INFLUENCE OF 2007 POST ELECTION VIOLENCE LEVEL ON EMOTIONAL WELLBEING AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN NAKURU COUNTY, KENYA

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been previously presented for the award of a degree in this or any other university.

Sign _____   _____

Lydiah Njeri Muchai   Date

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Recommendation

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors.

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DEDICATION

To God the Father, creator and saviour from whom I live and continue to cherish, love, favour, strength and guidance. To my husband James, whose understanding, love, commitment and encouragement have been a source of hope and encouragement. To my children: Victor, Gideon, Purity and Charity for their unfailing inspiration and anchor to hold on. In all these accomplishment, may the name of the Lord Jesus Christ be praised.

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ABSTRACT

Political violence has negative influences on peoples' wellbeing. The emotional wellbeing of people is of great significance if they are to remain healthy. This is particularly so with the 2007 Post-Election Violence (PEV) that was experienced in Kenya. Nakuru County was one of the areas that were affected by 2007 PEV. The study aimed at establishing the influence of PEV level on emotional wellbeing and academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County, Kenya. Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi districts were adversely affected. The 2007 PEV claimed about 1,200 lives, others got injured and over 350,000 got displaced while property of unknown value was destroyed. Among the displaced were 1331 students from Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi. An *ex-post-facto* causal comparative research design was utilised in this study. Nakuru County had 210 secondary schools with a population of 12,189 form four students and 210 teacher counsellors. Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi had 75 secondary schools and a population of 6,380 form four students and 75 teacher counsellors. Purposive sampling was used to select the 3 districts that were adversely affected by PEV. Simple random sampling was used to select 187 boys and 173 girls for the study. Two questionnaires were used to collect data from the students and teacher counsellors. The instruments were pilot tested using 30 students and 30 counsellors from Naivasha District, that experienced similar events. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to establish the reliability coefficients of the research instruments. The instruments were considered reliable after they yielded reliability coefficients of 0.72 and 0.76 respectively. Frequencies, percentages and means were used to analyse descriptive statistics while ANOVA was used to establish the influence of PEV on emotional wellbeing and academic performance of the students. The t-Test was used to determine gender differences in emotional wellbeing and academic performances. . All the hypotheses were tested at a 0.05 level of significance. Data was analysed with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 17.0 for windows. The study reported that the 2007 PEV led to increased emotional concerns such as anxiety, low self-esteem and lowered academic performance among the secondary school students. It was established that the female students were more affected emotionally than their male counterparts. There were no statistically significant gender differences in academic performance. The research recommended that the secondary school students who experienced PEV be provided with more enhanced counselling services. There is need for the Ministry of Education to avail more finances for guidance and counselling departments and enhance security.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
CIPEV	:	Commission of Inquiry into Post-Election Violence in Kenya.
CITK	:	Commission of Inquiry into Tribal Clashes in Kenya
DEO	:	District Education Officer
GCSE	:	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GOK	:	Government of Kenya
GPA	:	Grade Point Average
HIV	:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IDP	:	Internally Displaced Person.
IQ	:	Intelligence Quotient
KCPE	:	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE	:	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
MOE	:	Ministry of Education
MOEST	:	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NACOSTI	:	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
PEV	:	Post-Election Violence
PTSD	:	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for Social Science
UK	:	United Kingdom
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WHO	:	World Health Organization

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Violence is the expression of physical or verbal force against others or the use of a compelling action against one's will (Wainryb & Pasupathi, 2007). It is the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against a person or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm or deprivation (Ahmad, 2010). The definition relates to the intentionality in the committing of an act, irrespective of the outcome it produces. Globally, violence accounts for the lives of more than 1.5 million people annually. Out of this, just over 50% is due to suicide, 35% due to homicide, and over 12% as a direct result of war or some other form of conflict. For each single death due to violence, there are dozens of hospitalisations, hundreds of emergency department visits, and thousands of doctors' appointments (Andrews, Rose & Johnson 2011). Furthermore, violence often has lifelong consequences on the victims' physical and mental health and social functioning.

Political violence has occurred in many parts of the world. The war in Iraq has resulted in the death of thousands of people and turned over 2,000,000 people into refugees (International Herald Tribunal, 2006). In Rwanda, the tribal conflict between the Hutu and Tutsi in 1994 led to the genocide of 800,000 people within a hundred days (Bernett, 2009). Similarly, the civil war in Somalia has killed over 21,000 people and caused immense displacement of people (Munene, 2011). The election dispute that brought about the post-election violence in Kenya appears to be bringing similar conflicts in the region as witnessed in Ivory Coast and the 'Walk to Work' protest in Uganda (Matumbo & Mwaniki, 2011).

Kenya is a land of contrasts. This is not only true of the physical, geographical and climatic conditions of the land, but also in the social and cultural characteristics of its people. These unique circumstances which had in the past endangered national pride, unity in diversity and tribal harmony, have regrettably in recent times been the cause of political and ethnic based violence (Commission of Inquiry into Post-Election Violence in Kenya (CIPEV), 2008).

Election-related violence in Kenya has been experienced since 1991 and has been a sad chapter in the history of Kenya. Such violence has resulted in considerable loss of lives and injury to persons and destruction of property, it has caused fear, suspicion, mistrust and

insecurity among the general population of the Republic; it has inhibited the progress towards social cohesion and the integration of the society; it has been detrimental to public peace, national tranquillity, law and order, human rights and the rule of law which are the cornerstone of economic and social development (Commission of inquiry into Tribal Clashes in Kenya (CITCK) 2002).

The CITCK (2002) recommended a number of measures to put an end to election related violence. Those listed are:

   i)   The police and provincial administration to take firm and drastic action to prevent election related conflict.

   ii)   Social leaders, political leaders, security, police and administration services to shun from incitement.

   iii)   The government to embark on an ambitious programme to issue land title documents to all people who were either allocated land by the government or who bought the same from previous owners.

   iv)   All those displaced from their farms during election related conflict should be identified and be assisted to resettle back on their farms and appropriate security arrangements made for their peaceful stay thereon.

   v)   Discontinue tribally-based settlements

   vi)   Educate all residents of the places where election related conflicts occurred.

   vii)   Improve infrastructure in those areas where cattle rustling was a problem in order to improve mobility and communication in tracking down stolen livestock.

   viii)   To deal with incitement firmly especially from the politicians.

   ix)   To delink police force from the provincial administration and be made independent (p.46)

All these recommendations were not acted upon by the government and the report was only made public after Human Rights activists demanded its release six years later (CIPEV, 2008).The failure to act on these recommendations could have fuelled PEV that was experienced in 2008.

The CIPEV (2008) was set to establish and analyse the extent of 2007 post-election violence and made the following observations about post-election violence;

   i)   The post-election violence had a distinct ethnic dimension.

ii) Initial violence witnessed in the Rift Valley (Nakuru County) was spontaneous and was in part a reaction to the perceived rigging of the election.

iii) Subsequent pattern of violence showed planning and organization by politicians, businessmen and others who enlisted criminal gangs (p.65)

The 2007 PEV was well covered by all media stations in Kenya and was watched by many people including the students in Nakuru County. Further, media violence appears to exert its effects through the multiple media avenues that are available to them such as newspapers, television and radio (Huesmann, Moise, Podolski & Eron, 2011).Eron (2012) indicated that viewing media violence has the following effects:

i) Decreased viewers' concerns about the suffering victims.

ii) It habituated people (reduced peoples' sensitivity) towards violence.

iii) It provided aggressive models that increased viewers' tendency to act aggressively.

iv) It was also related to the tendency of children, adolescents and adults to behave aggressively (p.123).

Such factors could influence viewers to be more aggressive and negatively affect students' emotional wellbeing.

The PEV of 2007 left 1,133 people dead while over 3,561 were injured (CIPEV, 2008). Among the dead and the injured were some parents of secondary school students in Njoro, Molo and Kuresoi. The death of a parent led the surviving children to redefine the meaning of their relationships with their siblings and other family members (Moss, Moss & Hansen, 2011). The death of a parent deprived people of many important things; a source of guidance and advice, a source of love and a model for their own parenting style (Buchsbaum, 2012). It also cut off the opportunity to improve aspects of their relationship with the parents. Expressing feelings towards a parent before he or she died is important. In some cases, the death of a parent may have a negative effect on the adult child's own marital relationship (Henry, 2010). The 2007 PEV disrupted family relationships and this provided potential for creating emotional setbacks to the students and family members involved.

The 2007 PEV led to great loss to the various groups of people involved and left them grieved. Shear, Simon, Wall, Sisook, Neimeyer and Duncan (2011) had posted that people vary on how they cope with grief and begin rebuilding their life. Sometimes the feelings of hurt, loneliness and guilt are so overwhelming that they become the focus of the survivor's

life to such an extent that there is never closure and the grief continues to interfere indefinitely with one's ability to carry on with their life. The study sought to establish whether those students who lost parents during the 2007 PEV had experienced closure and gained the ability to carry on with life.

Some victims of 2007 PEV were left widowed. The death of a partner differed from other losses. It represented a deep personal loss, especially when a couple had a close relationship (Moss e*t al,* 2011). The single parent left behind suffered loneliness, financial and parenting problems (Kail & Cavanough, 2013). All these were negative events that could trigger depression and fear among the victims (Karevold, Roysamb, Strom, & Mathelesen 2009). The single parents left behind could not sufficiently meet the student's parenting needs. This situation could have created potential grounds for emotional problems among the students who experienced the 2007 PEV and lost one or both of the parent or primary care givers.

The 2007 PEV affected the parents' ability to provide basic needs of their children which included security (CIPEV, 2008). This could have had a negative influence on their parenting roles as they continued to struggle to fulfil these unmet needs. Parents could also put their children at risk of depression if they become emotionally distant and uninvolved (Yap, Allen & Landouceu, 2012). Further, when parents rely on punitive discipline-hitting and shouting, adolescents often resort to the negative attribution that can lead to depression. In return, this could lead adolescents to be unprepared for school and lead to school drop-outs, failure and conduct problems. The ability of the students to regulate their emotions could influence their beliefs system (Schneiders, Nicolson, Berkhon, Feron, Vanas & Devries, 2010). These difficulties in the long-run affect the academic performance of the students. Thus, the 2007 PEV triggered negative emotions among secondary school students in Nakuru County.

The 2007 PEV led to displacement of people from their home lands.They moved to places considered safe like the police stations, administrative posts, churches and trading centres. The settlement conditions in internally displaced people (IDP) camps in churches, trading centres, chiefs' camps, administrative police camps and police stations were reportedly to have poor living standards (CIPEV, 2008). They were the subject of attacks by criminal gangs and marauding youths. They were also ethnically divided reflecting the ethnic divisions at the time. Most IDPs had to leave their homes with nothing except the clothes they were wearing at the time of eviction. The situation was aggravated during the height of

the violence when basic services were not available and the supply lines were blocked. The IDPs depended mainly on relief food and they had no means of earning income to make a living. They lacked access to basic utilities such as medical, educational, social and economic services. Inadequate basic needs had the potential of initiating emotional problems among the secondary school students.

Among the displaced people were students from secondary schools who got cut off from their colleagues, friends, teachers and schools (CIPEV, 2008). This was a challenge to the education sector which had to come up with workable solutions to avert the crisis. The perpetrators of post-election violence raided houses, summarily executed persons on the spot, looted them and burnt them down (CIPEV, 2008). Such extreme experiences of violence may bring traumatic consequences for individuals and their families (Gwiyo, 2008). This caused fear and forced people to relocate to new set-ups with assumed security. This explained the efforts of internally displaced people who tried to settle elsewhere rather than go back where they were evicted from. The post-election violence led to the displacement of students from their homes and forced them to settle in camps for Internally Displaced Persons together with their families

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When a student is exposed to violence, his or her emotions are negatively affected. Fear, confusion, grief and sometimes guilt can lead a student to begin questioning his abilities or safety (Osofsky, 2010). These emotional struggles often manifest in severe depression or suicidal thoughts. In fact, students who have been exposed to violent events are far more likely to suffer from depression than students who have not. Dealing with depression may require medication, and students should seek the help of a therapist (Farrington, 2013). Some children who experience violence may come to learn that violence is a way of solving problems. These students will then begin to display violent behaviours on their own (Osofsky, 2010).

Witnessing violence has negative impacts on academic performance. WHO (2014) had reported that witnessing violence affects children's abilities to learn. Further they had difficulty focusing and concentrating in school as they are easily distracted. Violence could also affect children's basic drive to explore the world. Natural curiosity is thwarted, and children are less willing to try new things. The PEV of 2007 had the potential of lowering

academic performance of secondary school students. The student's concentration and focusing may have been negatively affected while their curiosity may have been blurred.

In some cases, schools were burnt down which led to disruption of learning (CIPEV, 2008). The effect of post-election violence had a negative influence on the education sector. The environment for systematic and coordinated learning was disrupted irreparably (Gwiyo, 2008). Some students lost parents and thus getting school fees and other necessities became a real challenge. This may have led to wastage of time and resources leading to problems in academic performance (CIPEV, 2008). Violence may also have a negative influence on students who may develop psychological mechanisms that may promote and perpetuate communal violence. Violence destroys basic trust between persons within communities and government institutions. This brought hatred, suspicion, feelings of insecurity, desertion and hopelessness among the post-election violence victims.

Understanding the effects of violence on students demands an interdisciplinary perspective. Such a perspective should be one that incorporates psychological, biological, sociological, anthropological, and historical insights within the context of a larger ecological model (O'Donell, Schwarb Stone & Muyeed, 2012). Dealing with social and emotional stress of a violent situation can distract a student from schoolwork and make it harder to pay attention in class leading to academic related problems (Farrington, 2013).

The 2007 PEV influence could have long-term effects on academic performance unless measures are taken to undo the effects of PEV. The effects of PEV levels on academic performance were further echoed by the Kenya Certificate   Secondary Education results as shown on Figure 1.
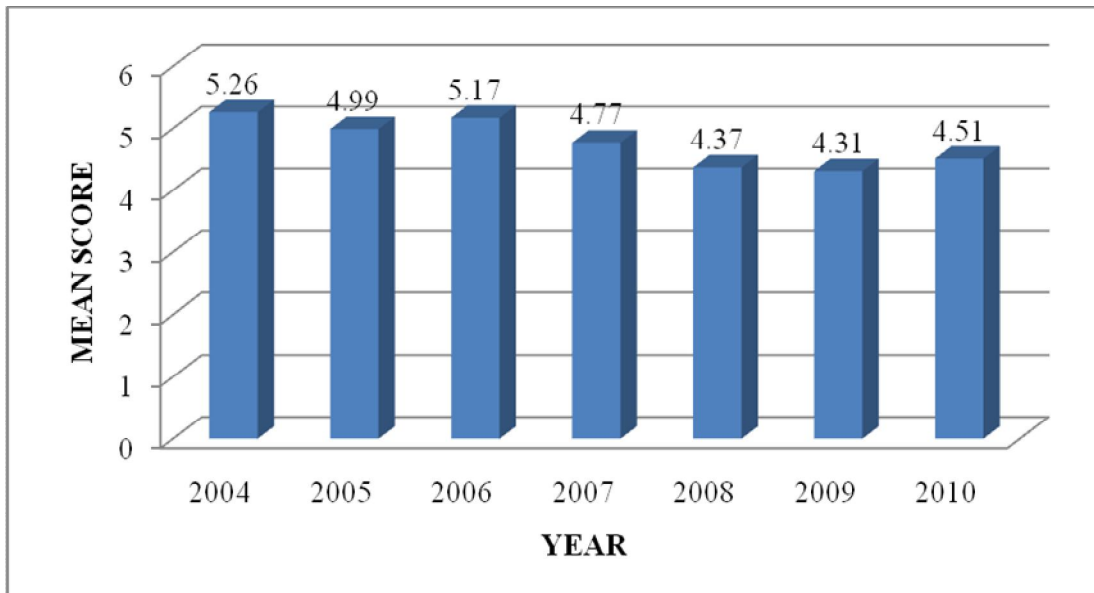
Figure 1: Nakuru County KCSE Results from 2006 to 2010

Source: Ministry of Education

Students who have been the victims of violence or have experienced a traumatic event may suffer from poor academic performance (GoK, 2011). The 2007 PEV influence could have long-term effects on academic performance unless measures are taken to undo the effects of PEV. The poor KSCE results could have been contributed to aftermath of PEV. Figure 1 shows the KCSE results for Nakuru County from 2004 to 2010. In 2004 the county had a mean score of 5.26, in 2005 it was 4.99 and 2006 it was 5.17. The KCSE mean score dropped in 2007 and the mean score was 4.77, 2008 the mean score was 4.37 and 2009 the mean score was 4.31. The drop in academic performance could have been contributed by the PEV.

The County experienced movement of teachers and students due to displacement and also played host to pupils and students from other affected counties (MOE, 2011). The PEV also led to death of some parents and destruction of property. This pushed the poverty level of the victims a notch higher which had a direct influence on emotional wellbeing and academic performance. In 2010, KCSE result improved to a mean score of 4.51. This may be as a result of interventions that were used to counteract the PEV experience. These included counselling services and humanitarian assistance that was given to the victims. This was mainly to help the victims address the crisis at hand. Some of these services were not sufficient, and the humanitarian supplies were also inadequate (CIPEV, 2008). The study sought to establish the

influence of the PEV levels on emotional wellbeing and academic performance. It is important to establish how the victims of the PEV adjusted to the aftermath of the PEV.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Political violence has negative influence on peoples' wellbeing. In December, 2007 Kenya experienced unprecedented post-election violence which brought great loss and suffering to the victims. Nakuru County is one of the counties which experienced high incidences of violence with Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi districts being adversely affected. Some lost their parents or their primary care givers which brought untold miseries in their lives. These orphaned students lacked parental care and basic needs which could trigger traumatic experiences. Some students' parents injured were left in need of health services and other social welfare support. These parents could not adequately provide the basic needs of the students and this could enhance emotional concerns among them. Some parents lost property and means of livelihood and could not adequately meet basic needs of their children which could lead to academic related problems. Some students were displaced and ended up in IPD's camps together with their parents. These IDP's camps lacked basic needs which could lead to emotional and academic related problems. These displacements brought great disruptions to the learning environment as some schools were closed while others were burnt down. Some students lost learning resources which could lead to lowered academic performance. Some teachers were also displaced depending on the political alignment they purported to belong and left inadequate teaching staff leading to poor academic performance. . All these were traumatic encounters to the secondary school students which were manifested in secondary schools in form of strikes, especially immediately after the 2007 PEV and KCSE results which may indicate its effects on academic performance. The study sought to establish the influence of PEV on emotional wellbeing and academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County in Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study
The study was intended to establish the influence of PEV level on emotional wellbeing and academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study
The study was guided by the following objectives:

i) To determine the influence of PEV level on emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

ii) To determine whether PEV influenced gender difference in emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

iii) To determine the influence of the PEV level on academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

iv) To determine whether PEV influenced gender difference in academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

The study was guided by the following hypotheses.

Ho_1: There was no statistically significant influence of PEV level on emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

Ho_2: There was no statistically significant influence of PEV on gender difference in emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

Ho_3: There was no statistically significant influence of PEV level on academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

Ho_4: There was no statistically significant influence of PEV on gender difference in academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will provide important knowledge to the researchers as it may expand the world of knowledge on violence that is constantly widening. The teachers and the school administrators will find the research useful in assisting the students who may be victims of violence. The teacher counsellors will utilise the data and enhance emotional wellbeing and academic performance among the students in the school to achieve their academic goals. The data that was generated will enable policy makers to come up with strategies that will help students to deal more effectively with the aftermaths of violence. The study will inform the stakeholders on the need for mitigation of PEV effects in order to enhance national cohesion. The information will assist the government in executing its mandate in educating the citizens on the need for peaceful co-existence. It will assist the communities that were involved in the conflict in the healing process and promote peaceful co-existence to avoid a repeat of the same in the future.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study was conducted in Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi district in Nakuru County in Kenya. This area was selected because of its high population, geographical, cultural and socio-economic diversities. Further, the area was one of the regions that were adversely affected by the 2007 post-election violence. The form four students formed an important segment of the study as they were better placed to remember the events as they unfolded. It was also possible to document their academic performance in the secondary school system for three years as opposed to any other class. Majority of these students did not relocate far away from the region as their parents are mainly peasant farmers. The teacher counsellors are in-charge of the students' welfare, and are better placed to give insights on students' problems. The emotional wellbeing of students covered aspects such as parents' ability to provide basic needs, life in the IDPs, self-esteem, depression, aggression, anxiety, feeling of despair and hopelessness. The academic performance entailed establishing the influence of PEV on students' academic performance in the end of term examinations and covered issues such as class concentration, motivation to learn, curiosity to learn, students' memory and class participation. The results of this study can be generalised to other areas that were affected by the PEV. This is because the 2007 PEV was not experienced in the whole country, and it was not uniform in all areas. Some areas encountered adverse effects while others watched it over the media.

1.8 Assumptions of the Study

The study made the following assumptions

  i) The respondents cooperated and gave honest responses.
  ii) The respondent's views reflected how they were affected by the 2007 PEV.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

  i) Emotional issues are subjective and hence difficult to articulate but through encouragement and assurance of confidentiality, the respondents gave their views.

1.8 Definition of Terms

The following are operational terms that were used in this study.

Aggression: In this study it referred to verbal or physical conflict that ensued after PEV among the students.

Academic performance: In this study, it referred to the students' ability to concentrate in class do various assignments and school examinations.

Counselling: It referred to the assistance given to the teacher-counsellor to help students to adjust to school requirement

Emotional wellbeing: In this study, it referred to students' ability to cope with the effect of post election violence. This was reflected by their ability to conduct learning activities, meet personal goals and relate with other students effectively.

Gender difference: In this study, it referred to cultural, social and psychological meanings associated with maleness and femaleness. .

Influence: In this study, it referred to how PEV led either to lowered or raised emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

Modelling aggression: In this study, it referred to copying aggressive activities among the students from another person.

Post-election violence: It this study, it referred to all acts of aggression carried out by the Nakuru County residents such as verbal insults, killing, bodily harm and destruction of property in 2007 post election violence.

Post-traumatic stress: In this study, it referred to a reaction that occurs to an individual as a result of encountering the effect of post election violence that left significant a negative effect on the student and continues to negatively influence academic performance..

Problem-focused coping: In this study, it referred to students' efforts aimed at directly solving a challenge.

Self-efficacy: In this study, it referred to one being convinced that they can handle challenges in life.

