frac{(210-215.4)^2}{215.4} + \frac{(0-5.4)^2}{5.4} + \frac{(13-7.6)^2}{7.6}$$

$$0.19 + 0.14 + 5.5 + 3.8 = 9.53$$

$$X^2_c = 3.84$$

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} > X^2_c$$

APPENDIX F

Awareness of pupils of what is good for them

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	94 ^(91.31)	45 ^(49.17)	18 ^(16.53)	157
Far from camp	127 ^(129.69)	74 ^(69.83)	22 ^(23.47)	223
Total	221	119	40	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 0.96, \text{ df} = 2, P < 0.05, X^2_C = 5.99, C=0.05$$

Calculations

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = \sum \frac{(94-91.31)^2}{91.31} + \frac{(45-49.17)^2}{49.17} + \frac{(18-16.53)^2}{16.53} + \frac{(127-129.69)^2}{129.69} + \frac{(74-69.83)^2}{69.83} + \frac{(22-23.47)^2}{23.47}$$

$$0.35 + 0.13 + 0.06 + 0.25 + 0.09 = 0.96$$

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 0.96$$

$$X^2_C = 5.99$$

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} < X^2_C$$

Calculation of contingency co efficiency to ascertain the strength

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{0.96}{380 + 0.96}} = 0.05$$

APPENDIX G

Co-curricular activities are a better way to relax the body

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	131 ^(116.09)	14 ^(25.20)	12 ^(15.7)	157
Far from camp	150 ^(164.90)	47 ^(35.79)	26 ^(22.30)	223
Total	281	61	38	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 13.23, \text{ df} = 2, X^2_C = 5.99, P < 0.05, C = 0.18 \text{ low}$$

APPENDIX H

A girl can be a friend to a boy with sexual indulgence

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	111.9 ^(108.3)	29.0 ^(31.8)	16.0 ^(16.9)	157
Far from camp	150.1 ^(153.8)	47.9 ^(45.1)	24.9 ^(24.00)	223
Total	262	76.9	40.9	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 0.71, \quad X^2_C = 5.99, \quad df = 2$$

APPENDIX I

Whether pupils would encourage others who left the school to come back and not to get married

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	135.9 ^(137.1)	15.9 ^(13.7)	5.9 ^(6.1)	157
Far from camp	196.0 ^(78.6)	18.1 ^(19.5)	8.9 ^(8.7)	223
Total	331.9	33.2	14.8	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 175.66, \quad C = 0.56, \quad df = 2, \quad P < 0.05, \quad X^2_C = 5.99$$

APPENDIX J

A reward should be given to a pupil who refuses to drink alcohol or smoke

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	81.0 ^(71.9)	64.9 ^(70.2)	10.9 ^(14.9)	157
Far from camp	92.9 ^(102.1)	105.0 ^(99.8)	24.9 ^(21.1)	223
Total	174	170	36	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 3.64, df = 2, X^2_C = 5.99$$

APPENDIX K

My academic performance improved ever since I begun participating in life skills activities

Location of pupils	Responses			
	Yes	No	I don't know	Total
Near camp	129.9 ^(126.8)	16.9 ^(21.4)	10.1 ^(8.9)	157
Far from camp	177.1 ^(180.2)	35.0 ^(30.5)	10.9 ^(12.3)	223
Total	307	51.9	21	380

$$X^2_{\text{obs}} = 2.05, df = 2, P < 0.05, X^2_C = 5.99$$

APPENDIX L

PLE performance for three of the sampled schools from 2000-2007

a) Otuboi Township Primary School

YEAR	DIV.I	DIV.II	DIV.III	DIV.IV	TOTAL PASS	GRAND TOTAL	PERCENTAGE PASS
2000	00	12	08	10	30	35	86
2001	00	15	18	04	37	41	90
2002	00	09	14	11	34	42	81
2003	00	09	05	07	21	43	49
2004	00	10	13	13	36	41	88
2005	00	12	18	05	35	35	100
2006	00	20	02	01	23	23	100
2007	04	56	09	01	70	71	99

b) Otuboi Church Primary School

YEAR	DIV.I	DIV.II	DIV.III	DIV.IV	TOTAL PASS	GRAND TOTAL	PERCENTAGE PASS
2000	00	05	08	04	17	19	89
2001	00	21	11	00	32	33	97
2002	00	06	08	04	18	25	72
2003	00	00	01	03	04	25	16
2004	00	04	01	06	11	17	64
2005	00	07	07	04	18	30	60
2006	00	14	19	12	45	50	90
2007	00	09	06	06	21	24	88

c) Lwala Boys Primary School.

YEAR	DIV.I	DIV.II	DIV.III	DIV.IV	TOTAL PASS	GRAND TOTAL	PERCENTAGE PASS
2000	00	05	13	02	20	22	91
2001	00	20	02	02	24	25	96
2002	01	05	08	03	17	22	77
2003	00	04	01	03	08	20	40
2004	00	05	05	04	14	18	78
2005	01	13	04	02	20	22	91
2006	00	17	03	00	20	20	100
2007	01	32	01	00	34	34	100