Social support: In this study, it referred to help provided to students in an effort to cope with problems in life.

Violence: In this study it referred to physical and verbal force against others.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature from various sources according to the objectives of the study. It looked at the concept of violence, the 2007 PEV, emotional wellbeing, academic performance, gender difference in emotional wellbeing and academic performance among secondary school students. It also looked at relevant theories, theoretical framework and conceptual framework.

2.2 The Concept of Violence

Pinker (2012) defined violence as the exertion of force with an intention to injure or abuse. Violence can also refer to the destructive actions of natural phenomena like storms and earthquakes (WHO, 2014). Frequently, the word describes forceful human destruction of property or injury to persons, usually intentional and forceful verbal and emotional abuse that harms others (Pinker, 2012). It can also refer to all acts of aggression carried out against community members such as verbal insults, killing, bodily harm and destruction of property (Hevvenkohl, Maguin, Hill, Hawkins, Abbott & Catalano, 2011).

According to Carrol (2012) violence could exist at micro and macro levels: micro-level violence also referred to as personal violence are acts of aggression or force used by individuals and may be directed to objects, animals, self or others. Additionally, Reiss and Roth (2009) stated that, though individuals committed violence as a result of personality type and family background, personal manifestations of violence are laid on broader social structures. Macro-level violence or collective violence results when individuals engage in violent activities as a group or institutional level. Like personal violence, incidents of group violence such as riots, revolutions and gang warfare are typically viewed as local events, tied to a specific cause or geographical region. Group violence appears to be more destructive than personal violence. As a result, individuals participating in group violence frequently feel less responsible for their activities and are willing to commit greater atrocities because they are acting in the name of a higher cause be it, religion, political belief or loyalty to an ethnic group or person (Reiss & Roth, 2009).The 2007 PEV constituted macro-level violence as it involved groups of different ethnic communities. Violence in society can perpetuate itself

over decades, long after a nation has suffered the initial traumatic experience (Ress & Roth 2009).

Viewers learn new aggressive behaviours through modelling. Viewers come to believe that aggression is usually rewarded or at least rarely punished. They become desensitised to the sight and thought of violence and suffering of the victims. According to Huesman (2011), the students who witnessed 2007 PEV may have learnt new aggressive behaviours through modelling and may have come to believe that aggression is usually rewarded or at least rarely punished. They may have become desensitised to the sight and thought of violence and suffering of the victims. This points a grey picture of the effects of PEV to those who witnessed or watched it as it was covered by the media.

Political violence has long-term effects on the victims. Shaon (2013) had indicated that victims of violence are faced by the risk of sustaining trauma for a long time even after the violence has ended. These can be in form of illusions, forms of feeling depressed, feeling afraid of unreal things, getting over-active and excited. It could also lead to alcohol and drug abuse. The 2007 PEV may have left the victims traumatised to a great extent and their emotional wellbeing thwarted. The students who were victims of the PEV of 2007 could have been easy targets of emotional instability, and their academic pursuits could have been hampered. Seferiades and Johnston (2012) had purported that political violence affects emotional and behavioural aspects of the victims. These included lack of ability to trust and love, loss of self-esteem and feelings of loss of personal power, dehumanisation and desensitisation. The PEV of 2007 may have left such marks in the life of the victims which may be fertile grounds for emotional and academic problems.

Violence has brought about displacement of people from their homeland. A good example is in Peru, Guatemala as well as Colombia, where millions of people have been displaced, and armed conflict is still live (Mansback & Rhodes, 2011). War has made it hard for people to earn a living and investment may not be possible within such a situation. People with profitable skills were forced to flee. Peasants found it hard to farm when rebels kept plundering their villages while learning institutions were closed down for the safety of learners and teachers.

In Congo, a combination of violence and official neglect destroyed the country's roads, telephone system and organs of the government. Dozens of smaller, local conflicts continued to blaze in the region. They fought with low-tech weapons such as machetes, bows and a few guns. An endless cycle of atrocities created an endless cycle of grudges that fuelled more micro wars (Mansback & Rhodes, 2011). Extreme experiences of violence bring traumatic experiences to the individuals and their families. Violence also directly affects the peaceful co-existence of people and communities (Wainryb & Pasupathi, 2007).

The war in Iraq has resulted in deaths of thousands of people and left over two million of them refugees (Fadel, 2010) The unrest could also spill over to the rest of the region with similar secession attempts in neighbouring countries such as Jordan, Syria and Lebanon. There is also internal displacement of people, while 2.7 million children have been orphaned. This has brought untold suffering to the victims. The Iraq war is far from over (Fadel, 2010). This creates a situation where revenge and counter attacks may escalate the already volatile situation.

In Rwanda, the conflict between the Hutu and the Tutsi led to the Genocide of 800,000 within 100 days (Bernett, 2009). There was an attempt to eliminate the Tutsi and to erase any memory of their existence. Thousands of women became widowed, and many were subjected to rape and exposed to sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV. Over 400,000 children became orphaned. They experienced untold misery as a result of the tribal conflict between the two tribes.

Since Sudan got her independence from the United Kingdom in 1956, the country has been convulsed by almost constant civil war based on the north - south cultural and religious divide (Tannock, 2011). The north region sought relentlessly to impose its will on the south, and the southerners were subjected to institutionalised marginalisation. "Islamisation" was the main tool of repression, in particular the imposition of Sharia Laws. More than two million people were killed in the second Sudanese civil war alone that broke out in 1983 and lasted till the Naivasha peace agreement was made in 2005 (Mofadal, 2011). Millions of people became refugees. With a successful referendum, a new generation of Sudan is coming to light and this will go a long way in avoiding war-related situations and create solutions for historical grievances.

The conflict in Ivory Coast had locked the country into PEV that saw 3,000 people killed and 700,000 displaced (Mbiritu, 2011). Further, the four-month political crisis was finally solved through international intervention where Ghagbo was forced to surrender and subsequently held captive on account of crimes committed against humanity. The election results dispute that led to the post-election violence in Kenya appeared to be duplicated in the region (Mbiritu, 2011).

Similar to soldiers who have experienced war, students who have lived in violent conditions may learn to repress their emotions (Passer & Smith, 2012). This repression can cause long-term effects on a child's ability to begin and maintain healthy relationships (Costin & Dragun, 2011). It may also cause emotional issues later on in life though in the short-term they may seem perfectly normal. The victims of the 2007 PEV could also suffer post-traumatic stress disorders. According to Deykin (2012) available data suggested that the symptoms of PTSD could diminish adolescents' perceptions of self-efficacy as well as their academic performance. Further, traumatized adolescents who developed PTSD had lower scores on various measures of perceived self-efficacy compared with adolescents who had experienced trauma, but did not develop PTSD.

2.3 Post Election Violence in Kenya

The 2007 General Election in Kenya was a unique election for a number of reasons. It was the first time that Kenya had a closely contested election characterised by cut-throat competition. Poll monitors conducted in the run up to the elections had indicated that the two leading contenders, Mwai Kibaki of the Party of National Unity and Raila Odinga of Orange Democratic Movement, had almost equal percentages. This was also the first election after the removal of Kenya African National Union regime in 2002, which was in power since independence in 1963 (Kenya Election Report, 2008).

For a long period, Kenya had experienced relative peace. However, after the December 2007 General election, and the subsequent announcement of the disputed presidential election results, the country was plunged into ethnic conflicts that engulfed the entire nation (Kenya Election Report, 2008). According to this report, the conflict was characterised by murder, looting, eviction, rape, arson, burning of food stores, and destruction of homes, schools,

crops, harassment, and other kinds of human right abuses. In many cases, most survivors ended up in the camps for internally displaced persons.

Election related violence had been experienced in Kenya since 1991 (Akiwumi Commission, 1999). In spite of the death and destruction of property that ensued, nobody was ever punished for these killings and destruction of property. This happened despite names of perpetrators being contained in the commission's report. This has led to a culture of impunity whereby those maimed and killed for political reasons do not get justice. The study sought to establish the effects of election related violence specifically the 2007 PEV on the victims.

The 2007 PEV led to the death of 1,133 people, 3,561 injuries of arrow shots, blunt objects and pointed objects (CIPEV, 2008). The victims suffered not only the physical trauma of injuries but also the psychological trauma associated with violence. Some victims were parents of students. Shaon (2013) had claimed that victims of violence were faced by risk of sustaining trauma for a long time. Secondly, the death of a parent forced the surviving children to redefine the meaning of their relationships with their siblings and other family members (Moss, *et.al* 2011). The study sought to determine the influence of these injuries and deaths on students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

The 2007 PEV also led to destruction of property. In many cases, houses were burnt down; business premises not spared either while farms were left unattended (CIPEV, 2008). The PEV victims lost property in terms of shelter, business premises and other means of livelihood. This increased their poverty to an extent that some had to rely on relief assistance from humanitarian organisations. Tolan and others (2012) reported that living in poverty was extremely stressful for parents and often led to behaviours that promoted aggression. This could be seen through harsh discipline and lax monitoring among students. Thus, the heightened poverty that ensued after the PEV of 2007 forced some of the victims into IDP camps (CIPEV, 2008). The study sought to determine the influence of the high poverty index that was created by the PEV on students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

The 2007 PEV resulted in massive widespread forced displacement of people (CIPEV, 2008). Sudden displacement of people from a place one considers home was often the worst form of loss entailing a sense of loss to self (Ai & Ubelher, 2010). Further displacement meant not only the loss of a home, but loss of friends and other relationships, economic and personal losses built over many years, dispersal of relatives, memory loss that constituted one's own

being. It affected learning and emotional well being of the victims. The study sought to establish the effect of 2007 PEV on emotional wellbeing and academic performance in Nakuru County.

2.4 Emotional Wellbeing Among the Secondary Students

Emery and Bayliss (2012) have defined emotional wellbeing as the ability to understand the value of one's emotions and use them to move life forward in positive directions. It does not mean the absence of emotions but the ability to manage them positively. A person with a positive sense of wellbeing has the ability to execute duties in the society and meet the demands of everyday life (Nyklíček & Vingerhoets, 2011). It also involved identifying, building upon and operating from one's strength rather than focusing on fixing problems.

Bailey (2013) had reported some benefits of emotional wellbeing which included knowing that one's needs are important and one deserved to have a life where one felt happy and secure. As one achieved emotional wellbeing, one was able to identify his or her heart's desire, took positive action and made changes in life. He further claimed that when an individual experienced emotional wellbeing one could encounter:

(i) Healing from stress, anxiety, depression and grief.

(ii) Change to transform unhelpful patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviours.

(iii) Self-confidence as one gained trust and belief in self.

(iv) Growth to live more authentically (p.42).

Ironson and Powell (2014) claimed that an emotionally healthy person should demonstrate the ability to:

(i) Understand and adopt to change

(ii) Cope with stress

(iii) Have a positive self-concept

(iv) Have the ability to love and care for others

(v) Act independently to meet his or her own needs (p.34)

Being young carried with it risk factors that could have a negative impact on emotional wellbeing (Morgan, 2013). The risk factors included poor housing, economic disadvantage, serious illness, homophobic bullying, abuse or bereavement. All these factors could have a profound impact on a young person's self esteem and their ability to learn. The 2007 PEV that was experienced by students exposed them to risk factors such as poor housing, (living in IDP's camp) economic disadvantage (as result of destruction of family property) and

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bereavement as (a result of death of a parent or primary care giver). The study sought to investigate how the PEV influenced the emotional wellbeing of secondary school students as a result of experiencing these risk factors.

Tuicomepee (2011) reported that there were many protective factors for adolescents including individual characteristics, aspects of relationship with parents and degree of school connectivity. Teenagers who earned high grades in school were less likely than others to feel depressed, use alcohol or become sexually active while still young. Similarly, those who had a strong religious identity and who maintained a high-self-esteem were less likely to use alcohol or illegal drugs. He further claimed that feeling connected to parents was one of the strongest, protective factors for adolescents. Thus irrespective of the PEV experiences, the students were capable of experiencing emotional wellbeing and excelling in academic pursuits provided these protective factors were enhanced among secondary school students.

2.4.1 Influence of Violence on Emotional Wellbeing

Trauma has been defined as a bodily injury, shock, or an emotional shock often having a lasting psychic effect. Violence is a major cause of trauma (Gitahi & Mwangi, 2009). It does not matter whether trauma results from psychological, emotional or sexual abuse, war, hunger or pestilence. The experience may change the way a person operates in life. Experiencing trauma can alter human brain in profound ways, at times preventing individuals from placing boundaries on appropriate or inappropriate behaviours (Anderson & Bushman, 2013). A good example is in Sudan where prolonged violence had brought about traumatic experiences to the people (Tannock, 2011). Further, trauma may cause strong intense, negative emotions such as shame, abandonment, prolonged fear, anxiety, rejection, loneliness and despair. Events perceived as traumatic can change brain chemistry and result in behaviours such as violence, crime, depression, change in thinking patterns and other unwanted behaviours (Masters, 2013). This study sought to establish the influence of 2007 PEV on emotional wellbeing of secondary school students.

One situation that may produce negative psychological effects and nightmare involves experiencing interpersonal violence and may result to PTSD (American Psychiatric Association, 2009). The post-election violence that was witnessed in Kenya involved interpersonal violence that may have given rise to trauma. This is a condition that may result from experiencing an event that involved actual or threatened death or serious injury or from witnessing such an event. People suffering from PSTD may experience a number of

psychological symptoms including recurring and disturbing memories, terrible nightmares and intense fear and anxiety.

Trauma caused by human activities such as war, rape and torture may tend to precipitate more severe PTSD reactions than do natural disasters (Sorendon, 2013). The psychological wreckage caused by PTSD may increase vulnerability to development of other disorders. The secondary school students who either observed or were victims of the PEV may require counselling interventions in order to enhance emotional wellbeing, as well as academic performance. Adolescents who witnessed or were victims of violence may show symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorders similar to those of soldiers coming back from war; with the distress symptoms increasing according to the number of violent acts witnessed (Ai & Ubelher, 2010).

Trauma causes shock and organ shutdown and if not addressed may affect the victims' mental and emotional equilibrium (Feltham, 2010). A study carried out by Jamila and Stephens (2009) reported that children exposed to traumatic events suffer from academic struggles, but when provided with treatment (counselling), they display improvement in academic performances. The study suggested that academic problems may be related to exposure to traumatic events. The results further implied that the treatment for children exposed to traumatic events could be applied in a school set-up. The 2007 PEV might have left traumatic experiences on students and thus affecting their academic performances negatively. The schools can positively offer treatments to these effects through counselling interventions to bring about academic improvements to the victims of the PEV.

Giaconia, Reinherz, Silverman, Bilge, Frost and Cohen (2010) spent years tracking a group of adolescents from the time they were five until eighteen years of age. This large amount of time led to a tracking record of significance. By the time the students reached high school, enough time had passed for seemingly random events to occur. Certain adolescents had completely changed for the worst. In this study, a sample 165 adolescents who experienced trauma, 14 % were categorised as having a lifetime symptoms of PTSD. Students who were identified as meeting the criteria for PTSD had a difficult time in high school. They had low grade point averages (GPA), suffered a major depression and tended to act out in school settings. The PEV of 2007 had the potential of negatively affecting the students' academic

performance. Further, the victims suffered depression and may be manifested in behaviour problems in schools.

The students who observed violence during the post-election violence may have learnt to be aggressive as they observed the violence through the various media that covered the events as they unfolded. The violence could have also decreased viewers concern about the suffering of a victim, reduced their sensitivity to the sight of violence and increased viewer's tendency to act aggressively. The same theory can be used to address the aftermath of 2007 post-election violence. Viewing media pro-social activities may increase views' concern about the suffering of victims, increase their sensitivity to the sight of violence and reduce viewers' tendency to act aggressively. This is a real challenge to achieve as people are more prone to watch violence media activities that produce thrills than pro-social activities.

2.4.2 Influence of PEV on Students' Loss and Grief

Losing someone or something that one loves is very painful. Loss that is unacknowledged or unattended can result in disability (Worden, 2009). Grief refers to the emotions and sensations that accompany the loss of someone or something dear to a person (Balk, 2009). Further, grief that is expressed has a potential for healing that eventually can strengthen and enrich life. Grief is a process through which we worked out and eventually resolved deeply felt loss and the accompanying pain and anxiety (Worden, 2009).

When we think of someone as grief-stricken, we usually associate the condition with death of a loved one (bereavement) yet there are other sources of grief that require deeply challenging readjustment (Balk, 2009). These include a change of circumstances. A good example is loss of a job or on-going financial problems that are status or security related. Another example is the change in a relationship that involves the death of a loved one, divorce or separation and a child moving away from home. The 2007 PEV brought with it problems that required a lot of adjustment to be made by the victims.

People experience the cycle of grief differently (Milner, 2010). Some find that within a few weeks or months the period between waves of distress lengthened and that they feel peace, renewed hope, and enjoy life most of the time. This is a step forward towards healing. Others face fears of being hit with what felt like relentless waves of grief (Worden, 2009). There is a possibility for victims who lost loved ones to suffer for a very long time unless counselling services are provided to them.

The process of grieving is painful and may be experienced and resolved by most individuals. In some cases however, morbid grief reactions may occur that prevent the successful conclusion of life crisis. Three types of grief reactions are; delayed reactions, distorted reactions and pathological mourning (Worden, 2009). In some cases, the intense reaction of the first stage may be postponed for days, months and in some cases years. In these cases, it is common for some seemingly unreal incident to bring to the surface an intense grieving, which the individual does not even recognise as grief. In most cases, distorted reactions are normal symptoms carried out to an extreme degree. They include adopting the behaviour traits of the deceased, such as aspects of the deceased's fatal illness and other types of a psychosomatic ailment particularly colitis, arthritis and asthma. In pathological mourning, the process is not skipped but is prolonged and intensified to an abnormal degree (Decay & Travers, 2011). It is important to establish whether the post-election victims have gone through the whole process of grieving in order to adjust to life.

Depression is another emotion that is associated with bereavement (Bowlby,1980), It is an emotional state usually characterised by prolonged feelings of gloom, despair, futility, profound pessimism and a tendency towards excessive guilt and self-reproach (Mckeown, Garrison, Cuffe &Waller, 2011). Other symptoms of depression include fatigue, insomnia, poor concentration, irritability, anxiety, reduced sexual interest and overall loss of interest and boredom. At times, depression appears in the guise of other disorders such as vague pains, headache or recurrent nausea. It may also include cognitive symptoms (negative cognition about self, world and future), motivational symptoms (loss of interest and lack of drive) and somatic symptoms (lack of appetite, lack of energy, sleep difficulties and weight loss or gain). Research has shown that experiencing the death of a father or mother while young is associated with a great increase risk of later depression (Bowlby, 1980). This research sought to determine whether those students who lost parents and loved ones were at risk of developing depression and suggest possible measures to be undertaken to prevent it.

Social support could be a source of healing and adjustment (Crandell & Crandell, 2010). People who receive the support and comfort of family and friends typically have a lower incidence of mental and physical disorders following bereavement. For most people, the expression of grief following the death of a loved one is an important component in the recovery. There are exceptions of grieves that include an intense yearning for, and a higher degree of dependency on the deceased person tend, to have a harder time recovering from

loss. Those students who lost parents and got displaced could have encountered heightened emotional problems due to lack of social support. The study sought to establish such factors.

Open confrontation with the loss of a loved one is essential to accepting the reality of the world in which the deceased is no longer present. Attempts to repress or avoid thoughts about the loss could only push them into subconscious where they might continue to cause problems until they are dragged out and accepted fully (Worden, 2009). This calls for the need to establish whether this had happened among the secondary school students who lost parents or had their parents injured.

2.4.3 Influence PEV on Students' Family Relationships and Emotional Wellbeing

Violence has an adverse effect on intimate, personal and abstract relationships. Herman, (2010) observed that violence calls into question human relationships and breach the attachment and bonds of family, friendship and life in the community. It also shatters the construction of the self that is formed and sustained in relationship to others (Ehrenreich, 2007). Due to the loneliness experienced by people who are violated, a sense of alienation and disconnection pervades every relationship from the most intimate family bonds to the most abstract affiliation of community and religion (Herman, 2010). Thus, violence may lead to separation or divorce. The family disruption that resulted from influence of PEV had negative influence on student's emotional wellbeing.

PEV led to family separation due to insecurity (CIPEV, 2008). The disruption in the family setup may have a great impact in upbringing of children. Osofsky (2010) had noted that parents' ability to play a stable role in the child's life may be compromised if traumatized by violence. Further, the parents may be unable to protect their children and keep them safe. They may be numbed, frightened, depressed and unable to deal with their trauma and be emotionally unavailable for their children. The situation may be worse if the parents had separated due to insecurity as it was during the PEV period (CIPEV, 2008). Some of the influences associated with divorce or separation include academic, behavioural, and psychological problems. Although this may not always be true, studies suggest that children from divorced or separated families are more likely to exhibit such behavioural issues than those from non-divorced families (Gage-Brandon, 2008).

Children who have experienced a divorce or separation of parents frequently have lower academic achievement than children from non-divorced families Schab (2008) in a review done on family and school factors related to adolescents' academic performance, it was noted that it is two times more likely for a child from a divorced family to drop out of high school than a child from a non-divorced family. These children from divorced families may also be less likely to attend college, resulting in the discontinuation of their academic career. The 2007 post-election violence affected family relationship and affection that may have led to separation and divorce.

2.4.4 Influence of PEV on Students' Aggression

Aggression, in its broadest sense, is behaviour or a disposition that is forceful, hostile or attacking. It may occur either in retaliation or without provocation (Farrington, 2013). In narrower definitions that are used in social sciences and behavioural sciences, aggression is an intention to cause harm or an act intended to increase relative social dominance. Predatory or defensive behaviour between members of different species may not be considered aggression in the same sense. Aggression can take a variety of forms and can be physical or be communicated verbally or non-verbally. Aggression differs from what is commonly called assertiveness, although the terms are often used interchangeably among laypeople, e.g. an aggressive salesperson.

Aggression is an intentional act that has the potential to result in the physical or emotional harm of a person or object (Farrington, 2013). Aggression may constitute a physical assault or a verbal outburst. Aggression can broadly be subdivided into impulsive aggression and premeditated or non-impulsive aggression. Impulsive rather than premeditated aggression appeared to be associated with specific biological and pharmacological response characteristics, and focused on neuro-chemical, brain imaging, and psychopharmacological studies of impulsive aggression.

Ferris and Grisso (2010) suggested a number of classifications and dimensions of aggression which depended on such things as whether the aggression was verbal or physical;
(i) It involved relational aggression such as covert bullying and social manipulation; whether harm to others is intended or not; whether it is carried out actively or expressed passively; and whether the aggression is aimed directly or indirectly.

(ii) Classification also encompassed aggression-related emotions (e.g. anger) and mental states (e.g. impulsivity, hostility). Aggression could occur in response to non-social as well as social factors and could have a close relationship with stress coping style. Aggression could be displayed in order to intimidate.

(iii) The operative definition of aggression could be affected by moral or political views. Examples are the axiomatic moral view called the non-aggression principle and the political rules governing the behaviour of one country toward another. Likewise in competitive sports, or in the workplace, some forms of aggression could be sanctioned and others not.

(iv) Aggression could involve violence that could be adaptive under certain circumstances in terms of natural selection. This was most obviously the case in terms of attacking prey to obtain food, or in anti-predatory defence. It could also be the case in competition between members of the same species or subgroup, if the average reward (e.g. status, access to resources, protection of self or kin) outweighed average costs (e.g. injury, exclusion from the group, death). There were some hypotheses of specific adaptations of violence in humans under certain circumstances, including homicide, but it was often unclear what behaviours could have been selected for and what could have been a by-product, as in the case of collective violence (p.98).

Research indicates that adolescents exposed to violence throughout their lives tend to show high levels of aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2013). This can be manifested through anxiety, behavioural problems, school problems, truancy and revenge seeking thoughts. Youths appear deadened to feelings of pain and show restricted emotional development over time. Alternatively, such youths could attach themselves to peer-group and gangs as substitute family and incorporate violence as a method of dealing with disputes or frustrations. This could have negative impact that might influence their emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

Aggression is intentional injury or harm to another person. The injury or harm can be physical or psychological. On the other hand, physical violence is a deliberate attempt to carry out serious physical injury (Passer & Smith, 2012). It is possible for violence experienced by an individual to produce emotional problems. Some social psychologists divide aggression into two types: Instrumental and Emotional. Instrumental aggression is injury or harm in which the goal is to obtain something of value by the aggressor. Emotional

aggression is injury or harm that is carried out with the explicit goal of hurting someone. The 2007 post-election violence may have led to a negative influence on students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

It is possible to learn aggressive behaviours through observation of models (Bandura, 1983). Models are people whose behaviour might be imitated and who provide a guide to appropriate behaviour. Exposure to an aggressive model lead observers to exhibit heightened aggression, especially if the observers are angered, insulted or frustrated. Thus, the students who observed aggressive models during post-election violence may exhibit heightened aggression that may have affected their emotional wellbeing and academic performance as they may engage in activities that might distract them from their academic activities.

Bandura (1983) demonstrated the power of models in a classical study of Nursery-school-age children. One group of children watched an adult play violently and aggressively with a doll. In contrast children in other conditions watched an adult play sedately with a set of tinker toys. Later the children were made to feel frustrated by being refused the opportunity to play with a favourite toy. Those who had seen the violent model playing with the dolls were considerably more aggressive than those who had watched the placid model playing with Tinker Toys.

Subsequently, research shows that people are more likely to imitate aggression when models are seen to be rewarded for their aggressive behaviour (Stormshak, Bierman, McMahon, &Lingua 2010). The other side of the coin of the social learning approach to aggression is that the observation of non-aggressive models can reduce aggression. We learn from others not only how to be aggressive but also how to avoid confrontation. The same factors of rewards and punishment at the heart of aggressive behaviour may be utilised to enhance non-aggressiveness (Verona & Carbonell, 2009). This will allow the students to have more time to concentrate on academic pursuits rather than engage on aggressive activities.

Whether aggression is viewed through the lenses of the media or observed in real life situation, exposure to aggression may have a profound influence on peoples' lives (Canter, 2011). Correlation studies clearly established a significant link between observation of violence and later aggression (Passer & Smith, 2012). The study found that children who had watched more televised violence in their grades school years showed relatively higher level of aggression in adulthood than children who had been exposed to lower levels of television

aggression. Viewing media violence could lead people to assume that aggression is a socially acceptable behaviour (Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2013). In some cases, observing aggression could teach people how to be aggressive in a particular manner (Huesmann, 2011). The normative approach suggested that people learn 'script' for aggressive behaviour. After the script had been learned, presumably through exposure to media violence, it might be recalled in some future situations providing a guide for behaviour. Individuals then might come to see aggression as a legitimate response with the content of a particular situation (Gunter, 2008). The study sought to establish whether 2007 PEV influenced the students to be more aggressive in their behaviour.

School violence is widely held to be a serious problem in recent decades in many countries, especially where weapons such as guns or knives are involved (Huesman, 2011) It includes violence between school students as well as physical attacks by students on school staff. Belson (2014) had reported that Internalised behaviours reflected withdrawal, inhibition, anxiety, and depression. Internalised behaviour has been found in some cases of youth violence although, in some youth, depression is associated with substance abuse. Students with internalising problems are often overlooked by school personnel. Externalized behaviours referred to as delinquent activities, aggression and hyperactivity. Unlike internalised behaviours, externalised behaviours are directly linked to violent episodes. Violent behaviours such as punching and kicking are often learned from observing others. Just as externalised behaviours are observed outside the school, such behaviours are also observed in schools. PEV created situations where students could observe violence and later use it to address their problems. The study sought to establish whether PEV influenced students' behaviour which in turn influenced emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

A number of other individual factors are associated with higher levels of aggressiveness. Early starters have worse outcomes than children whose antisocial activities begin late (Ferris & Grisso, 2010). Lower IQ is related to higher levels of aggression. Other findings indicate that boys show early problematic motor skills, attention difficulties, and reading problems predict later persistent antisocial conduct (Farrington, 2013). This creates a situation where other individual factors could contribute to heightened aggression among the individual students.

Neighbourhoods and communities provide models for school violence. Communities with high rates of crime and drug use model violent behaviours that are carried into schools (Rosberg, 2009). Further dilapidated housing in the neighbourhood of the school has been associated with school violence. Exposure to deviant peers is a risk factor for high levels of aggression. Research has shown that poverty and high population densities are associated with higher rates of school violence (Huesman, 2011). Well-controlled longitudinal research indicated that children's exposure to community violence during the early elementary school years increase the risk of aggression later in elementary school as reported by teachers and classmates. Other well-controlled longitudinal research that utilised propensity score matching indicated that exposure to gun violence in early adolescence is related to the initiation of serious physical violence in later adolescence (Soyibo & Lee, 2010). Further neighbourhood gangs are thought to contribute to dangerous school environments. Gangs use the social environment of the school to recruit members and interact with opposing groups, with gang violence carried over from neighbourhoods into some schools.

Prevention and intervention programs on violence focused on individual-level strategies (Ahmad, 2010). These programs are aimed at students who exhibited aggression and violent behaviours or are at risk for engaging in such behaviours. Some programs include conflict resolution and team problem-solving. Other programs teach students social skill Intervention programs aimed at improving family relationships. There was some evidence that such intervention strategies has modest effects on the behaviour of children in the short and long term (Nation, Crusto, Wandersman, Kumpfer, Morrissey-Kane & Davino 2008).

Related to academic performance is the influence of intense emotions. When people experience intense emotions, there are a number of body changes that take place. Such changes include rapid heartbeats, heavy breathing, perspiration, trembling and in the extremities, a "sinking feeling" in the stomach (Passer & Smith, 2012). During emotions such as sorrow or grief, however, some bodily processes are depressed or slowed down. When emotions become intense, they usually result in some decreased in performance. At a high level of arousal, performance begins to decline due to too many things at once that prevent the appropriate set of responses from dominating as shown in Figure 2.
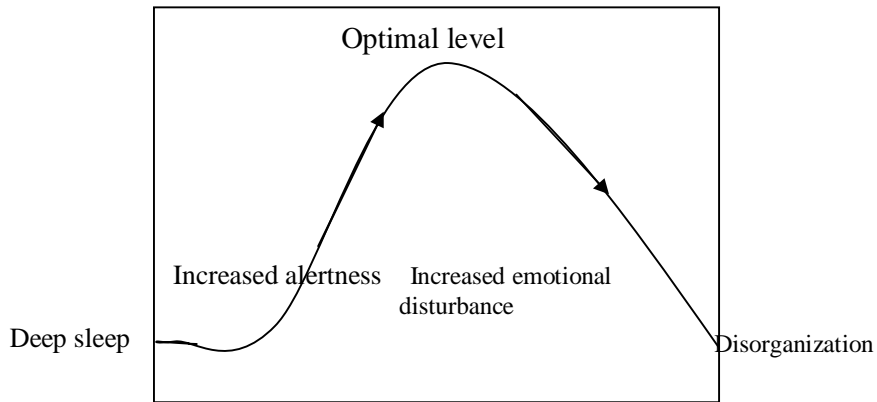
Figure 2: The Relationship between the Level of Arousal and Performance (p.73) by Hebb, (2010) Philadelphia.

Too much or too little arousal may impair performance (Zimbard, Weber & Johnson, 2008). The optimum amount of arousal varies with the task. It may take less arousal to achieve peak performance on simple or well-practiced tasks than it does on complex tasks that may require much thinking and planning. Thus, cheers may boast performance at basketball games but not in brain surgery. The amount of stimulation needed to produce optimal arousal also often varies between individuals.

Sometimes emotions may not be quickly expressed but continue to remain unexpressed or unresolved. Perhaps the situation that makes one angry or that makes one fearful continues for a long period. The states of heightened arousal that may results take its toll in individual's ability to function efficiently. This may have a direct influence on emotional wellbeing and academic performance. Malan (2009) has come up with a triangle of conflict as indicated figure 2.
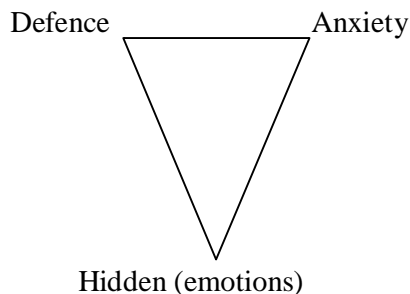
Figure 3: Model of Conflict

Source: D.H. Malan (2009), individual psychotherapy and the science of hidden psychodynamics, (p.33) Oxford express

Expressing painful feelings can be frightening. The fear might be that others will find the strong feelings unacceptable, hateful, ridiculous, and shameful and the person becomes overwhelmed by them. The fear of the consequences of expressing such emotions causes anxiety which in turn causes the person to defend themselves against both the unwanted feelings and the resulting anxiety by repressing them. The attempt to defend oneself against powerful feeling creates psychological distress yet the person may not be consciously aware of the feeling at all. Sometimes continued emotional tension can impair physical health. This tasked heavily on student's emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

2.5 Influence of PEV on Gender Difference in Emotional Wellbeing among the Students

Individuals differ in their display of emotions. Stets and Turner (2014) had reported that women report more negative affect than men but equal happiness as men. Further, individuals differ in their use of emotion regulation strategies such as re-appraisal and suppression. These differences have implications for emotional wellbeing and social relationship. The study sought to establish whether there was gender disparity among the male and female students that encountered the 2007 PEV. It would be interesting to determine whether there were more females than males who reported negative emotions associated with PEV.

Sáenz-Herrero (2012) in a meta-analysis study on sex-specific risk of a traumatic event and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) claimed that female participants are more likely than male participants to meet criteria for PTSD. In the analysis, female participants exhibited greater PTSD. This implied that female students are more likely to be affected by traumatizing experiences like war and PEV. They further argued that in the aftermath of a traumatic event, women are likely to have feelings of anxiety and depression, while men are more likely to express distress and depression in terms of irritability, anger and increased alcohol consumption.

This view had been echoed by Thompson (2010) who had reported that women experience love and anger much more intensely than men. They also display greater sadness and anxiety than men, while men show an increase in blood pressure and a tendency towards alcohol craving. Further, women are more inclined than men to experience disgust when exposed to stimuli intended to elicit an emotional reaction. The PEV that brought traumatic experiences among the students was more likely to trigger depression among the students, anxiety among the female students, irritability, anger, blood pressure and increased alcohol consumptions

among the male students. If these emotions were not constructively handled, they might impede the emotional wellbeing with gender disparity being displayed.

A number of epidemiology survey studies had shown that Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is twice as common in females as in men (Christiansen & Elklit, 2012). In addition, there are gender difference in the type of trauma differences and presentation of illness. Some of these differences are clearly societal and non-biologically based, but it is also clear that biological systems altered in PTSD may modulate or be modulated by sex hormones. According to this view, the sex hormones (being male or female) may contribute to gender difference in emotional wellbeing. I would disagree with this view and propose the socialization process given to each gender as a cause of the difference.

Gender differences in emotional processing and response has direct consequences on the physical and emotional wellbeing of men and women (Thompson, 2010). He further noted that overly emotional women tend to be at greater risk for depression, anxiety and other mood disorders than men. Men who repress their feelings tend to be at a greater risk of getting ailments such as high blood pressure, and also tend to indulge in smoking and drinking. The 2007 PEV had the potential of triggering emotional-related problems. The study sought to establish whether this was the case with the 2007 PEV.

Empirical data shows a consistent disadvantage of women in respect to negative effect and subjective health. Women have higher rates of negative effect and depression and poor subjective health than men (Nydegger, 2013). In some studies, life satisfaction and positive affect are also lower for women (Shmotkin, 2007). There is also evidence for a higher prevalence of mental illness for women as compared to men, especially in regard to major depression (Russo & Green, 2010). Women consistently reported more negative emotions than men and rated their subjective health lower than men (Sáenz-Herrero, 2012). The study sought to establish whether these differential emotional related reactions were experienced among the male and female students that encountered the 2007 PEV.

In many societies, the average living situation of women is indeed disadvantaged as compared to that of men (Ridgeway, 2008). Opportunity structures and action resources are unequally distributed among gender in many societies. The situation is similar in Kenya where resources are unequal distributed. The study sought to establish how PEV affected the

male and female students and the vulnerability of the female students which could give differences in their reactions to PEV.

2.6 Influence of PEV on Students' Academic Performance

Academic achievement or (academic) performance is the outcome of education - the extent to which a student, a teacher or an institution has achieved their educational goals. Academic achievement is commonly measured by use of continuous assessments though there is no general agreement on how it should be tested or which aspects are most important (Ward, Stoker & Murray-Ward 2010). In California, the achievement of schools is measured by the Academic Performance Index.

Academic achievement consists of two broad groups of definitions that are employed when assessing academic performance. First, Hall (2012) defines academic achievement as the numerical scores of a student's knowledge, which measured the degree of a student's adaption to academic work and to educational system. The second group of definitions suggested that academic success is reliant upon the students' altitudes towards his as her academic achievement, and depend on oneself (Sitkowski, 2009). Consequently, academic achievement could be defined as the self – perception and self – evaluation of one's objective academic success (Klobal & Musek, 2011). Academic achievement in this study referred to academic performance in the form of a numerical score or grade as obtained in an examination.

According to Muola (2008), examinations have been accepted by educationists and other stakeholders as an important aspect of our educational system. He further reported that examinations have always been used as the main basis for judging student's ability and also as a means of selection for educational advancement and employment. The poor academic performance among the students has drawn the attention of the government, educationist, teachers, administrators, researchers and even students. This is because good academic results are anticipated by parents, teachers and the community at large. Education is expected to develop the youth for natural development among other objectives. The 2007 PEV could have influenced students' academic performance as a learning environment was interrupted.

Good academic performance calls for good mind and body. Amayo (2007) had noted that man is endowed with a powerful brain capable of thinking, a very complex machine, much

more complicated than a computer. Violence interrupted learning, destroyed learning resources, displaced people and caused food shortage (Gitahi & Mwangi, 2008). The students may have been negatively affected by what they encountered, which could translate into academic related problems. There are three key elements that may lead to poor academic performance: Parents (family causal factors).This covered a wide range of issues such as the effectiveness of parents in child rearing skills, financial status and the family setup. The teachers (academic causal factors) play a key role in academic as they are entrusted in transmitting knowledge and skills to the students. The students (personal causal factors) are the core element subjected to the process of teaching and learning process (Gonzalez, 2012). Post-election violence may have influenced all these factors leading to lowered academic performance.

The student's personal causal factors include cognitive and non – cognitive factors (Bell, 2012). The cognitive factors include 1Q and standardized tests scores while, non cognitive factors include self-concept and motivation as key factors in academic performance. Most research has concentrated on cognitive factors while affective factors have been ignored. Sharma (2011) claimed that academic self-concept and academic motivation have the most potential of being directly influenced by the regular classroom teacher and should be of primary concern. Hence the need for teachers to understand the roles they play in students academic efforts and enhance them. The study sought to establish whether 2007 PEV had any influence on students' academic performance.

Self-concept refers to the person's total appraisal of his /her appearance, background and origin, abilities and resources, altitudes and feelings, which culminate as directing force in behaviour (Sharma, 2011). It includes altitudes, beliefs and perceptions held by the student about their academic skill, sets and performance. Research by Yoon (2010) suggested that self-concept helped to predict academic performance. This was in line with the theory that consistent success or failure has an effect on self-concept, and that good level of academic achievement is influenced by an individual's self-concept of ability. He further reported that educators need to have an understanding of self-concept and what it involves as it is essential in achieving its ultimate goal of developing the individual's highest potential possible. In addition, an awareness of the role self-concept plays in human behaviour and development would enable educators to deliberately introduce ways of maximizing self-concept as an integral part of whatever they do in their interactions with learners. Sharma (2011) indicated

that a higher self-concept is associated with greater academic achievement among the students.

Self-concept resulted from the subject internalization of his or her social image (Yoon, 2010). It is developed from different interactions with the social context and great importance assigned to acceptance or rejection from others, especially significant others. These may include parents, teachers and peers. Marsh, Parker and Smith (2011) proposed a hierarchical and multifaceted model of self-concept in which there exist one general factor and several specific ones, the latter included academic self-concept. For Sanchez (2006), academic self-concept is at the base of future school success or failure, having been formed starting in early childhood education from peer contact and teachers' attitudes and expectations. One interesting study reported positive self-concept as one of risk-reducing factor against academic failure in case of unfavourable family situations (Fullana, 2012). Thus positive self-concept could be enhanced to assist students who are underperforming.

Studies by Castejon and Perez (2008) using a causal-explicative model, emphasized that academic self-concept directly influence global performance of the student. Another research found out that the greater the students' self-concept, the more learning strategies will be used to facilitate a deep information processing system (Nunez, Gonzalez, Garcia, & Roces 2003). In other studies, self-concept is found to be a better predictor of performance than other variables such as age and student's gender (Edwards, 2012). Wylie (2009) reported that self-concept influence performance directly by means of its influence on intrinsic motivation. In another research it was shown, by means of an analysis of structural equation how self-concept related casually to performance, but not vice-versa (Gonzalez 2012).The study sought to establish whether 2007 PEV had any influence on self-concept and motivation among the secondary school students which could directly influence academic performance.

 Related to self concept is motivation. Motivation is a process that influences the direction, persistence and vigour of goal-directed behaviour (Passer and Smith, 2012). It is considered to be the element that initiates the subject's involvement in learning. When a student is strongly motivated, all the efforts and personality are directed toward the achievement of a specific goal, thus bringing to bear all his other resources (Gonzalez, 2012). A consensus exist among the diverse motivational theories and approaches in as much as they conceptualized motivation in terms of conscious beliefs and values. Some research claimed

that motivation maintains a circular relationship with the level of information (Roces, 2005). In another research, motivation was found to be one of the elements that most distinguished those required to repeat a school year from those being promoted (Burgaleta, Valverde, & Fernandez, 2006).

Yoon (2010) in his study in South Africa found that academic self-perception and motivation are the two factors that predicted academic achievement the best. Russo and Green (2010) held the same view when they declared that motivation and self-concept are closely tied to students' economic and long-term health and wellbeing. Research by Farmer (2012) showed that motivation plays prominent role in the academic performance of learners. Gibson and Mitchell (2008) declared that a high level of motivation and engagement in learning is generally regarded as one of the most important outcome. Thus, academic self-concept and motivation are two important variables in academic performance and can predict academic performance. This research sought to determine the influence of PEV on these variables that are important in academic performance.

Another personal factor that might influence academic performance is self-esteem. Self-esteem has been defined as one's overall self-competence and self-worth (Fibel & Hale, 2009). Further, self-confidence is the conviction that one is generally capable of producing desired results. Self-worth or self-respect is essentially accepting oneself unconditionally and having the feeling that one is worthy living and attaining happiness. Numerous studies showed a positive correlation between self-esteem and academic achievement (Barker, 2011). Research indicated that self-esteem is a better predictor of academic success than measured intelligence.

Research had shown that underachievers are generally less confident, less ambitious, less self-accepting and lacked a sense of personal worth (Kernis, 2012). Further feeling worthless could be depressing and depression generally inhibited performance. People who felt worthy, able and competent are more likely to achieve their goals than those who felt worthless, impotent and incompetent (Barker, 2011). Research shows that academic achievement influences the level of self-esteem. Successful academic performance enhanced self-esteem (Bills, 2011). Similarly, poor academic performance tends to erode students level of self-esteem. The study sought to determine whether the 2007 PEV had any influence on students' self-esteem which could influence their academic performance.

Individual differences in academic performance have been linked to differences in intelligence and personality (Sofie, Benedik & Tomas 2011). Students with higher mental ability as demonstrated by IQ tests (quick learners) and those who are higher in conscientiousness (linked to effort and achievement motivation) tend to achieve highly in academics. A recent meta-analysis study suggested that mental curiosity (as measured by typical intellectual engagement) has an important influence on academic achievement. The study sought to establish whether PEV had any influence on this mental curiosity.

Student's personal effort had been pointed out by researchers as a key contributor to academic performance. Ongeti (2012) had identified student's effort, previous school, parent's educational background, family income, self motivation of students, age of students, learning preferences and entry qualification of students as important factors that have influence on students' academic performance in different settings. The study sought to establish the influence of PEV on all these factors as they are core issues in academic performance of students.

2.6.1 The Influence of PEV on Students' Home Environment and Academic Performance

Children go through a transition as they leave the semi-structured home environments to join structured learning environments when they join nursery school. Early academic achievement enhanced later academic achievement (Farmer, 2012). Parent's academic socialization is a term that described the way parents influence students' academic achievement by shaping students' skills, behaviours and attitudes towards school (Katherine, 2007). Further parents influence students through the environment and the level of discourse that parents have with their children. Highly educated parents tend to have more stimulating learning environments than those that were lowly educated. Learners whose parents support them during studies are more likely to bear favourable results than those who don't get any support (Adell, 2011). Children's first few years of life were crucial to the development of language and social skills (Kerry, 2011).Further school preparedness in these areas help students to adjust to academic expectancies. The 2007 PEV may have interfered with the parent's ability to support their children's academic work at home. The study sought to establish whether the 2007 PEV affected this preparedness of students before joining school since it would later affect their academic performance.

Gonzolenz (2012) had considered family background as the most important and most weighty factor in determining the academic performance attained by the students. Among family factors of great influence are social class variables, educational and family environment. A research carried out in Spain on student's performance in secondary school revealed that upper-class students, showed better use of cognitive strategies than those of lower social class (Adell, 2011). The 2007 PEV had negative influence on parents' socio-economic factors which had the potential of initiating academic problems.

A family's economic status has multiple influences on a child's academic life. Marsh and Yeng (2012) had reported that parents with more money have more resources and often more leisure time available, that potentially offered their children an academic head start. The opposite is also true. Parents who often lead more stressful lives are more likely to live in neighbourhoods where violence, drugs and crime are common (Melby, Conger, Feng Wickpama, & Conger, 2011). To crown it, parents of lower socio-economic status might be too stressed to invest the energy needed for authoritative parenting. The 2007 PEV may have negatively affected the socio-economic status of the victims and also affected the parenting efficiency of the parents. This may be manifested in poor academic performance.

The home environment has been the centre of interest to many scholars on its role in determining student's academic performance. Guaetz (2009) conducted a study on socio-economic status of the parents and concluded that the socio-economic background of students had a great impact on the students' academic performance and main source of educational imbalance among the students. Students' academic success depended very strongly on parents' socio-economic standards. Deka (2011) reported that social and economic advantage definitely strengthened the higher level success in future. Further, these parents made available sufficient psychological and emotional share up to their children by providing good educational and learning environment that produce confidence and improvement of skills needed for success .A supportive family environment with parents' behaviours such as praise, help, encouragement, physical affective and expression of terms endearment are positively related to academic achievement of adolescent (Jeynes, 2010). This is in contrast with Pedrosa, Norberlo, Rafael, Cibele and Benilton (2010) in their study on social and educational background which reported that students who mostly came from deprived socio-economic and educational back ground performed relatively better than others coming from

higher socio-economic and educational sections of the society .They named this phenomenon as educational elasticity.

Deka (2011) observed that children who came from families having low income make known more subsequent model in terms of learning outcome; low literacy , low retention rate, problems in school behaviour and more difficulty in their studies and mostly displayed negative attitudes towards studies and school. A similar view was echoed by Sharma (2011) who reported that students who came from low socio-economic status or area showed low academic performance in studies and obtained low scores as compared to other students. The PEV negatively affected the socio-economic status of the students. The study sought to establish the influence of lower socio-economic status on academic performance of students in Nakuru County.

Affective and relational variables affect academic performance (Boute, 2012). A research by Kerry (2011) reported that the most influential family components on academic performance are not socio-cultural or economic, but rather related to affective or psychological dimensions. These dimensions related to a positive cultural environment and favoured scholastic performance. It is affective and relationship variables, which most stand out as factors in academic performance. The 2007 PEV led to death of some parents and displacement of people including secondary school students (CIPEV, 2008). The study sought to determine the influence of 2007 PEV on family relationships and academic performance.

The influence of the family educational climate is defined by the amount and style of help that children receive from the family (Marches & Martin, 2009). Parental expectations have a notable influence on academic results. Buote (2012) had reported that the level of family cohesion and family relationships are capable of predicting performance. Post-election violence may have influenced all these facets of interrelationships that may adversely influence emotional wellbeing and academic performance. The parenting style is also influential in the students' educational process as well as in family-school relationships (Castejon & Pere, 2008). A positive family climate favours the development of well-adapted, mature, stable and integrated students, an unfavourable family climate promote non-adaptable immaturity, lack of balance and insecurity (Topor, 2009).

2.6.2 The Influence of PEV on School Environment and Students' Academic Performance

The school environment and teachers' expectation of students play a key role in determining students' academic performance. DeSantis (2011) had reported that school environment and teachers' expectations of their students has a strong influence on students' performance. Most teachers who are working in poor schools or schools with poor basic facilities often have low performance expectations from them, which lead to poor performance by the students.

This author found that teacher's expectations significantly influence students' results. The teacher's assessment was mediated by two variables.

 i) The students intelligence, that is, the greater the intelligence, the better the academic results and the better reciprocal appreciation between teacher and student.

 ii) Family support makes the student value his teacher more highly (pp.112).

Other studies found positive relationships between the teacher's motivation and that of student (Atkinson, 2007). Further, teacher-pupil relationships are also mediated by the teacher's attribution of poor performance to the students. School variables entailed the student's teachers and his or her peers. Student's socio-cultural level and his previous attitudes indirectly influenced the results of learning, since they delimit classroom procedures (Marches & Martin, 2009).The study sought to establish the influence of 2007 PEV on all these variables as they relate to academic performance of secondary students in Nakuru County.

Owoeye (2012) approved that the performance of students is influenced by the number of facilities a school offered which determined the quality of school, which in turn affected performance and accomplishment of its students. All these researches agreed with this principle that schools put strong effect on academic performance and educational attainment of students. The 2007 PEV led to some schools being burnt down while some students got displaced. The study sought to establish the influence of PEV on school environment which could influence academic performance of secondary school students.

There are various practices pertaining to the students' admission requirements. Some educational institutions admit students' indiscriminately, whereas others select them on basis of previous academic achievement or results on aptitude tests. In Kenya, secondary schools are classified as National, county and sub- county schools (GoK, 2011). Entry to these schools is mainly determined by Kenya certificate of primary education (KCPE) result

although other factors such as parental socio-economic factors and interests are also influencing factors.

It is generally assumed that the students who show better or higher performance in the starting classes of their studies also performed better in future academic years. Deka (2011) reported that measurement of student's previous educational outcome is the most important indicator of students' future achievements. For them, the higher the previous performance status is, the better the students' performance in the future. Thus the students who scored high marks and found entry to national schools and county schools would perform better in future examinations as opposed to those who did not do well. Apewokin (2010) disagreed with these assumptions that future academic gains are resolute by proceeding performance. In his research on the relationship between previous academic performance and subsequent achievement at the university level, he found that student learning or studying at graduate level and score scored did not predict any academic achievement at the university level. The same could be held to be true with secondary school students. The score scored at primary level does not always reflect the future score at the KCSE.

2.6.3 The Influence of PEV on Counselling Among the Students

Counselling is the process through which the counsellor attempts to understand and help the pupil or student clarify those feelings and emotions that impede their growth, maturation and wellbeing (Wango & Muigai, 2007). Further, the counsellor must lead the learners through a process of self-discovery which enhances the personal growth and raises the self-esteem of the learners.

Some students may be lacking basic needs as a result of post-election. Poverty, constant criticism, unemployment, racism and sexism undermine people's sense of competence, personal control and self-esteem (Myers, 2012). Destruction of property that was encountered during 2007 PEV pushed the poverty index higher for the victims. Houses were burnt down, and business premises rooted. Some of the victims of these activities ended in IDP camps where they had to rely on social welfare services (CIPEV, 2008). This may have influenced the students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

The ability to confide in others or to consciously confront one's feelings and perception may eliminate the physiological problem associated with the event (Taylor, 2008). Hence, there is

the need to encourage the students to share their thoughts and feelings with other people that is a correct roadmap to healing. In one long-term European study, people who were experiencing high stress levels but were emotionally restrained to express negative feelings, had a higher likelihood of developing cancer than highly stressed people who were not so emotionally restrained (Taylor, 2008). The 2007 PEV may have led to health implication problems to the victims.

The counsellor provides counselling services for a person who shows signs of unhappiness, anger, inability to meet needs, inability to get aspirations into fruition, anxiety neurosis and frustration (Makinde, 2005). It is assumed that a person is unhappy when powerful needs are not being met (Developmental Research Programs, 2011). A person's problem behaviour might be either due to failure to do what is required of him or engages in self-defeating behaviour. The reason a person's behaviour is inadequate is that one may lack information to correct the behaviour, or the information is inadequate or incorrectly analysed. This creates a situation where counselling services is needed. The PEV may have created situations that require counselling interventions for students to lead productive lives. This may include various kinds of losses encountered; negative emotions such as trauma and economic adjustments. The 2007 PEV may have forced the victims to experience frustrations as a result of unmet needs. These needs included basic needs for survival like adequate food supply, clean water, shelter and others (CIPEV, 2008). The counselling services will be required to facilitate emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

The school counselling process is distinct from any other educational monitoring process (Wango & Muigai, 2007). Further, it is rooted in a deep conviction that some people are capable of assisting others come to grips with problems of daily life. This revolves around issues that are in the eyes of the individuals, or in the eyes of others, the individual is not managing as well as they should. (Egan, 2012) argues that issues have to do with a problem situation, missed opportunities or unused potentials. Problem situation includes anger, anxiety, concerns, crisis difficulties, doubts, fears, frustrations or yearns and other related issues. Missed opportunities have to do with either the resources that the person is not making use of or opportunities they are not developing. Unused potential is a situation where persons are not as effective as they should be and where the person feel they would like to do more, be more constructive and live more meaningful lives. The secondary school students who

were victims of post-election violence encountered such issues and were in need of counselling services.

In some schools, the department of guidance and counselling may not be fully functional (GoK, 2011). The teachers in charge do not know what to do or where to start from. The students are left to be governed by the school rules and regulations that some students barely understand (Macharia, 2004). These students feel frustrated and work under pressure not to go against the school rules and regulations. On the contrary, the naughty students try to test the effectiveness of these rules and regulations by going against them deliberately to see the extent of reaction and the direction administration would take (Owira, 2007).

Student's problems seriously interfere with the learning process and at times make teaching virtually impossible (Gordon, 2011). Some students may experience strong feelings or emotional distress because their security is threatened. This is mainly when they have unmet physiological needs or when they think they are isolated, unworthy, or unloved. All these points to the fact that students need help from the teachers in more ways other than book learning.

Most teachers would help students with life problems, but very few have had training other than their life experiences. The teacher training at all levels do not provide adequate knowledge and skills in guidance and counselling (MOEST, 2011). Lack of knowledge and skills in guidance and counselling provide ill-equipped guidance and counselling teachers. To make the situation worse, teachers fail to be helpful because they do not know how to respond effectively (Gordon, 2011). It is what they say to a student with a problem that makes them as often ineffective as helping persons. Majority of the teachers discourage the students rather than address their needs.

2.7 Gender difference in Academic Performance among Students

Academic performance is affected by a host of factors (Ferngold, 2008). These include individual and household characteristics such as students' ability, motivation, the quality of secondary education and the like. The gender of the student may also be a factor in determining student's performance, childhood experience, gender differences in altitudes, parental and teacher's expectations and behaviours, differential course taking and biological differences between the sexes may all be instrumental in giving rise to gender differences in achievement

Mackintosh (2009) claimed that there is no sex difference in general intelligence. He had defined general intelligence as the sum total of verbal comprehension, reasoning and spatial abilities. A similar view was reported by Hyde and Plant (2010) who found no significant gender differences in cognitive abilities. Some limited differences existed in areas such as females consistently scored higher than males on tests of verbal fluency, reading comprehension, spelling and basic reading skills. Males consistently outperformed females on tests measuring the ability to mentally rotate three dimensional figures (Collins & Kimuru, 2009). On the other hand, women were significantly better than men at remembering the location of subjects (Silverman & Eals, 2010). On average, males do slightly better than females on tests of mathematical ability (Hyde & Plant, 2010).

There appears to be no consistence on gender and academic performance. Owuor (2013) analyzed sex differences in the eighth grade mathematics performance of over 77,000 students in 19 developed and developing countries. He found no evidence of a significant gender gap. Both cross-national variation in sex differences in mathematical performance and the trends towards less of a difference between males and females question only innate male superiorly in intelligence. The study sought to shed some more information on gender difference in academic performance.

In contrast, Chudowsk (2009) had investigated academic performance at pre-collegiate level and found that female students obtained higher better grades compared to their male counterparts. A similar report was given by Chrisler and McCreary (2010) who examined sex-related difference in classroom grade and found that in contrast to standardized measures of mathematics achievement tests, female student's outperformed males in mathematics classes. Balk (2009) arrived at a similar conclusion for history classes verses history tests

The authors explained this pattern by stating that females tended to work more consciously and had a stronger work ethic than males. They also tended to have better language abilities which included essay writing skills, vocabulary and word fluency which contributed to better course work. Forgasz, (2011) had reported that although gender difference in mathematics achievement continued to exist on high cognitive level, such differences appear to be declining.

Younger, Warrliglon and Williams (2010) focused on the gender gap in English secondary schools. Their analysis was based on the performance of boys and girls in General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) in United Kingdom (UK) and girls were found to get better grades than boys. According to them, this phenomenon is explained by boys' disregard for authority, academic work and formal achievement, differences in students' attitudes to work and their goals aspiration and girls increased maturity and more effective learning strategies. Most studies show that on average, girls do better in school than boys. Girls get higher grades and complete high school at a higher rate compared to boys (Jacobs, 2011). Further, standardized achievement tests also show that females are better at spelling and performed better on tests of literacy, writing and general knowledge. An international aptitude test administered to fourth graders in 35 countries, showed that females outscored males on reading literacy in every country. Men are more accurate in target-directed skills, such as throwing and catching objects and they tend to perform slightly better on tests of mathematics reasoning (Collin & Kimuru, 2009). Women on average, perform better on tests of perceptual speed, verbal fluency, and mathematics calculation and on precise manual tasks requiring fine coordination.

A research done by Voyer and Voyer (2014) used meta-analysis to combine the results of 286 separate studies investigating gender differences in spatial abilities. The meta-analysis revealed that males tend to do better than females do on some, but not on all tests of spatial abilities. The meta-analysis also showed that gender differences in spatial ability have decreased in recent years. A possible explanation for this decrease is the changing educational practices that have helped narrow the gap between males' and females' reasoning on spatial abilities. Today, the average difference between males and females on natural mathematics tests is small. However, it is true twice as many males as females score in the very highest range the top 3 percentage in mathematics ability tests.

Some researchers believe that cognitive differences between the sexes, such as the females' advantage on verbal skills and the male advantages on spatial skills, are due to sex difference in brain function or organisation (Collins & Kimuru, 2009). Psychologists have proposed explanations for the gender difference, citing both biological and environmental factors. The environmental explanations focused on the socialization experiences that males and females had as they grew up especially the kinds of sex-typed activities that boys and girls are steered into (Crawford & Chaffin, 2012). For example before the 1980s, boys were far more likely

than girls to play sports that involve throwing and catching balls, this might help account for their general supervisory in this ability. Men's roles such as navigation and hunting, favoured the development of the visual-spatial abilities that show up in sex-different research. Women's roles, such as child-rearing and tool-making activities, favour the development of verbal and manual precision abilities (Joseph, 2011).

Biological explanations have increasingly focused on the effects of hormones on the development of the brain (Rubin & Pfaff, 2008). These influences begin during a critical period shortly after conception, when the sex hormones effects go far beyond reproductive characteristics. They also alter brain organization and appear to extend to a variety of behaviour differences between men and women, including aggression and problem-solving approaches (Nelson & Luciano, 2013). Hormonal factors also influence performance later in life, as fluctuations cycle relate to fluctuations in task performance. Colon and Lynn (2014) asserted that males have larger brain sizes than females and therefore would be expected to have higher average IQs.

Forgasz (2011) had reported that poor mathematical reasoning skills exhibited by many female adolescents have several educational implications. They found that beginning at the age twelve, girls begin to like mathematics and science less and start to like language arts and social studies more than boys. By high school, girls self-select out of higher-level tasks as mathematics and science courses, such as calculus and chemistry. One of the long-term consequences of these choices is that girls lack the prerequisite high school mathematics and science courses necessary to pursue certain majors in college (e.g., engineering, computer science). Consequently, the number of women who pursue advanced degrees in these fields is significantly reduced (Rubin & Pfaff, 2008).

Some researchers, on the other hand, argued that the gender gap in mathematics is biologically driven. Selected research showed that prenatal hormones circulating in the brain encouraged differential development in the hemispheres of male and female foetuses (Ridgeway, 2008). Others believed that intelligence has its roots in genetics. On the other hand there is evidence, however, that socio-cultural factors may influence girls' attitudes toward mathematics and science. For example, parents tend to view mathematics as more important for sons and language arts and social studies as more important for daughters (Schoon & Eccles, 2014). Parents are more likely to encourage their sons to take advanced

high school courses in chemistry, mathematics, and physics and have higher expectations for their success (Schoon & Eccles, 2014), as opossed to their daughters.

Teacher characteristics and the classroom environment also had been identified as contributors to this gender gap. Barker (2011) had found that Seventh and eighth graders attending mathematics and science camps have identified a mathematics or science teacher as a person who has made mathematics, science, or engineering interesting for them. He has further proposed that classroom environments could be made to be more "girl-friendly" by incorporating the following;

   i.   Low levels of competition, public drill, and practice

   ii.   High levels of teacher attention

   iii.   Hands-on activities

   iv.   Female role models

   v.   Same-sex cooperative learning communities

   vi.   Non-sexist books and materials (p.81)

Fortunately, sex differences in mathematical reasoning have begun to decline and females' enrolment is up in mathematics and science courses. Programs designed to interest girls in mathematics and science and that demonstrate how this knowledge will allow them to help others appear to be working. The study sought to determine whether there was gender difference in academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

2.8 The Theoretical Framework

The following theories guided this study:

   i)   Trauma theory
   ii)   Social learning theory
   iii) A better theory of wellbeing
   iv) A theory of educational productivity

2.8.1 Trauma Theory

Trauma occurs when a sudden, unexpected overwhelming intense emotional blow or series of blows assault the person from outside (Terr, 2009). Further traumatic events are external but they quickly become incorporated into the mind. (Deykin (2012) has also reported that traumatisation occurs when both internal and external resources are inadequate to deal with

external threat. Hence it is not the trauma itself that does the damage, it is how the individuals mind and body reacts in its own unique way to the traumatic experience in combination with the unique response of the individual's social group. According to this theory, the PEV that was experienced by the students could not lead to traumatic experience per say, but it was how the individual student's mind and body reacted to the PEV. Hence the PEV per say could not influence emotional wellbeing but it is how the body and mind of victims reacted to it.

Van der Kolk (2011) has indicated that people are vulnerable to the effects of trauma such as flashback, body, memories, post- traumatic nightmares and behavioral reenactment. All these impede maximum performance in a variety of ways. Further human brains function best when they are adequately stimulated but simultaneously protected from overwhelming stress. The PEV experiences created overwhelming stress especially to those who lost parents, exposed to life threatening situations and got displaced (CIPEV 2008). This explains need for order, safety and adequate protection for to function adequately.

Human beings are biologically equipped to protect self through the basic internal protective mechanism called fight or flight reactions (Cliffs, 2009). When one perceives danger, the body makes a massive response that affects all the other organs. Each episode of danger connects to every other episode of danger in the mind, so that the more danger one is exposed to, the more sensitive one is to danger. With each experience of fight or flight, the mind forms a network of connections that get triggered with every new threatening experience. Thus the students who experienced PEV have already formed a network of connections that will get triggered in future in every new threatening experience which might come their way. There is need to create safe environment in order to help those students who were traumatized by PEV.

If a person is able to master the situation of danger by successfully running away (flight) or winning the fight (fight) or getting help from any another source, the long term effect of developing trauma is lessened (Ehrenreich, 2007). In many situations considered to be traumatic, the victim is helpless and it is this helplessness that is a problem to an individual. Some students who experienced PEV might have encountered such situations especially those who were displaced and their property were vandalised or burnt down. These interventions designed to help people overcome traumatised experiences must focus on

mastery and empowerment while avoiding further experiences that may enhance helplessness among students. This calls for capacity building among the students to equip them to handle challenges in life.

Stress affect the way people remember things, process new memories and access old memories (Bell, 2012). Further, there are two different memory systems in the brain. One system is for normal learning and remembering that is based on words and the other one is largely non-verbal. Under normal conditions, the two memory systems function in an integrated manner. When a person is overwhelmed with fear, the individual loses the capacity for speech, the capacity to put words to experience. Without words, the mind shift to mode of thinking that is characterized by visual, auditory, kinesthetic images, physical sensation and strong feelings (*Lewis et al 2012*). These powerful images, feelings and sensations do not just "go away" but they are deeply imprinted. According to this theory the students who experienced PEV and the negative emotions associated with it will live with those strong negative feelings unless counseling interventions are made available to them.

This kind of memory is difficult to erase. A flashback is a sudden intrusive re-experience of a fragment of one of these traumatic non-verbalised memories (Terr, 2009). Further flashbacks are more likely to occur when people are upset, stressed, frightened or when triggered by an association to the traumatic event. The students who were victims of PEV may encounter flashbacks which may interfere with their memory which is a core element in their academic pursuits. Environments should be created with opportunities for them to talk about PEV experiences. There is need to put in place programs that focuses on non-verbal expression such as art, music dance and theater. All these can be enhanced in a school set up to help students effectively cope with PEV experiences.

2.8.2   A Better Theory of Emotional Well-Being

This theory holds that typically every individual has happiness function (well-being) that depends on a variety of domains (Myer 2010). The domain that is typically of most importance is material living level, family concerns, emotional stability and self discipline. All the students who experienced PEV could have had their happiness (Well-being) negatively affected as a result of the disruptions they experienced. The material living level was negatively affected as a result of the loss they encountered. Family concerns increased with the aftermath of PEV while emotional stability was thwarted.

The typical person is taken to have certain goals or aspirations in each domain and a current state of attainment in each domain (Fredrickson 2008). Further the overall happiness of the individual depends on the shortfall between aspirations and attainment in each domain, and the relative importance of each domain in the individual's utility function. The students who experienced PEV could have had their goals or aspirations negatively affected. For example the disruption they encountered could have been contributing factors to their poor academic performance. This brought a shortfall between their aspirations and attainment. This could have negatively affected their well being (happiness). Those who had great attachment in academic pursuit may have been more affected than those who had less attachment.

Each individual has only a given amount of time to allocate among different domains and their constituents. The happiness of an individual can be increased by allocating his or her time to those domains and constituents of domains in which hedonic adaption and social comparison are less important. Thus those students who experienced PEV and their performance were negatively affected could undo this by allocating more time to academic pursuits. This would lead to improved academic performance leading to increased happiness (well being).

People are likely to allocate a disproportionate amount of time to the pursuit of pecuniary rather than non pecuniary objectives, as well as comfort and positional goods and to shortchange goals that will have a more lasting effect on well being (Graham & Pettino 2011). Further this misallocation occurs because in making decisions about how to use their time, individuals take their aspirations as fixed at their present. Any given set of circumstances depends partially on ones history and the comparison with the situation of others. This evidence suggests that the students' feeling about the PEV will partially depend on their history and the comparison of other students. Those students who lost parents, others got displaced and settled in IDPs camp would have their well being (happiness) negatively affected. Their previous life was far much better than the life in the IDPs camps. This will also further be enhanced through social comparison with other students in school who did not experience PEV.

Other factors that may influence wellbeing are genetic and personal traits (Morgan 2013). There are some exceptional people (students) who have certain characteristics that contribute to positive outcome even in the face of stress life events (Efklides & Moraitou 2012). Hence

it's possible that some students who encountered PEV may perform very well in school and overall maintain their well being level. According to this theory some students may fail in their academic pursuits because of hedonic adaptations and social comparisons. They may give in to peer-pressure and forget their aspirations which will affect their wellbeing in the end.

According to this theory, both pecuniary and non pecuniary circumstances affect well being (Berkman & Glass, 2012). The most important factor is pecuniary, one's material level (academic performance and achievement is seen by many as a vehicle to material possession) and non pecuniary factors, family and health. The family environment affects academic performance among the students which may lead to emotional related concerns if the family outcome is not positive.

The family setup was disrupted by PEV which could negatively influence students' wellbeing. Health is paramount among the students. This is a basic need that must be met before the students can seek intellectual pursuits. After this come job circumstances (Work Utility) and considerations having to do with personal character or aspirations in each domain (Graham & Pettlin, 2011). Further, ones overall well being depends on the extent to which the various goals are fulfilled and the relative importances of the domains in one's utility function. The theory also recognizes that one's feelings about any given set of circumstances depend partly on history and partly on comparison with the situation of others.

2.8.3 Social Learning Theory

People learn through observing others' behaviour, attitudes, and outcomes of those behaviours (Cliffs, 2009). Most human behaviours are learned observationally through modelling. This may be from observing others or one forming an idea of how new behaviours are acquired. On later occasions, such an individual may use this coded information as a guide for action (Bandura, 1983). Social learning theory explains human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental influences. Necessary conditions for effective modelling:

(i) Attention: various factors increase or decrease the amount of attention paid. Includes distinctiveness, affective valence, prevalence, complexity, functional value. One's characteristics (e.g. sensory capacities, arousal level and perceptual set, past reinforcement) affect attention.

(ii) Retention: remembering what you paid attention to. Includes symbolic coding, mental images, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal

(iii) Reproduction: reproducing the image. Including physical capabilities and self-observation of reproduction.

(iv) Motivation: having a good reason to imitate. Includes motives such as a past (i.e. traditional behaviourism), promised (imagined incentives) and vicarious (seeing and recalling the reinforced model), (p.67).

Bandura's Social Learning theory posits that people learn from one another, via observation, imitation, and modelling. Thus, the students who observed PEV may have learnt to become violent. The theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation.

There are three core concepts at the heart of social learning theory (Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 2008). First is the idea that people can learn through observation. In his famous Bobo doll experiment, Bandura demonstrated that children learn and imitate behaviours they have observed in other people. The children in Bandura's studies observed an adult acting violently toward a Bobo doll. When the children were later allowed to play in a room with the Bobo doll, they began to imitate the aggressive actions they had previously observed.

Second, people can learn through intrinsic Reinforcement Bandura noted that external, environmental reinforcement was not the only factor to influence learning and behaviour. He described intrinsic reinforcement as a form of internal rewards, such as pride, satisfaction, and a sense of accomplishment. This emphasis on internal thoughts and cognitions helps connect learning theories to cognitive developmental theories. It is also possible that not all those who observe PEV will become more violent because other factors will influence them. This may include individual differences.

Aggression like other behaviours is influenced by learning process (Anderson & Bushman, 2013). The social learning theory proposes that an individual can learn aggressive behaviour by mere observation of aggressive behaviour (Bandura, 1983). Learning can occur through many ways. There are a number of theories that have been put forward, such as the social learning theory. The social learning theory is the learning that occurs by observing the behaviour of the model. Through observation, we may learn desirable responses or acquire undesirable behaviours (Passer & Smith, 2012). Bandura, (1983) who pioneered the study of

observational learning views modelling as a four-step process involving attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. Research on modelling demonstrates that behaviour and the capacity to perform behaviours may be acquired at one time but not displayed until a later time (Bandura, 1983).

This suggests that the students who observed violence during the post-election violence have learnt to be aggressive as they observed through the various media that covered the events as they unfolded. This will influence their tendency to be aggressive in one way or the other. In brief, research by Shaffer and Kipp (2013) strongly suggests that viewing media violence have the following influence;

(i)   It decreased viewer's concern about the suffering of victims.

(ii) It habituated us (reduces our sensitivity) to the sight of violence

(iii) It provided aggressive models that increased viewer's tendency to act aggressively, (p.78)

It is also true to suggest that viewing media pro-social activities may have the following effects.

i)   It will increase viewers' concern about the suffering of other victims.

ii) It will increase people's sensitivity to the sight of violence.

iii) It will increase viewer's tendency to act pro-social.

There is a need to expose secondary school students to pro-social models. This can be achieved through drama festivals, games and athletics in secondary schools. The 2007 post-election violence increase the viewer's tendency to be aggressive, decreases their concern about the suffering of victims and reduces the sensitivity to the sight of violence. Thus, it paints a grey picture to those who were involved in the conflict and has the potential of perpetuating the cycle of violence.

The poverty index that was raised by PEV affected the parent's role in parenting. Berk (2009) had reported that parents can foster aggression directly through poor supervision of children. Stressful life experiences such as economic hardship and unhappy marriage are associated with a conflict-ridden family which finally could contribute to poor impulse control and antisocial behaviour among the students. The PEV increased stress among the victims. It had negative impact on students' behaviour and could increase aggression among them.

2.8.4 A Theory of Educational Productivity

This theory was advanced by Walberg (1984) He outlines nine key factors that require optimization to increase effective behavioural and cognitive learning. These factors cover students' factors, instructional factors and environmental factors (Sharma, 2011). The student's factors include;

i. Ability or prior achievement as measured by the usual standardized tests. This was also highlighted by Bell(2012) who noted that personal factors such as cognitive factors and non- cognitive factors are key in influencing students ability in academic performance. The cognitive factors include IQ and standardized test scores while non cognitive factors include self-concept and motivation.

ii. Developmental aspect was highlighted by Walberg (1984) as a consistent factor influencing academic performance .Development is indexed by chronological age and stage of maturation an individual has reached. This can be influenced by health status of the child and motivation .The 2007 PEV could have brought about delayed motivation and ill health among the secondary school students as a result of inadequate food supply and other essential services especially for those who got displaced and lived in the IDP camps (CIPEV 2008)

They hardly received enough supply as they depended upon the humanitarian assistance given to them .This had the potential of negatively influencing academic performance as students require a healthy mind and body for academic pursuits to be enhanced (Amayo, 2007).

iii. Motivation or self-concept as indicated by personality tests or the students willingness to persevere   intensely on learning tasks were also cited as casual factors influencing academic performance (Walberg 1984) .A similar view by Yoon (2010)shows that consistent success or failure has an effect on self-concept.
The aftermath of 2007 PEV no doubt could enhance consistent failure in some students' which could have a negative influence on students' self-concept and eventually poor academic performance.

iv. The amount of time students engage in learning is another central factor affecting academic productivity (Walberg, 1984). The 2007 PEV disrupted learning time as

schools got burnt down while some students got displaced (CIPEV 2008) This has the potential of having a negative influence on academic performance.

v. The quality of the instructional experience was cited as a causal factor (Walberg 1984). A similar report by Oweye (2012) noted that schools put a strong effect on academic performance and educational attainment of students in terms of facility provision and quality of learning .The 2007 PEV led to some schools being burnt down while some students got displaced . All these had the potential of negatively influencing on students academic performance.

vi. The home environment was noted as a factor consistently affecting educational performance (Walberg, 1984).A similar view was held by Gauetz (2013) who has concluded that the home environment particularly the socio-economic background of students has a great impact on students academic performance and the main source of educational imbalance among the students. Further ,Deka (2011) has noted that social and economic advantage definitely strengthened higher level of success in the future. The 2007 PEV negatively affected the socio-economic status of students which could definitely weaken the student's academic success in the future.

vii. The classroom social group (viii) and the peer group outside the school are other factors that Welberg (1984) theory noted as consistent causal factors affecting educational productivity. Atkinson (2007) has noted that role of classroom social group and peer group influence on students' academic performance because the students map their academic aspirations and goals to that of their peer group and direct their energy towards that end.

viii. The use of school time especially the amount of leisure time used especially in television watching was noted as a consistent causal factor to academic performance (Walberg, 1994). The PEV disrupted learning environment by destroying learning resources, displaced people and created food shortage (Gitahi and Mwangi 2007). The time that could have been utilised for educational pursuits was used in many occasions on non academic pursuits to address the aftermath of PEV especially need for basic needs. All these factors had the potentiality of leading to poor academic performance.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

This section covers a description of the independent variables (post-election violence) the dependent variables and the interactions with the intervening variables.

Independent Variables	Intervening Variables	Dependent Variables
2007 PEV • Property destruction • Displacement • Injury • Death • Loss of learning time and resources	• Family stability. • Personal traits • Relationship with teachers • Peer relationship • Gender	**Emotional wellbeing** • Depression • Trauma • Anxiety • Despair and hopelessness **Academic performance** • End of term school exams • Concentration • Motivation • Class participation

Figure 4: Effects of PEV on Emotional Wellbeing and Academic Performance

Post-election violence affected emotional wellbeing and academic performance among students not only to the victims of violence, but also to those who watched the events as they were covered by the media. The PEV of 2007 brought about destruction of property, disruption of learning, displacement of people, human injury and even death. There is a possibility of students learning to solve day to day conflicts through aggression as they may have observed others behave likewise during the post-election violence. The students whose houses were burnt down and parents killed may suffer trauma. These effects may give rise to depression and or post-traumatic stress disorder. This may take months or years after post-election violence. It is also possible for some victims to adopt coping mechanism such as helplessness that may have a negative impact on their lives. When student's basic needs are not adequately met, it may be difficult for them to achieve their academic goals leading to poor academic performance. Factors such as family stability, personal trait, relationship with teachers and peers may play a key role in helping the students to adjust to the effects of PEV. The school environments which include the school curriculum, relationship with the peers and the teachers should be a source of hope as far as students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance are concerned.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methods and procedures that were used in the study. They include research design, location of the study, population, sample size and sampling procedure, instrumentation, validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The research employed *ex post facto* causal comparative research design which was appropriate due to characteristics of the population studied. The PEV had already occurred, and treatment of variables before the study was not possible (Kerlinger, 2008). These assessed the relationships among variables with the goal of predictive relationships (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 2010). In this study, inferences were made without manipulation of the independent variable which was the post-election violence (killings, internal displacement of persons, injuries and property destruction). The dependent variables, emotional wellbeing and academic performance were considered as a resultant from the independent variables.

3.3 Location of the Study

The study was carried out in Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi districts in Nakuru County in Kenya. These districts were formerly the greater Molo District. These were some of the districts that were adversely affected by post-election violence. The three districts are situated in the highlands of Kenya in the Rift Valley at 0^0 36' South, 34^0 44' East and the altitude range of 2000 – 3000 meters above sea level. Being on the windward side of the Lake Victoria, the area receives high rainfall of above 2000mm annually, with temperatures ranging from 17-22^oc (MoE.2014). The area is cosmopolitan in nature with different people living in the region. The area is also very productive with cattle keeping and crop farming being the main occupation of the residents.

3.4 Population of the Study

Nakuru County had 210 secondary schools with a population of 12,187 form four students and 210 teacher counsellors. Molo Njoro and Kuresoi districts had 75 secondary schools with a population of 6,380, form four students consisting of 3,296 boys, 3,094 girls and 75 teacher

counsellors (GOK, 2008). This is summarised in table one. The form four students represented the most senior classes in the secondary school system in Kenya. Due to this, they were more reliable in the study since they were better placed to remember the post-election violence as it unfolded and also to assess their academic performance. The students were in the region during the conflict as their parents were peasant farmers in the area. The teacher counsellors form an essential segment of that population as they were directly involved in students' wellbeing. They handle day to day challenges that the students encounter in their academic pursuits.

Table 1

Population of the Study

District	No. of secondary schools	No. of boys	No. of Girls	No. of teacher counsellors
Molo	24	932	1,081	24
Njoro	18	820	962	18
Kuresoi	33	1,544	1,041	33
Total	75	3,296	3,084	75

3.5 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

Purposive sampling was used to select Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi districts from districts that were adversely affected by 2007 PEV and thirty teacher cousellors. It was also used to select 30 schools that were adversely affected by PEV. Simple random sampling was used to select the number of boys and girls for the study from each school while proportionate sampling was used to select 10 schools from Molo, 6 schools from Njoro and fourteen schools from Kuresoi; In Molo, 114 (53 boys and 61 girls) students were selected, 101 (47 boys and 54 girls) students from Njoro and 145 (87 boys and58 girls) from Kuresoi. This is summarised in table 2. A sample of 390 respondents was selected. The study adopted a formula by (Kathuri & Pals, 2004) for estimating a sample n as follows:-

$$n = \frac{x\,Np(1-p)}{\partial^2\,(N-1)+xp(1-p)}$$

Where:

n   = Required sample size

N   = The given population size of form four students 6,380 in this case

p   = Population proportion, assumed to be 0.50.

∂^2 = The degree of accuracy whose value is 0.05.

x   = Table value of Chi-square for one degree of freedom which is 3.841

Substituting these values in the equation, estimated sample size will be

$$n = \frac{3.841 \times 6{,}380 \times 0.50\,(1-0.5)}{(0.05)^2\,(6{,}380-1) + 3.841 \times 0.5 \times (1-0.50)}$$

$$n = 360$$

The required number of schools was calculated by getting the total number of schools per district and dividing it by the total number of schools in the three districts .The result was multiplied by 30 to get the required schools per district. The same principle was used to get the required number of counsellors per district.

Table 2

Distribution of Sample Size

Districts	No. of schools	No. of boys	No. of girls	No. of teacher counsellors
Molo	10	53	61	10
Njoro	6	47	54	6
Kuresoi	14	87	58	14
Total	**30**	**187**	**173**	**30**

3.6 Instrumentation

The researcher developed two questionnaires, one for the students and the other one for teacher counsellors. The student's questionnaire had four sections, section A contained demographic information including students' gender. This was used to give the number of male and female students in issues related to emotional wellbeing and academic performance among secondary school students in Nakuru County. Section B of the student's questionnaire sought students' responses on the extent of PEV. The students' responses were used to generate three levels of PEV low, moderate and high. Section C of the student's questionnaire sought students' responses on emotional wellbeing. Issues such as exposure to life threatening situations, personal injury and life in the IDP's camps were investigated. Emotions such as depression, anxiety and aggression were also investigated. Section D sought to establish how PEV influenced academic performance. This covered issues such as

the influence of PEV on students' concentration, motivation, class participation and other issues that could influence academic performance of students. A total of 38 questions were generated as shown in Appendix A.

The teacher counsellors' questionnaire had four sections. Section A covered demographic information of the teacher counsellors which included their gender, age and training level. Section B covered issues related to the extent of PEV as perceived by the teacher counsellors in their interaction with students in their counselling sessions. Issues relating to parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students, depression among the student, self-esteem, despair and hopelessness among other issues were covered. The extent of students' ability to handle personal issues was also investigated

.

Section C of teacher's questionnaire covered teachers' perception on students' emotional wellbeing. Emotional related issues investigated included aggression among the students and anxiety. Other issues that could have had an emotional bearing that were investigated included exposure to life threatening situations, suffering, personal injury and losing or serious injury of a parent or a primary caregiver.

Section D of teacher's questionnaire covered issues related to PEV and academic performance. Issues such as students' concentration, participation in class, motivation and other issues that would have a bearing on students' academic performance were investigated. The teacher counsellors' questionnaire had 34 questions as shown in Appendix B.

3.6.1 Reliability and Validity

The development of research instruments (questionnaire) was done by examining the research objective, hypothesis and related literature. This was for the purpose of reframing items that examined the crucial variables. The instruments were reviewed by four other social psychology experts. Their comments were used to improve the face validity, content validity and construct validity.

Babble and Muoton (2007) have defined reliability as the consistency with which measures assess a given characteristic. Ten schools, thirty students and thirty teacher counselors from Naivasha district were selected for pilot testing of the instruments. The area experienced PEV and bore the same characteristics as the study area. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to

establish the reliability coefficients of the research instruments. The instruments were considered reliable after they yielded reliability coefficients of 0.72 and 0.76 respectively.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained permission from the Graduate school. A research permit was sought from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and the District Education Officers in Molo, Njoro and Kuresoi districts of the study. Permission was also sought from the various school heads and the DEOs in order to access the schools involved in the study. The researcher explained to the respondents what the research was all about and assured them of confidentiality. Questionnaires were administered to the respondents by the researcher and collected after the respondents had filled them. Data collection procedure took two weeks.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data obtained was processed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 17.0. The instruments were scored on a four point Likert Scale, and the responses were assigned rating scores between 0-4 which were used to determine the measure of attributes. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in data analysis. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentages, and means) were generated to explain various attributes of the variables under study, while inferential statistics (ANOVA and t-Test) were used to test hypotheses. The ANOVA and the t-Test utilised in this study were deemed suitable because it is used to test the significance of differences between means, (Kerlinger, 2008).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents research findings, interpretation of data and discussion. The data was analysed using SPSS version 17.0. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. The hypotheses were tested by application of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and t-test. All hypotheses tests were performed at a significant level of 0.05. Acceptance and rejection of the null hypothesis was based on the calculated test statistics and the value of the probability of significance (P value). The Null hypothesis was accepted if $P \geq 0.05$ and was rejected if $P<0.05$. The chapter further gives a discussion of findings and a comparison with similar studies done. The conclusion made on whether to accept or reject the stated hypotheses were based on the data collected. The results are presented and discussed in the order of the stated objectives followed by the testing of hypotheses.

4.2. Influence of PEV level on Students' Emotional Wellbeing

Objective one sought to establish the influence of 2007 PEV levels on emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County. PEV levels among the students were established by determining the extent of various factors as reported by the respondents. This is summarised in Table 3.

Table 3

Students' Report on PEV Levels

PEV Extent	No Extent 0		Least Extent 1		Slight Extent 2		Moderate Extent 3		High Extent 4	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Extent on student's exposure to life threatening situation	27	7.5	40	11	70	19.3	68	19.8	141	39.0
Extent on student's suffering personal injury	159	43.9	49	5.0	43	11..9	40	11.0	61.9	19.0
Extent on death or serious injury of a parent or primary care giver	102	28.3	36	9.0	26	7.3	47	13.0	132	36.5
Extent on witnessing violence against other people	34	9.4	40	11.0	51	14.1	69	19.1	143	41.2
Extent on parent's ability to provide basic needs of students	40	11.0	45	12.4	51	14.1	61	16.9	160	47.3
Extent on life in IDP's camps on the students	16	4.4	27	7.5	34	9.4	81	22.4	190	52.7
Extent on student's self esteem	26	7.2	47	13.0	19	5.2	68	18.8	195	54.7
Extent on students depression	27	7.5	40	11.0	43	11.9	70	20.9	175	48.7
Extent on student's aggression towards other people	51	14.1	48	13.3	43	11.9	70	19.3	143	41.2
Extent on student's anxiety	41	11.3	54	14.9	61	16.9	70	19.3	130	38.6
Extent on student's despair and hopelessness	26	7.2	47	13.0	19	5.2	68	18.8	195	54.7
Extent on student's abilities to handle personal problems	21	5.8	30	8.3	55	15.7	49	13.5	197	55.4
Mean	47	13.1	41	10.8	43	11.9	66	17.3	153	44.8

The study established three PEV levels; low, moderate and high which brought different influence on students' emotional wellbeing and academic performance.

The students who reported that they did not encounter PEV at any extent were 13.1%, those who reported least PEV extent were 43 (11.9%). Moderate PEV extent was reported by 66

61

(17.3%), while high PEV extent was reported by 153 (44.8%). The study found that high level of exposure to life threatening situation was reported by 141(39.0%) students. High exposure to life threatening situations is associated with negative psychological effects and may result to PTSD. This was supported by American Psychiatric Association (2009). Sorendon (2013) had further noted that trauma caused by human activities such as war, rape and torture tended to precipitate more severe PTSD reactions than do natural disasters. High extent of witnessing violence against other people was reported by 143(41.2%) students. Students' exposure to violence has emotional drawbacks. Osofsky (2010) has indicated that students who have been exposed to violence events are far more likely to suffer from depression than students who have not been exposed to violence. Thus high PEV extent of witnessing violence would lead to depression.

High PEV influence on parents' ability to provide basic needs of their students was reported by 160 (47.3%). This was as a result of raised poverty index which was initiated by losses encountered during PEV. Berk (2009) indicated that stressful life experiences such as economic hardship and unhappy marriage are associated with a conflict ridden family which finally could contribute to poor impulse control and antisocial behaviour among the students. All these would have negative influence on students emotional well being and academic performance.

High PEV influence on extent of life in the IDP camps was reported by (52.7%). The IDPs depended mainly on relief food and they had no means of earning income to make a living (CIPEV 2008). Inadequate basic needs are associated with negative emotional and educational outcome of the students. The study found that the 2007 PEV negatively affected the socio-economic status of the parents involved. A similar report was reported by Emery and Bayliss (2012) who indicated that low social economic status and the accompanying hardships are depressive symptoms which lead to lowered academic performance among the students. Ongeti (2012) had also reported that low socio-economic status is associated with learned helplessness which has negative outcome on the emotional well being of students.

High PEV influence on students' low self esteem was reported by 54.7%. High PEV influence on despair and hopelessness was reported by (54.7%) while PEV on students to handle personal problems was reported by (55.4%) respondents. This study established that PEV negatively influenced students' emotional wellbeing. This study established that PEV enhance negative emotions among the students. A similar view is held by McKay (2009) who

had noted that experiencing and expressing negative emotions had negative influence on academic performance. Dweck (2009) reported that there is a strong relationship between self esteem and academic performance. Highs self esteem students perform significantly better at school than low self esteem students. This study found that PEV had negative influence on student's negative emotions leading negative influence on their academic performance.

4.3. Teacher Counsellors' Report on PEV levels

To affirm the PEV levels, the study used teachers' responses on the extent of PEV as reported to them by students they assisted in reference to PEV levels. The findings are shown in Table 4

Table 4

Teacher Counsellors' Report on PEV Levels

PEV Extent	No Extent 0		Least Extent 1		Slight Extent 2		Moderate Extent 3		High Extent 4	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Extent of PEV on students' exposure to life threatening situation	2	7.5	4	11	5	14.3	6	19.8	12	39.0
Extent of PEV on students' personal injury	13	43.9	2	7.5	4	11.9	4	11.0	7	16.9
Extent of PEV on death or serious injury of a students' parent or a primary care giver	9	28.2	3	9.9	2	7.2	4	13.0	12	36.5
Extent of PEV on students' witnessing violence against other people	3	9.9	4	11	4	14.1	6	19.1	13	39.5
Extent of PEV on students' life in the IDP's camp	1	4.4	2	7.5	3	9.4	7	22.4	17	52.3
Extent of PEV on Students' self esteem	4	11.0	4	12.4	5	14.1	5	16.9	13	47.3
Extent of PEV on students' depression	2	7.5	4	11.0	4	11.9	6	20.7	14	48.7
Extent of PEV on students' Aggression towards other people	4	14.1	4	13.3	4	11.9	6	19.3	12	41.2
Extent of PEV on students anxiety	4	11.3	5	14.9	6	16.9	6	19.3	9	38.6
Extent of PEV on students' despair and hopelessness	2	7.2	4	13.0	2	5.2	6	18.8	16	54.7
Extent of PEV on students' ability to solve personal problems	2	7.5	3	9.4	5	14.1	5	16.9	13	47.3
Mean	**4**	**14.7**	**3**	**11.3**	**4**	**11.7**	**5**	**16.3**	**14**	**46.7**

The three levels of PEV were affirmed by the use of teachers' responses on PEV related variables. The influence of PEV level on student's emotional wellbeing was investigated through the responses reported by the teacher counsellor as shown on Table 4. Four counsellors reported that PEV levels did not have any influence on students. Three counsellors reported least influence, while four respondents reported slight influence. Five counsellors reported slight PEV influence on students' emotional wellbeing while 12 counsellors reported high PEV influence on students .The study established that most of the respondents reported that 2007 PEV had a negative influence on students emotional wellbeing.

Teacher counsellors reported that students were exposed to life threatening situations. Two Counsellors reported no exposure, three respondents reported least exposure, while four respondents reported slight exposure. Five respondents reported moderate exposure to life threatening situations while 14 respondents reported high exposure. The study established that teacher counsellors handled students who were exposed to life threatening situation. This had got negative psychological impact on students' emotional well being as they are vulnerable to suffer post-traumatic stress disorder. Deykin (2012) reported that the symptoms of PTSD could diminish adolescents' perception of self-efficacy and influences their emotional wellbeing.

Traumatic experiences have negative influence on students' emotional wellbeing and could influence their learning. A similar study by Malchiodi (2010) reported that cumulative trauma results in a series of negative consequences for young people's learning abilities. These include problems with the focus of attention, problems with sensory perception and interpretation of complex visual spatial stimuli, reduced capacity to learn from experience and memory related to changes in specific part of the brain. The experience of safety was the basis for active exploration, while traumatised people have a tendency to react to novel information and stimuli either with exaggerated physiological activation or dissociative states. These reaction patterns could be understood as a kind of defence rooted in a basic experience of the world as unsafe place where safety is sought in what is known and new situation or information is avoided. These could negatively affect students' ability to explore which is a key component in the learning process.

The 2007 PEV led to displacement of people including some students who sought refuge in the IDPs' camp. Two respondents reported that life in the IDPs' camp did not have any influence on students .Two respondents reported least influence while three respondents reported slight influence on students. Seven respondents reported that life in IDPs camp had moderate influence on students while17 respondents reported high influence. The extent of life in the IDPs camp was reported by students to the teacher counsellors. This study established that 52.3% of the students lived in the IDPs camp which had negative draw backs on students' emotional well being as well as academic performance. This was because the IDPs camps lacked facilities such as adequate supply of food, water and sanitation (CIPEV 2008). Morgan (2013) reported similar results when he noted that poor housing, economic disadvantage and bereavement were risk factors among the youth which could significantly affect their self esteem and ability to learn.

The teacher counsellors reported that 2007 PEV influenced students' feeling of despair and hopelessness which had a psychological drawback on students. Two respondents reported that PEV had no influence on students' feeling of despair and hopelessness. Four respondents reported least influence while two respondents reported slight PEV influence. Six respondents reported that PEV had moderate influence while 16 respondents reported high PEV influence on students' feeling of despair and hopelessness. This study established that majority of the students experienced despair and hopelessness as reported by teacher counsellors. Despair and hopelessness are negative emotions that influenced students' emotional wellbeing. A similar study by Pekrun and Linnerbrink-Garcia (2012) linked despair and hopelessness with emotional disorders.

Majority of the teachers felt that PEV had negative influence on students' ability to handle personal problems. Two respondents reported that PEV did not have any influence on students' ability to handle personal problems. Three respondents reported that PEV had least influence on students while 5 felt that PEV had slight influence on students. Five respondents reported moderate PEV influence on students' ability to handle personal problems while 16 respondents reported high PEV influence on students. This study established that high PEV had negative influence on students' ability to handle personal problems. Similar study by Seferiades and Johnston (2012) indicated that political violence affects emotional and behavioural aspects of the victims. These include lack of ability to trust and love, loss of self esteem and feelings of loss of personal power, dehumanisation and

desensitisation. The high PEV extent eroded students ability to handle personal problems which negatively influenced their emotional wellbeing. The study sought to determine the influence of PEV on students' emotional wellbeing as analysed on Table 5.

Table 5

Influence of PEV on Students' Emotional Wellbeing

	No Influence		Least influence		Slight influence		Moderate Influence		High Influence	
	0		1		2		3		4	
PEV Levels	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%
Exposure to life threatening situation	27	7.5	40	11	70	19.3	68	19.8	141	39.0
Suffered personal injury	159	43.9	49	5	43	11.9	40	11.0	61	16.9
Death or serious injury of a parent or a primary care giver	102	28.2	36	9.9	26	7.2	47	13.0	132	36.5
Witnessing violence against other people	34	9.4	40	11.0	51	14.1	69	19.1	143	39.5
influence of life in the IDP's camp	16	4.4	27	7.5	34	9.4	81	22.4	190	52.2
Influence on low self esteem	40	11.0	45	12.4	51	14.1	61	16.9	134	47.3
Influence on one's depression	27	7.5	40	11.0	43	11.9	75	20.7	175	48.7
Aggression towards other people	51	14.1	48	13.3	43	11.9	74	19.3	143	41.2
PEV on one's anxiety	41	11.3	54	14.9	61	16.9	74	19.3	130	38.6
PEV on one's despair and hopelessness	26	7.2	47	13.0	19	5.2	68	18.8	195	54.7
PEV on one's ability to solve personal problems	21	5.8	30	8.3	55	15.7	49	13.5	197	55.4
Mean	**43**	**13.7**	**35**	**9.5**	**41**	**12.5**	**53**	**15.6**	**198**	**51.2**

The study established that 43 respondents felt that their emotions were not influenced by PEV. Thirty five respondents reported least PEV influence on their emotional wellbeing while 41 respondents reported slight influence. Fifty three respondents reported moderate PEV influence while 198 respondents reported high PEV influence on students' emotional wellbeing. Hence, the 2007 PEV level had negative influence on emotional well being of secondary school students in Nakuru County.

The study established that 39.0% of the respondents reported high PEV influence on exposure to life threatening situations. The study established that 16% of the respondents suffered personal injury while 39.5% reported loss or serious injury of a parent or a primary caregiver. The Loss of parent or primary care giver disrupted the home, the family relationship, negatively influencing emotional wellbeing of students. The study established that about 40 % of respondents experienced disruptive home relationships through the death or serious injury of a parent or a primary care giver. Similar view has been reported by Riley (2011) who indicated that when children's early experiences are disruptive and one or both of the parents are absent, the developing brain often became insecure and stressed. He had also noted that most children from poverty stricken homes had single parent or caregiver. In poverty stricken homes, children get twice as many reprimands as positive comments as compared with a 3:1 ratio of positive to negative in well to do homes (Harris, 2012). Riley (2011) further indicated that disruptive home relationships often created mistrust in students. He had further observed that classroom misbehaviour is more likely to occur because many children do not have the home stability or repertoire of necessary socio-emotional responses for school work. Students were more likely to be impulsive, use inappropriate language, and act disrespectfully.

The study established 41.2% of the respondents felt that PEV influenced their anger while 38.6% reported that high PEV levels influenced their anxiety. These were negative emotions that influenced the emotional wellbeing of the students. Hence, the study established PEV experiences led to emotional related problems. A similar finding was reported by Storch and McKay (2009) who noted that experiencing and expressing emotions are likely to influence students' learning because of how emotions affect relationships. They further noted that emotional expressions that undermine relationships at school, such as angrily shouting at a teacher, or peer, could be problematic because the quality of peer and student-teacher relationship was consistently linked to positive educational outcomes. A similar finding was reported by Hall (2011) who proposed that students prone to anger could encounter more challenges developing and maintaining relationships in the classroom. Consistent with this study, Christenson, Reschly and Wylie (2011) had reported that negative emotionality leads to low levels of social competence and poor student-teacher relationships. They further indicated that anxious students were likely to have difficulty relating to peers, to be rejected and to exhibit aggressiveness. The negative emotions that were experienced during the 2007 PEV could be mediated through promotion of positive emotions.

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The study established that 47.3% of the respondents reported that high PEV influence lowered their self-esteem while 48.7% of the respondents felt that PEV made them vulnerable to depression. It was established that 38.6% respondents felt high PEV level led to increased anxiety. Those who reported that high PEV influence led to their feeling of despair and hopelessness were 55.4%. Those who reported that PEV lowered their self esteem were 318 (88%) while ability to solve personal problems was reported by 337 (91.8%). This study established that the 2007 PEV had a negative influence on students' self esteem and ability to address personal problems. A similar view was reported by Chall (2011) who indicated a positive association between self-esteem, and scholastic competence. He reported that low self-esteem leads to low academic achievement. Further antisocial behaviour and delinquency have a strong correlation with low academic achievements during adolescence.

Some respondents reported that the 2007 PEV influenced their feelings of depressed. High PEV influence on students' depression was reported by 48.7% of respondents. A similar report by Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) posited that negative emotions interfere with scholarship activities by reducing resources needed to integrate and recall important details. Students prone to anger and anxiety may perform poorly because these emotions decrease their motivation to learning and engaging in classroom activities. Motivation and engagement are reported to be key predictors of academic success (DeSantis, 2011).

Students living in the IDP's camps had negative influence on the student's emotional wellbeing. Majority of the respondents (52.2%) reported high PEV influence on living in IDPs camp. This was as a result of displacement (CIPEV, 2008). Further life in the IDP's camp was wanting as they lacked basic needs. Thus PEV influenced students' emotional wellbeing by increasing emotional problems. This was further affirmed by teacher counsellors' views on PEV influence on students' emotional wellbeing as shown on table 6.

Table 6

Teachers' Views on the Influence of PEV on Students' Emotional Wellbeing

PEV Levels	No Influence 0		Least influence 1		Slight influence 2		Moderate Influence 3		High Influence 4	
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%
Effect on student's depression	-	-	3	10	5	16.7	6	20	16	53.3
Aggression against other students	1	3.3	4	13.3	3	10.0	5	16.7	17	56.8
Feeling of despair and hopelessness among the students.	1	3.3	6	20.0	6	20.0	4	13.3	14	47.7
Feeling low self- esteem among the students	2	6.7	3	10.0	5	16.7	3	10.0	17	56.8
Experiencing anxiety among the students	4	13.7	2	6.7	3	10.0	5	16.7	16	53.3
Life in the IDP's camps among the students	1	3.3	4	13.3	2	6.7	5	16.7	18	59.1
Students ability to handle personal problems	2	6.7	3	10.0	5	16.5	4	13.3	16	53.3
Relationship with other students	3	10.0	2	6.7	4	13.3	3	10.0	18	59.1
Relationship with teachers	4	13.3	3	10	2	6.7	3	10.0	18	59.1
Parent's ability to provide basic needs of the student	2	6.7	2	6.7	4	13.3	5	16.7	17	56.8
Mean	**2**	**6.7**	**3**	**9.7**	**4**	**11.8**	**5**	**13.3**	**16**	**58.7**

Two respondents reported that PEV did not influence students' emotional wellbeing while 2 respondents reported that PEV had least influence on students' emotional wellbeing. Four respondents reported slight influence while 6 respondents reported moderate PEV influence on students. Sixteen respondents reported high PEV influence on students' emotional wellbeing. The study established that 2007 PEV led to increased emotional problems among the secondary school students.

The study established that majority of the teacher counsellors (53.3%) reported that high PEV levels influenced students depression. This meant that all the teacher counsellors had encountered PEV related depression in their interactions among the secondary school students. Depression is a negative emotion that has negative influence on emotional wellbeing. High PEV influence on feeling of despair and hopelessness among the students was reported by 47.7% of the respondents. Low self-esteem was reported by 28 (93.7%) while anxiety was reported by 26 (87.7%) respondents. All these were negative emotions that influenced students' emotional wellbeing. They established that the 2007 PEV led to higher levels of despair and anxiety among the students.

The parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students was negatively influenced by the 2007 PEV. The teacher counsellors reported that PEV influenced parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students. Least PEV influence was reported by 66.7% of the respondents, slight influence was reported by 13.3% of the respondents; moderate influence was reported by 16.7% while high PEV influence was reported by 56.8%. The study established that parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students was negatively influenced by PEV. This was supported by Considine and Zappala (2010) who noted that students who grow up in poor families are exposed to food with lower nutritional values. Similarly Basch (2011) reported that skipping breakfast is highly prevalent among urban minority youth and it negatively affects student's academic achievement and adversely affect cognitive and emotional wellbeing. Considine and Zappala (2010) further argued that when students experience poor nutrition and diminished health practices, it is harder for them to listen, concentrate and learn. The life in the IDPs camp was wanting and relief food given was inadequate for the victims. This study established that teacher counsellors felt that PEV influenced students' emotional wellbeing. This was similar with the students' responses which indicated that PEV influenced their emotional wellbeing. The study proposed the enhancement of positive emotions as anti-dose of aftermath of 2007 PEV.

Fredrickson, (2008) reported that positive emotions promote successful academic functioning because they broaden one's cognitive awareness and consciousness of potential solutions and exploration. Joy builds student's thought-action, repertoire through playful interactions and overtime. These interactions advance students' intellectual resources. He further proposed that positive affections are likely to enhance academic behaviour and engagement and substantial evidence shows that participation in learning activities is positively related to academic success. Positive emotions especially interest and curiosity are more likely to promote achievement because interested students who take pride in their work are more motivated to seek out supplementary learning resources (Macklem, 2013). Spielberger and Sarason (2009) reported that the joy of learning is positively related to extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. These findings are consistent with the literature on mastery motivation which is often associated with pride, enjoyment and hope, and is a prime candidate to mediate associations between emotions and achievement (Macklem, 2013).

The 2007 PEV exposed the students to risk factors. The PEV related risk factors included poor housing, economic disadvantage and bereavement (CIPEV 2008). All these risk factors have profound influence on a person's self-esteem and their academic ability. There are many protective factors for the adolescents which should be enhanced to counteract the PEV effects. Tuicomepee (2011) indicated that protective factors for adolescents included individual characteristics, aspects of relationships with parents and degree of school connectedness. These three factors are key components on the road to recovery.

Among the personal characteristic that need to be enhanced is resilience. This is the ability to bounce back from adversity, trauma and stress (Morgan, 2013) It is the capacity to balance stress and emotions. The capacity to recognise ones emotions and express them appropriately helps an individual avoid getting stuck in depression, anxiety, or other negative mood states. Student's relationship with parents had also been noted as protective factors (Tuicomepee, 2011). They further noted that adolescents thrive when they have close family relationships and pro-social friends, succeed in academic pursuits and have a special passion such as music or mission. The parents should enhance their relationship with their children and ensure that they have pro-social friends for this protection to be met.

Efklides and Moraitou (2012) had pointed out exceptional cases of children who had certain characteristics that contribute to a positive outcome even in the face of stressful life events. These characteristics include adequate intellectual functioning, social skills, self-efficacy and faith as well as environmental factors such as a relationship with at least one caring, pro-social adult. The experience of high PEV levels had led to high levels of emotional problems which resulted from experiencing loss of loved ones, being exposed to life-threatening situations, suffering personal injury, displacements and loss of property (CIPEV, 2008).

The parents and the school setup should put proper mechanism to ensure students excel in academic work. Having a strong faith is also helpful (Flood, 2011). Religion offers teenagers insulation from getting into trouble. It provided a protective measure and solace in the face of life stress. Life is full of stresses and hence religion should be enhanced to offer insulation to adolescents. The community should also provide an environment for the students to excel in life. Belsky (2010) had claimed the impact of the wider community on the adolescents as they are separating from their parents and moving into the world. Hence there is need to create a nurturing environment where the adolescents can thrive. Hypothesis one stated that

there was no statistical significant influence of PEV levels on emotional wellbeing. The PEV level mean and standard deviations are reported on Table 7.

Table 7

The PEV Mean and Standard Deviations of Emotional Wellbeing

PEV Level		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Low	79	2.6	.63	.07
Moderate	59	3.0	.53	.07
High	101	3.1	.57	.06
Total	239	2.9	.62	.04

Table 7 shows the mean PEV levels. An examination of the mean shows 20.2% of the respondents reported that they were lowly influenced with a mean of 2.6386 + .63. Moderate influenced was reported 16.4% with a mean of 3.0034 + .53, while those that were highly influenced by PEV were 28.1% with a mean of 3.1550 +.57. The analysis of variance was used to establish whether there was statistically significant difference in PEV level on emotional wellbeing as shown on Table 8.

Table 8

Influence of PEV Levels on Students' Emotional Wellbeing

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.07	2	6.03	17.69	.00
Within Groups	80.49	236	.34		
Total	92.56	238			

Influence is significant at 0.05 level   df= 2   p<.05

One-way ANOVA revealed that there was significant difference in level of PEV between groups which were differently influence (High, Moderate and Low) by PEV on their emotional wellbeing of the secondary school students in Nakuru County. F (2, 236 = 17.69, p= .000. Low (m=2.64, sd = .63), Moderate (m=3.00, sd =.53) and High (m=3.16, sd=.57). The null hypothesis that stated that there was no significant difference between the level of PEV and emotional wellbeing was therefore rejected. High PEV levels led to an increase in emotional problems. This was further demonstrated by Post Hoc comparison Test on level of PEV on Table 9.

Table 9
Group Levels of PEV and Emotional Wellbeing

(I) Categorized Mean PEV influence	(J) Categorized Mean PEV influence	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Low	Moderate	-.36	.10	.00
	High	-.52	.09	.00
Moderate	Low	.36	.10	.00
	High	-.12	.10	.26
High	Low	.52	.09	.00
	Moderate	.15	.10	.26

Difference is significant at 0.05 level.

Table 9 indicates the mean of low PEV levels was significantly different from the mean of moderate PEV levels influence (0.00). The low PEV levels and high PEV levels mean were significantly different (.00). The mean of moderate PEV levels was significantly different from the mean of low levels (PEV .00). Moderate PEV levels and low PEV levels means were not significantly different (.26). The mean of high PEV levels was significantly different from the mean of low PEV levels (.00). The mean of high PEV levels was not d

Objective two sought to determine whether there was PEV influence on gender difference in emotional wellbeing of secondary school student in Nakuru County. The study investigated the factors indicated on Table 10.

Table 10

Influence of PEV on Gender Difference in Emotional Wellbeing

PEV Level	Males Frequencies	Percentage	Females Frequencies	Percentage
Exposure to life threatening situations	148	78.6	106	69.7
Personal injury	55	29.2	43	28.1
Loss or serious Injury of parent or primary care giver	53	28.3	40	26.1
Witnessing violence against another person	154	82.2	109	71.9
Parents' ability to provide basic needs	146	78.6	120	80.4
Life in the IDP's camp	127	65.9	106	69.7
Low self-esteem	154	82.3	134	87.6
Feeling depressed	120	64.2	106	69.7
Aggression towards other people	149	79.6	110	72.6
Feeling despair and hopelessness	143	76.5	134	87.6
Students' ability to address personal problems	120	64.2	123	80.6

The study established that most of the students (78.6%males and 69.7%females) experienced life threatening situations. Fifty five (29.2%) male students and 43 (28.1%) female students reported that they experienced personal injury during the 2007 PEV. Fifty three (28.3%) male students and 40 (26.1%) female students reported that they encountered the death or serious injury of a parent or a primary care taker. One hundred and forty eight male students (78.6%) and 106 (69.7%) of female students reported that they were exposed to life threatening situation. Fifty five (29.2) male students and 43 (28.1%) female students reported witnessing violence. Fifty five (29.2%) males and 43 (28.1%) females reported that they experienced personal injury. The study established that more male students than female students reported that they experienced life threatening situations, personal injury and witnessing violence. Similar findings were reported by CIPEV (2008) as majority of male were directly involved in the 2007 PEV conflict. Influence of living in the IDP's camps was reported by 127 (65.9%) males and 106 (69.7%) female students. Either the males students joined their parents in providing security or perpetuating the conflict (CIPEV, 2008).

The study established that PEV led to low self-esteem among the male students 82.3% and female students (87.6%). This study indicated that more female students reported greater influence on low self-esteem. Depression was reported by 64.2% male students and 69.7% female students. The female students reported more depression than male students. Hence the study found low self-esteem and depression were more among the female students than their male counterparts. A similar study Thompson (2010) established that women experience anger more than men and women have greater risks of depression and anxiety disorders.

The study established that PEV led to aggression among the male students (79.6%) and female students (72.6%). The male students reported experiencing more aggression than the female students. One hundred and twenty (64.2%) male students and 123 (80.6%) female students reported that the 2007 PEV negatively influenced their ability to address personal problems. This study established that female students reported more influence of PEV on aggression and ability to address personal problem than male students. One hundred and forty three (76.5%) male students and 134 (87.6%) female students reported that the 2007 PEV influenced their feeling of despair and hopelessness. This study indicated that more females reported despair and hopelessness than their male counterparts. This study was similar to Stets and Turner's (2014) which indicated that women report more negative affect than men. These findings were similar to Sáenz-Herrero (2012) who noted that women are more likely than their male counterparts to meet criteria for PTSD after experiencing a traumatic event. Christiansen and Elklit (2012) had the same view when they reported that PSTD is twice common in women than men.

Nydegger (2010) pointed out that women have higher rates of negative affect and depression than men. Russo and Green (2010) with a similar view reported that there is a higher prevalence of mental illness for women as compared to men especially in regard to major depression. The female students were more vulnerable than their male counterparts to suffer from PEV related emotional problems. This study was similar to Hockenbury and Hockenburey (2013) that proposed that psychological disorders, particularly those involving anxiety and depression, occur more frequently among women. This reflects the impact of specific stresses that women faced such as poverty, lack of opportunity fostered by sexism, strain created by the demanding multiples roles of mothers, work and spouse among married women; and the violence and histories of abuse that many women experience.

Fischer (2010) had proposed that there is pervasive gender stereotype in emotions where women are said to express their emotions more frequently and intensely than men. In contrast, men supposedly are calmer and have greater emotional control. A study by Parrott (2011) claimed that men and women differ little in the experience of emotions, but they do differ in the expression of emotions. This suggested that the PEV influence was experienced equally by male and female students but reported differently by male and female students. This could be due to the differences that existed in their expression of emotions according to Parrott (2011) Difference in the expression of emotions is in contrast with Thunberg and Dinberg (2009) who reported that men feel equally confident about their expressive skills but reported masking their emotions more than women.

A different view from this study had been held by Lewis, Haviland-Jones, and Barret (2012) who found that females do not differ from males on the self-reported frequency which they experienced. Fischer (2010) replicated these findings and showed that females experienced greater intensity of pleasant and unpleasant emotions than males, but there was no gender difference in frequency of emotional experience. Brody (2013) found that women experienced greater affect intensity over a wide range of age groups.

Lucas and Gohm (2011) noted that sex-difference findings have led some to suggest that women are more emotional than men and that this greater emotionality resulted from stereotypes and gender roles that women are required to fulfil. Similar views are held by Chrisler and McCreary (2010) who indicated that roles typically filled by men and women in society differ importantly in terms of emotional experiences. Enactment of caretaker roles, which are typically filled by women in the home and in paid employment setting, is likely to involve sensitivity to the needs of others and emotional expression. Men's roles are less likely to emphasise emotional experience.

Chrisler and McCreay (2010) had further indicated that enactment of gender specific role led women to be more sensitive than men to their own and other's emotions. Hence being more sensitive to emotions they were more responsive to PEV related issues that evoked more negative emotions among secondary school students. A Similar view was held by Brody and Hall (2013) who indicated that gender stereo-types include greater female emotionality and that these stereotypes may be self-fulfilling prophecies. Thus greater emotionality should translate into greater intensity of feelings when emotions do arise as it was the case of female students whose emotional wellbeing was negatively influenced by PEV.

In contrast, Lucas and Gohm (2011) indicated that gender differences in the experience of externalising emotions such as anger are less clear. Women may or may not experience more anger than men, and these differences probably depend on the circumstances and eliciting factors particularly to the situation being investigated. Studies of pleasant emotions exhibit similar complexity with some studies reporting greater pleasant affect among men and some other reporting no differences at all. Thus gender roles and stereotypes about masculinity and femininity appear to influence emotional behaviours in which men and women hold and emotion stereotypes. The arena is set for similarities in emotional aspects as men and women take up almost similar roles in society although women are still lagging behind men in a number of areas.

Men and women differ less in their experience of emotions than they do in their expression of those emotions. Women are the more emotional sex in terms of the ease with which they express their emotions; think about emotions and recall emotional experiences. This could be so as the results were based on self report questionnaires. The second hypothesis stated that there was no statistical significant influence of PEV on gender difference in emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County. Table 11 shows the influence of PEV on gender emotional means and standard deviations

Table 11

PEV Influence on Gender, Emotional Mean and Standard Deviation

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emotional Mean	Male	128	2.85	.67	.059
	Female	99	3.07	.55	.06

Table 11 indicates gender emotional mean. An examination of the mean established that males students had a mean of 2.84 $\pm$.67 while females had a mean of 3.07 $\pm$.56. This was further verified with the analysis of independent sample test as shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Independent Sample t-Test on Gender Difference in Emotional Wellbeing

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Emotional Me an	Equal variances assumed	2.98	.09		225	.01	-.23	.08
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.81	223.935	.005	-.23	.08

Significant at .05 level   t= -2.76   df= 225, p<.05

Table 12 shows that women M=3.07, SD =.67 reported significantly higher PEV influence than men in their emotional wellbeing M=2.85, SD =.55, t =0.007, p<.05. The null hypothesis which stated that there was no statistical significant gender difference in emotional wellbeing was rejected. There was a statistically significant gender difference in emotional wellbeing of secondary school students.

4.4 Influence of PEV Levels on Students' Academic Performance

The third objective aimed at determining the influence of PEV levels on academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County. The findings are shown in table 13.

Table 13
Influence of PEV Levels on Students' Academic Performance

PEV Levels	No Influence 0		Least influence 1		Slight influence 2		Moderate Influence 3		High Influence 4	
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	F	%
Influence of PEV on concentration in class	-	-	27	7.5	49	13.5	34	9.4	243	69.4
Influence of PEV on motivation to learn	11	3.0	21	5.8	44	12.2	41	11.3	229	68.9
Influence of PEV on memory	9	2.5	26	7.2	21	5.8	36	9.9	274	73.4
Influence of PEV on participation in class	37	10.2	11	3.0	30	8.3	51	14.1	229	68.9
Influence of PEV on parent's ability to provide basic needs	27	7.5	47	13.0	21	5.8	30	8.3	240	69.8
Influence of PEV on curiosity to learn	21	5.8	30	8.3	43	11.9	41	11.3	223	67.3
Influence of PEV on self esteem	9	2.5	45	12.4	36	9.9	40	11.0	226	67.1
Influence of PEV on learning environment at home	30	8.3	17	4.7	51	14.1	40	11.0	239	69.1
Influence of PEV on your ability to address personal needs	37	10.2	30	8.3	43	11.9	51	14.1	198	54.5
Influence of PEV on relationship with teachers	34	9.4	26	7.2	47	13.0	45	12.4	204	54.9
Influence of PEV on relationship with other students	36	9.9	34	9.4	27	7.2	47	13.0	217	55.1
Influence of PEV on your academic performance	30	8.3	43	11.9	40	11.0	44	12.2	201	54.7
Mean	**25**	**6.9**	**31**	**8.9**	**38**	**10.4**	**41**	**11.5**	**229**	**63.7**

Majority of the respondents felt that 2007 PEV had negative influence on their academic performance. Twenty five students (6.9%) reported that PEV did not have any influence on their academic performance as reported by 25 (6.9%), Thirty one (10.4%) students reported that PEV had least influence while 38 (I0.8%) reported that PEV had slight influence. Forty one (11.5%) students reported that PEV had moderate influence on their academic performance. Two hundred and twenty nine (63.5%) students reported high PEV influence on their academic performance. The study established that PEV had negative influence on students' academic performance which led to students' poor academic performance.

Majority of the respondents felt PEV had negative influence on their class concentration. Twenty seven students (7.5%) reported that the 2007 PEV had least influence on their class concentration while 49 (13.5%) students reported that PEV had slight influence on their class concentration while 34 (9.4%) students reported that PEV had moderate influence on their class concentration. Two hundred and forty three (69.1%) students reported that PEV had

high influence on their class concentration. .This study established that PEV influence led to lowered class concentration among the students which enhanced poor academic performance.

The PEV of 2007 had negative influence on students' motivation. Eleven (3%) students reported that PEV did not have any influence on their motivation to learn. Two hundred and twenty nine (68.9%) students reported high PEV influence on their motivation to learn. This study established that PEV lowered students' motivation to learn which led to poor academic performance. Reduced motivation was a result of negative emotions such as anger and anxiety that were experienced during PEV. A similar study conducted by Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) proposed that students prone to anger and anxiety performed poorly because these decreased their motivation for learning and engaging in classroom activities, which are important predictors of academic success.

Majority of the respondents (91%) felt that 2007 PEV had negative influence on their' memory which led to poor academic performance. This study established that the 2007 PEV lowered students' memory which is a key element in academic performance. A similar finding had been reported by Macklem (2013) who proposed that negative emotions interfered with scholastic activities by reducing resources needed to integrate and recall important details. Majority of respondents (89.8%) indicated that PEV influenced their class participation. The lowered class participation could be as a result of experiencing negative emotions that were associated with PEV. Macklem (2013) had deposited the same result when he found a negative correlation between students' proneness to anger or shyness and their classroom participation and school liking.

Majority of the respondents (92.5%) felt that 2007 PEV had negative influence on parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students. Two hundred and forty (69.8%) respondents reported high PEV influence on parents' ability to provide students basic needs. The study established that majority of the respondents (81.7%) reported that PEV had negative influence on learning environment at home. The reduced parental ability to provide basic needs of the students and disruption of the learning environment at home led to poor academic performance. This is due to losses experienced by their parents during PEV which lowered the socio-economic status.

Consistent with this study, Sharma (2011) had claimed that poor families were exposed to food with lower nutritional values. Similarly, Basch (2011) had argued that skipping breakfast is highly prevalent among urban minority youths and negatively affects students' academic achievement and adversely affects cognition and raises absenteeism. A similar report was given by Emery and Bayliss (2012) who had noted that low socio-economic status and the accompanying hardships are depressive symptoms which lead to lowered academic achievement among the students. Christiansen and Elklit, (2012) supported this view when they indicated that children from lower socio-economic backgrounds often perform below those from higher socio-economic backgrounds on tests of intelligence and academic achievement.

They further noted that children commonly show cognitive problems which include short attention spans, high levels of distractibility, difficulty generating new solution to problems. To undo the PEV effects on academic performance, Ferguson (2008) had suggested those underperforming students to be assisted by high performing teachers. Learned helplessness is also associated with low socio-economic status (Terr, 2009). Ongeti (2012) reported that lower socio-economic status is often associated with viewing the future as containing more negative events than positive ones. Low or no expectancy is also related to low socio-economic status. This has negative effects on students learning. This view had been reported by Deka (2011) who claimed that students' attitude towards learning is also a moderately robust predictive factor. Riley (2011) proposed the need to teach students fact that their brains can change and grow and they can even raise their IQ. He suggested that there is need to provide better quality feedback to the student (prompt, actionable and task specific). The teachers should guide students in making smarter strategy, choices and cultivate a positive attitude. All these interventions will help to arrest draw backs of aftermath of PEV.

Majority of the respondents (94.2%) felt that high PEV influence led to reduced curiosity to learn. This reduced curiosity to learn led to poor academic performance which affected students' relationship with their teachers. The reduced students' curiosity to learn led to lower academic performance among the students. This study was supported by Mckeown (2011) who indicated that emotional and behavioural problems are associated with academic difficulties which predict school drop-out rate, academic failure, delinquency, drug abuse and unemployment which not only affect the individual but impact the society as well.

A majority of respondents (54.9%) reported poor relationship with teachers. Three hundred and seventeen (55.1%) students reported that the 2007 PEV had high influence on students relationship with other students. This study established that PEV had negative influence on students' relationship with other people. This was as a result of negative emotions that they experienced. These included anger, anxiety, low self-esteem and hopelessness as reported earlier in this study. Experiencing and expressing emotions are likely to influence students' achievement because of how emotions affect relationships. This study is similar to Storch and McKay (2009) who reported that emotional expression such as angrily shouting at a teacher, or peer, undermines relationships at school which lead to low academic outcome. In support of this study Hall (2011) indicated that students prone to anger face more challenges in developing and maintain relationships in class and predict low academic achievement.

Research from 60 high-poverty schools claimed that primary factor of student motivation and achievement wasn't student's home environment, but the schools and the teachers. Riley (2011) proposed that this could be achieved through strengthening teachers' and students' relationship by revealing more of self and learning more about the teacher-student relationships. This was further affirmed by students' report form as indicated on Table 14.

Table 14

Influence of PEV Levels on Students' Academic Performance

		A	B	C	D	E	Mean
Year One	Term 1	15	42	107	167	18	C-
	Term 2	18	39	103	158	22	C-
	Term 3	14	44	110	176	16	D+
Year Two	Term 1	19	38	112	171	20	D+
	Term 2	22	32	114	175	17	C-
	Term 3	16	45	102	178	19	D+
Year Three	Term 1	13	39	118	158	22	D+
	Term 2	16	43	118	174	19	C-
	Term 3	14	44	108	177	17	D+

Table 14 shows students' performance as recorded in the report forms. In year one the students had average scores of 18 As, 42 Bs, 107 Cs, 168 Ds and 18 Es, giving rise to a mean grade of C-. In year two, the students 'report forms indicated average grades of 19 As, 38 Bs, 112 Cs, 175 Ds and 19 E giving rise to a mean grade D+ .In year three, students' report forms indicated average grades of 14 As, 41 Bs, 115 Cs, 170Ds and 19 Es giving rise to a mean score D+, which was lower than the mean grade of the Nakuru County as a whole which was

C. It was important to investigate the teacher's views on the influence of PEV on students' academic performance. The variables were analysed as shown on Table 15.

Table 15
Influence of PEV Levels on Academic Performance of Secondary School Students as Reported by Teacher Counsellors

PEV Levels	No Influence 0		Least influence 1		Slight influence 2		Moderate Influence 3		High Influence 4	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Students' concentration in class	-	-	2	6.7	2	6.7	10	33.3	18	59.1
Students' motivation to learn	1	3.3	4	13.3	4	13.3	4	13.3	17	56.8
Student's memory	1	3.3	2	6.7	5	16.7	6	20.0	16	53.3
Student's participation in class	-	-	6	20.0	3	10.0	4	13.3	18	59.1
Parents' ability to provide basic needs	2	6.7	5	16.7	4	13.3	6	20.0	17	56.5
Students' learning environment at home	3	10.0	2	6.7	8	26.7	5	16.7	18	59.1
Student's self-esteem		-	4	13.3	5	16.7	2	16.7	19	63.3
Relationship with teachers	1	3.3	2	6.7	8	26	6	20.0	13	41.3
Relationship with other students	4	13.3	2	6.7	4	13.3	6	20.0	14	44.7
Students academic performance	1	3.3	5	16.7	3	10.0	4	13.3	18	59.1
Mean	**1**	**3.3**	**4**	**10.7**	**5**	**15.3**	**5**	**17.0**	**15**	**53.7**

There are core issues that affect academic performance which include class concentration, participation and curiosity to learn more and more (Kernis, 2012). The teacher counsellors agreed that PEV had negative influence on students' concentration in class (59.1%), participation in class (59.1%) and self-esteem (63.3%). The study established that PEV experience reduced students' concentration, class participation and self-esteem. The PEV experiences of loss of parents, property and forced displacement was traumatic experience to students which led to poor academic performance.

Majority of the respondents (96.6%) reported that PEV influenced students' motivation to learn, students' memory and relationship with teachers. These were important aspect in the

learning process (Deka, 2011). Their reduction and interference, led to lowered academic performance among secondary school students. This had been echoed by Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2012) who reported that negative emotions such as anxiety disrupt students' ability to recall relevant materials which has negative influence on academic performance.

The study established that PEV led to low self-esteem among the secondary school students which is an important element in academic performance. Two hundred and twenty six respondents (67.1%) reported that PEV had high negative influence on their self-esteem. Kernis (2012) held the same view when he reported that self-esteem is an important precursor of school achievement and related adjustment. For example, individuals who have high self-esteem and have greater confidence in their own abilities to cope with challenging tasks are likely to apply adaptive strategies (Dweck, 2009). This was similar with Lodhi, Tsegai and Gerbe (2009) who had examined the relationship between children self-esteem and academic performance of Pakistani and Scottish 10-11 year students of multi-ethnic schools in Scotland. They found significant correlation between self-esteem and academic performance. Children in high self-esteem groups perform significantly better at school than the children in low self-esteem group. Brugman (2011) in a cross-national study examined the relationship between social-emotional and school functioning in American and Dutch adolescent. They found academic efficacy to be positively correlated with self-esteem.

Poor academic performance may influence a student to join a group that contradicts with school experiences and expectations. Robinson and Taylor (2009) had reported that students with low academic achievement might protect their self-esteem by attaching importance to a group culture that contradicts with school and in which antisocial behaviour and attitudes are valued. Thus, the academic underachievers might have lower social self-esteem and these adolescents might join a social group to protect and enhance their self-esteem by sharing the anti-social behaviour of their peers. A similar report was given by Merrell (2011) who found a significant relationship between depression and academic performance among undergraduate students. Diagnosed depression was associated with .49 or half a grade decrease in the student's GPA. The self-report data regarding the impact of depression on the performance of academic tasks is consistent with these findings.

Behaviour problems had a negative influence on academic achievement fostering other maladaptive behaviour in turn (Soomro & Clarbour, 2012). They also found that aggressive emotions are associated with lower academic achievement. A possible explanation for this association in adolescents is due to non-compliant and under controlled behaviours that directly impede learning. This was similar to a report by United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF),(2011) who found higher levels of problem behaviour with lower academic performance in Sri Lanka adolescents. This had been pointed out by Sharma (2008) who noted that emotional and behavioural problems are associated with academic difficulties. This association predicted that school drop-out rate, academic failure, delinquency, drug abuse and unemployment not only affect the individual but also impacts the society negatively as well (Thomas 2010).

Majority of the respondents (56.5%) reported that PEV reduced their ability to provide basic needs of the students. This is due to the losses experienced during PEV which pushed their poverty level higher. Riley (2011) had claimed that overall poor people are less likely to exercise, get proper diagnosis, receive appropriate and prompt medical attention or be prescribed appropriate intervention. Arrighi and Maume (2009) had linked intelligence to health. The poor had more untreated ear infection and hearing loss issues, greater exposure to lead and a higher incidence of asthma (Walsh & Murphy, 2009). Each of these health-related factors could affect attention, reasoning and memory leading to poor academic achievement.

Quendler (2013) proposed a solution to this situation. She suggested schools to provide recess and physical education which would contribute to greater oxygen intake and better learning. Thus, schools could minimize the influence of PEV levels by involving students in physical activities which in turn will reduce some of the issues associated with poor nutrition and will build student health.

Thus, 2007 PEV influence could have long-term effects on academic performance unless measures are taken to undo the effects of PEV. The effects of PEV levels on academic performance were further echoed by the Kenya Secondary Certificate of Education results as shown on Figure 5.
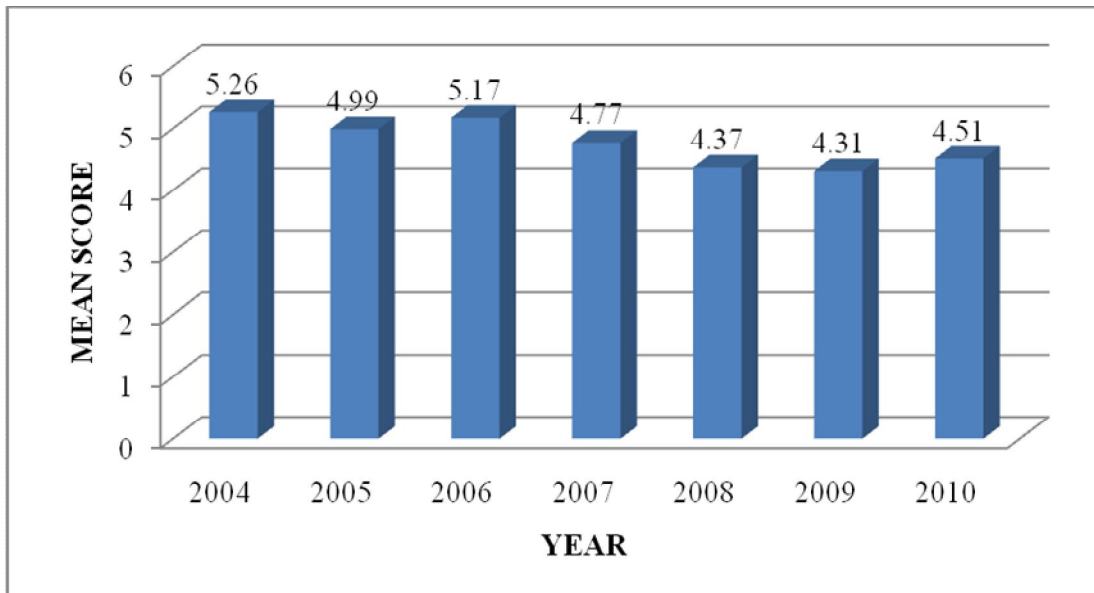
Figure 5: Nakuru County KCSE results from 2006 to 2010

Source: Ministry of Education

Students who have been the victims of violence or have experienced a traumatic event may suffer from poor academic performance (GoK, 2011). The 2007 PEV influence could have long-term effects on academic performance unless measures are taken to undo the effects of PEV. The poor KSCE results could have been attributed to aftermath of PEV. Figure 5 Shows the KCSE results for Nakuru County from 2004 to 2010. In 2004 the county had a mean score of 5.26, in 2005 it was 4.99 and 2006 it was 5.17. The KCSE mean score dropped in 2007 and the mean score was 4.77, 2008 the mean score was 4.37 and 2009 the mean score was 4.31. The drop in academic performance could have been contributed by the PEV.

The County experienced movement of teachers and students due to displacement and also played host to pupils and students from other affected counties (MOE, 2011). The PEV also led to death of some parents and destruction of property. This pushed the poverty level of the victims a notch higher which had a direct influence on emotional wellbeing and academic performance. In 2010, KCSE result improved to a mean score of 4.51. This may be as a result of interventions that were used to counteract the PEV experience. These included counselling services and humanitarian assistance that was given to the victims. This was mainly to help the victims address the crisis at hand. Some of these services were not sufficient, and the humanitarian supplies were also inadequate (CIPEV, 2008). The study sought to establish the

influence of the PEV levels on emotional wellbeing and academic performance. It is important to establish how the victims of the PEV adjusted to the aftermath of the PEV.

Jamila and Stevens (2009) has reported similar view that children exposed to traumatic events (PEV) suffer from academic struggles and adjustments but when provided with treatment, they displayed improvement in academics. The results further implied that treatment for children exposed to traumatic events can be applied in a school setting. This suggests that PEV influence and effects can be addressed in the school set-ups. Further, Deykin (2012) had suggested that symptoms of PTSD can diminish adolescents perceptions of self-efficacy as well as their academic performance. Giaconia (2005) also noted that adolescents who had experienced trauma had a difficult time in high school and have low-grade point averages, suffered a major depression and tend to act out in school.

Issrof (2008) noted that failure to handle violence related issues may eventually lead to depression, amnesia, suicidal tendencies and other mental illnesses. Besides, victims have difficulties in concentration or performance. All these factors had negative impact on academic performance and achievement. Mwangi and Gitahi (2008) had reported that PEV interrupted learning, destroyed learning resources, displaced people and led to food shortage. This had also been reported by (CIPEV, 2008) which had noted that PEV led to disruption of learning and displacement of people.

Taylor (2008) proposed that the ability to confide in others or to consciously confront one's feelings and perception eliminate the need to obsess and reduces the physiological activity associated with it. Further, stressful events can be managed and their adverse health effects be muted with successful recruitment of internal resources such as coping strategies and external resources such as money or social support.

A possible solution to this state is to involve students in school activities. Emery and Bayliss, (2012) had suggested that involvement in high school activities predicts academic competence, confidence and occupational success years down the road. Although a student may not basically be a scholar, it's important to get the student connected to the school through various school activities such as secondary school clubs, and other extra – curricular activities. This had been echoed by Masters (2013) who claimed that teenage thrive when they have close family relationships and pro-social friends, when they are succeeding academically, or have a special passion, such as music or mission work. This suggests the

need to actively involve student in extra – curricular activities such as games sports, drama and music.

Passive activities such as listening to lectures and watching videos produce boredom. Students are happiest, either while working on group projects or by themselves. They want more autonomy-supporting activities - that is work that encourage them to think independently (Lamb & Reinders, 2010). They are yearning for teachers who respect them and courses that are relevant to their lives (Moon, 2010). The study found the need for policy makers in the education sector to assess the educational sector to find out whether it is meeting the needs of the students who are yearning for group project as well as self directed activities in the teaching and learning process. This can bring about improvement in their academic performance.

The students should also be encouraged to volunteer in community activities. Lamb and Reinders (2010) reported that service-learning classes involving hand-on volunteer activities can make a lasting difference in later development. Another very important enhancer of academic achievement is the presence of physical activities. Studies showed that physical activities can increase neural activity (Owoeye, 2012).Further exercise specifically increases executive brain functions such as attention span and working memory Thus physical activities should be enhanced to improve the poor academic performance which was associated with the 2007 PEV levels. Hypothesis three stated that there was no statistical significant influence of PEV level on academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County. The mean PEV level and standard deviation are indicated in table 16.

Table 16

The Mean PEV Level and Standard Deviation of Academic Performance

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Low	116	2.20	1.24	.12
Moderate	77	2.5	.98	.11
High	142	2.7	1.10	.09
Total	335	2.5	1.2	.06

The mean PEV influence on academic performance is shown on Table 16. An examination of the mean shows that 32.2% respondents had a mean of 2.21 $\pm$ 0.121. The respondents who reported moderate influence were 21.4% with a mean of 2.57$\pm$ .98 while 39.4 percent

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reported high influence with a mean of 2.75±1.1.The analysis of variance was used to establish the PEV influence on academic performance as shown on table 17.

Table 17

PEV levels Influence on Academic Performance

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19.44	2	9.72	7.58	.00
Within Groups	425.69	332	1.28		
Total	445.13	334			

Significant at .05 level   df=2   p< .05

The analysis using one-way ANOVA revealed that there was significant difference of PEV level influence on academic performance. F (2.33) = (7.58), p=0.00. Low (m=2.21, sd=1.25), Medium (m=2.57), sd=0.98). High (m=2.76, sd = 1.11). The null hypothesis that stated that there was no statistically significant difference of the level of PEV on academic performance was rejected. Hence, high levels of PEV led to lowered academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County. This was further demonstrated by Post Hoc comparison Test on level of PEV on Table 18.

Table 18
Group Levels of PEV on Academic Performance

Categorised Mean PEV Effect	(J) Categorised Mean PEV Effect	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Low	Moderate	-.36	.17	.08
	High	-.54	.14	.00
Moderate	Low	.36	.16	.08
	High	-.19	.16	.47
High	Low	.55	.14	.00
	Moderate	.19	.16	.47

Significant at .05 levels

Table 18 shows groups of students and their PEV means. The mean of low PEV level influence on academic performance and moderate PEV level was not significantly different (0.08). The mean of low PEV level influence and high PEV level influence was significantly different (.00). The mean of moderate PEV level influence and low PEV level influence was not significantly different (.08). The mean of moderate PEV level influence and high PEV level influence was not significantly different (.47). The mean of high PEV level influence

and low PEV level influence was significantly different (.00). The mean of high PEV level influence and the mean of moderate PEV level influence were not significantly different.

4.6 Influence of PEV Levels on Gender differences in Academic Performance

Objective four aimed at establishing whether PEV influenced gender difference in academic performance of secondary school students in Nakuru County. The study sought to establish whether there was PEV significant gender difference in academic performance. This is indicated on Table 19.

Table 19

Influence of PEV Levels on Gender Difference in Academic Performance

PEV Levels	Male frequencies	Percentage	Females frequency	Percentages
Concentration in class	146	78.6	120	78.5
Motivation to learn	122	66.9	106	69.7
Curiosity to learn	143	78.5	117	76.5
Influence on memory	146	78.6	120	78.5
Class participation	154	82.3	123	80.8
Influence on self-esteem	149	79.9	112	80.6
Influence on home learning environment	125	66.9	101	67.6
Relationship with teachers	112	66.8	102	66.5
Influence on relationship with other students	146	78.6	117	76.5

Majority of the respondents felt that PEV had negative influence on class concentration with the male students reporting 78.6% and female students reporting 78.5%. The respondents felt that PEV had negative influence on their motivation to learn with the male respondents reporting 66.9% and females students reporting 69.7%. The study established that female students reported more influence on motivation to learn. The students felt that PEV had negative influence on their curiosity to learn with the male students reporting 76.5% and the female reporting 76.5%. Majority of respondents felt that PEV had negative influence on their memory, male students reporting 78.6% and female students reporting 78.5%.

The responses given by the respondents indicated that there was no gender difference in academic performance in reference to PEV influence. This was further shown by the analysis of their report books. Similar results had been reported by Hyde and Plant (2010) who had noted that meta-analyses have consistently shown that there is no significant gender difference in general cognitive abilities.

A different view had been raised by Penner (2012) who asserted that males had larger brain sizes than females and therefore would be expected to have higher average IQs. According to him, the male students who have larger brain sizes could have performed better than their female counterparts. This was not supported by research as both male and female did not show any statistically significance difference in their academic performance. In contrast to this study Chudowsky(2009) investigated academic performance at pre-collegiate level and found that female students obtained higher GPA grades compared to males. A similar view was held by Chrisler and McCreary (2010) who found that in contrast to standardized measures of mathematics achievement tests female students, out-perform males in mathematics classes.

Forgasz (2011) noted that although gender differences in mathematic achievement continue to exist on high cognitive level, such differences appear to be declining. Thus the result in this study showed similar trends of declining trend of the gap between boys and girls academic performance. Younger, Warrington and Williams (2009) held the same views when they focused on the gender gap in English school performance. Their analysis was based on the performance of boys and girls in General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) in the United Kingdom (UK) and girls were found to get better grades than boys. A replication of similar results were made by Owuor (2013) who analysed sex differences in the eighth grade mathematics performance of over 77,000 students in 19 developed and developing countries. They found no evidence of a significant gender gap.

Non-cognitive variables has been examined in attempts to explain gender differences in school achievement as it contradicted the view of no significant differences in general cognitive abilities. Hattie and Anderman (2013) indicated the importance of personality and motivation for gender differences in school achievement. They found higher grades for girls but lower grades for boys. Kane (2008) explained that girls wanted to please adults to a higher degree than boys which lead girls to work harder hence higher school grades. Younger, Warrington and Williams (2009) explaining why girls perform better in UK,

reported that boys perform poorer because they have disregard for authority, academic work and formal achievement, differences in students altitudes to work and their goal aspirations.

Some studies found gender differences in mathematics achievement while others did not (Forgasz, 2011). Stereotypes are important influence on school achievement in that negative stereotype disrupts girls' mathematics performance. Heinzmann, (2013) found out that higher achievement in German or in other language subjects done by girls. There are no gender differences in mathematics achievement. Penner (2013) indicated that there might be other variables that moderate the indirect effect of gender on mathematics. For instance, if girls are confronted with negative stereotypes about female's Mathematics achievement, their mathematics achievement become worse (Heinzmann, 2013). Thus if teachers would handle negative stereotypes in mathematics set up, girls are equally capable of performing as well as boys.

This study established that there was no significant gender difference in academic performance among the students which is consistent with other researches which had been held elsewhere in the world. The female students who were more emotionally influenced worked harder and smarter than their male counterparts. This view had been supported by Balk (2009) who had noted that female students tended to work more conscientiously and had a stronger work ethic than males. They also tended to have better languages abilities including essay writing skills, vocabulary and word fluency which contributed to better course work.

The results in this study had earlier been reported by Mackintosh (2009) who indicated no sex difference in general intelligence. This leads to equal academic performance among the male and female students. He proposed that general intelligence to be defined as reasoning ability and that the best measure of this is progressive matrices. This had been indicated by Graetz (2013) who claimed that social-economic backgrounds remained one of the major sources of educational inequality. Hence gender was not the source inequality in academic performance. He further added that one's educational success depends strongly on the social economic status of one's parents. This view has been challenged by Pedrosa, Norberto, Rafael, Cibele and Benilton (2010) who reported that students coming from disadvantaged socio-economic homes performed relatively better than those coming from homes of a higher social and economic status. This could be as a result of educational resilience among such students. Thus, PEV influence could have been checked if the victims had this kind of

resilience among the students. The variables were further subjected to hypothesis testing as shown on Table 20. Hypothesis four stated that there was no PEV statistical significant gender difference in academic performance of students in Nakuru County.

Table 20

PEV Level Influence on Gender, Academic, Mean and Standard Deviation

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean academic effect of PEV	Male	176	2.5114	1.14304	.08616
	Female	142	2.5141	1.19799	.10053

Table 20 shows the result of gender academic performance mean. An examination of the mean show males had a mean of 2.5114 ±1.1and females had a mean of 2.5141±1.1. This was further verified with the use of the analysis of the independent sample test as shown on Table 21.

Table 21

Independent Sample t-Test on Gender Differences in Academic Performance

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of	Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Mean academic effect of PEV	Equal variances assumed	.02	.86	-.02	316	.98	-.00
	Equal variances not assumed			-.02	295.67	.98	-.00

df= 316   p<.05

Table 21 shows that there was no significant gender differences in students' academic performance among secondary schools students in Nakuru County, m=2.51, sd=1.43 and female (m=2.51, sd=1.19 t(1)=.984, p<.05. The null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant gender difference in students' academic performance was accepted. There was no statistically significant gender difference in students' academic performance Thus, the male and female students in Nakuru County performed equally irrespective of the influence of PEV. The students who experienced 2007 PEV performed equally in their academic work irrespective of their gender. The 2007 PEV led to lower academic performance among the male and female students with no significant gender difference.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study established that PEV led to increased emotional problem among the secondary school students. The 2007 PEV also had negative influence on students academic performance as learning environment was disrupted. There was statistically significant gender difference in emotional wellbeing as the females reported more negative influence than the males in their emotional wellbeing. The study also established that there was no statistically gender difference in academic performance as the males and females performed equally although their grades were lowered by PEV. In this chapter, the major findings of the study are summarized and conclusions stated. The recommendations for future research in related areas are outlined.

5.2. Summary of the Findings

The study found out that:-

(i) Post-Election Violence had significant influence on emotional wellbeing among the secondary school students. The PEV of 2007 brought about death and injuries of some parents. This had negative psychological impact on the students who encountered such experiences. There was widespread destruction of property and massive displacement of some parents and students. All these experiences had a negative influence on emotional wellbeing of secondary school students in Nakuru County. Thus, PEV led to increased emotional problems such as feeling of hopelessness, wanting to protect self, depression, seeking refuge and feeling unloved.

(ii) There was PEV significant gender difference in emotional wellbeing. The female students were more affected by PEV than male students. Women were more likely to experience anxiety and depression, while men were more likely to express distress and depression in terms of irritability, anger and increased alcohol consumption. The female reported more negative influences on the emotional wellbeing than their male counterparts.

(iii) Post-election violence had significant influence on academic performance .Thus, PEV led to lowered academic performance among the students in Nakuru County. This could be as a result of the students encountering many loses that included

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parents, siblings and property. These can be expressed by students as chronic illness, guilt, low self esteem and poor academic performance.

(iv) There was no significant gender difference in students' academic performance. The male and female students performed equally the same even after the PEV. This could be due to employment of the same coping strategies and encountering the same experience.

5.3. Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions have been reached.

(i) The study established that violence increased emotional problems among secondary school students in Nakuru County. This was triggered by exposure to life-threatening situation, personal injury and death of the parents or guardian, witnessing violence towards others, parents having problems with alcohol, being ignored or ridiculed, being made to feel unloved and parents or caregivers failing to understand the needs of the students. Hence violence had negative effects on emotional wellbeing.

(ii) The study established that there is gender difference in emotional wellbeing. Women are more expressive in emotional issues. They expressed heightened emotional problems such as anxiety, anger and depression as opposed to their male counterparts.

(iii) The study determined that violence lowers academic performance among the secondary school students. This can be as a result of disruption of learning and negative emotions associated with it which impede the learning leading to poor academic performance.

(iv) The study established that there is no gender difference in academic performances in Nakuru County. The male and female students performed equally the same despite the PEV effect although their grades were lowered by violence.

Therefore, the findings from this study have the potential to be translated into pragmatic programmes of interventions and preventions that may counteract effects of PEV.

5.4. Recommendations

(i) Schools should put mechanism to improve academic performance among secondary school students as it closely related to emotional wellbeing of students.

(ii) The need to enhance resilience among secondary school students irrespective of their gender in order to empower them to handle life stresses.

(iii) There is need to address issues that impend the education of the girl as they are capable of doing equally as well as the boys.

(iv) Secondary school students should have effective guidance and counselling programs that should address emotional problems because they interfere with students' academic performance.

(v) The family set up should be effectively equipped as it provides protective measures against emotional and academic problems

(vi) The government should provide sufficient security to mitigate against the occurrence of violence in future.

5.5. Suggested Areas for Further Research

(i) It may be necessary to conduct similar research in other locations where PEV had been experienced.

(ii) The role of support group among the students affected by post-election violence to help them adjust to PEV effects.

(iii) The role of strong family relationships as a protection to negative peer pressure.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIOℂNNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear Respondents,

My name is Muchai Lydiah, and I am a PhD student at Egerton University currently undertaking a research on the influence of post-election violence on emotional wellbeing and academic performance among secondary school students in Nakuru County, Kenya. The questionnaire seeks information that is purely for academic purpose. The student is kindly requested to respond to the questions honestly so as to enable the researcher accomplish the objectives of the study. Responses and personal details will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Put a tick (√) where appropriate

1. Sex   Male   **[ ]**   Female   **[ ]**

2. Age   13-14 years   **[ ]**   15-16 years   **[ ]**   17-18years **[ ]**

                      19years and above **[ ]**

SECTION B

PEV Level as Reported by Secondary Students

S/No.	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
		0	1	2	3	4
1.	To what extent were you exposed to life threatening situation during PEV					
2.	To what extent did you experience injury during PEV?					
3.	To what extent did you encounter loss or serious injury of a parent or primary caretaker during PEV?					

4.	To what extend did you witness violence towards other people during PEV?					
5.	To what extent did PEV affect parents' ability to provide basic needs?					
6.	To what extent did life in the IDP's camp affect you during PEV?					
7.	To what extent did PEV affect self esteem					
8.	To what extent did PEV affect your feeling of being depressed during PEV?					
9.	To what extent did PEV affect your aggression towards others people during PEV?					
10.	To what extent did PEV affect your feeling of anxiety during PEV?					
11.	To what extent did PEV affect your feeling of despair and hopelessness during PEV?					
12.	To what extent did PEV affect your ability to meet personal needs					

SECTION C

PEV Influence on Students' Emotional Wellbeing Among Secondary School Students.

	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
S/No.		0	1	2	3	4
1.	How did exposure to life threatening situation affect you during PEV?					
2.	How did personal injury affect you during PEV?					
3.	How did loss or serious injury of a parent or primary care giver affect you during PEV?					
4.	How did witnessing violence towards other people affect you during PEV?					
5.	How did PEV influence your parent's ability to provide basic needs?					
6.	How did life in the IDP's camp affect you during PEV?					
7.	How did PEV influence your self-esteem?					
8.	How did PEV affect your feeling of depression?					
9.	How did PEV influence your aggression towards other people?					
10.	How did PEV influence your feeling of anxiety					

11.	How did PEV influence your feeling of despair and hopelessness?					
12.	How did PEV influence your ability to meet your personal needs?					

SECTION D
Influence of PEV Level on Academic Perform Among Secondary School Students

	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
S/No.		0	1	2	3	4
1.	How did PEV affect your concentration in class?					
2.	How did PEV affect your motivation to learn?					
3.	How did PEV affect your curiosity to learn?					
4.	How did PEV affect your memory?					
5.	How did PEV affect your class participation?					
6.	How did PEV affect your self-esteem?					
7.	How did PEV affect your learning environment at home?					
8.	How did PEV affect your parents' ability to provide basic needs?					
9.	How did PEV affect your relationship with other students?					

10.	How did PEV affect your ability to meet your personal needs					
11.	How did PEV affect your academic performance?					

SECTION D (B)

Academic Performance as Recorded in the Report Form(Mean Grade).

Year One	Term 1	A	B	C	D	E	Mean
	Term 2						
	Term 3						
Year Two	Term 1						
	Term 2						
	Term 3						
Year Two	Term 1						
	Term 2						
	Term 3						

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHER COUNSELORS

Dear Respondents,

My name is Muchai Lydiah and I am a PhD student at Egerton University currently undertaking a research on the influence of post-election violence on emotional wellbeing and academic performance among secondary school students in Nakuru, County, Kenya. The questionnaire seeks information that is purely for academic purposes. The HOD Guidance and Counselling teacher is kindly requested to respond to the questions honestly so as to enable the researcher accomplish the objectives of the study. Responses and personal details will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Put a tick (√) where appropriate

1. Sex   Male **[ ]**   Female **[ ]**

2. Age   25-29 **[ ]**   30-34 **[ ]**   35-39 **[ ]**   40 and above **[ ]**

3. Counselling training level   No training   **[ ]**   Certificate **[   ]** Diploma **[   ]**
   Degree **[ ]**   Masters and above **[ ]**

4. Counselling experience   0-3 years **[ ]** 4-7 years **[ ]**   8 and above **[ ]**

SECTION B

Teacher Counsellors' Report on PEV Levels

	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
S/No		0	1	2	3	4
1.	To what extent were your students exposed to life threatening situations?					
2.	To what extent were students exposed to personal injury?					
3.	To what extent did the students encounter loss or serious injury of a parent or a primary care giver?					

4.	To what extent did the student witness violence towards other people during PEV?					
5.	What extent did PEV influence students' ability to solve personal needs?					
6.	To what extent did life in the IDP's camp affect the students during PEV?					
7.	To what extent did PEV affect parents' ability to supply basic needs?					
8.	To what extent did PEV affect students' aggression?					
9.	To what extent did PEV affect students' depression?					
10.	To what extent did PEV affect students' feeling of despair and hopelessness?					

SECTION C

Teacher counsellors' Report on the Influence of PEV on Emotional Wellbeing of Secondary School Students.

	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
S/No.		0	1	2	3	4
1.	How did PEV affect students' depression?					
2.	How did PEV affect student's aggression against other students?					
3.	How did PEV influence parents' ability to provide basic needs of the students?					
4.	How did PEV affect students feeling of despairs and hopelessness?					
5.	How did PEV affect students' feeling of anxiety?					
6.	How did PEV affect students' ability to handle personal problems?					
7.	How did life in IDP's camp influence students?					
8.	How did PEV influence students' relationship with other students?					
9.	How did PEV students' ability to address personal needs?					
10.	How did PEV influence students' self-esteem?					

SECTION D

The Influence of PEV on Students' Academic Performance as Reported by Teacher Counsellors

	PEV Level	No Influence	Least Influence	Slight Influence	Moderate Influence	High Influence
S/No.		0	1	2	3	4
1.	How did PEV affect student's concentration in class?					
2.	How did PEV affect students' motivation to learn?					
3.	How PEV affect students' memory					
4.	How did PEV affect students' participation in class?					
5.	How did PEV affect students' learning environment at home?					
6.	How did PEV affect students' self esteem?					
7.	How did PEV affect student's relationship with teachers?					
8.	How did PEV affect students' relationship with fellow students?					
9.	How did PEV affect parents' ability to provide to basic needs of the students?					
10..	How did PEV affect students' academic performance?					

APPENDIX C: LETTER OF RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telephone: 254-020-2213471, 2241349, 254-020-2673550
Mobile: 0713 788 787 , 0735 404 245
Fax: 254-020-2213215
When replying please quote
secretary@ncst.go.ke

P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA
Website: www.ncst.go.ke

Our Ref:

NCST/RCD/14/012/1695

Date:

8th January, 2013

Lydiah Njeri Muchai
Egerton University
P.O.Box 536-20115
Egerton.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application dated *20th December, 2012* for authority to carry out research on *"Investigation of the relationship between perceived Post Election Violence, Emotional well being and academic performance among secondary school students in Nakuru County,"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nakuru County** for a period ending **31st March, 2013**.

You are advised to report to **the District Commissioners and the District Education Officers, Nakuru County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR M.K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC.
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:

The District Commissioners
The District Education Officers
Nakuru County.

APPENDIX D: RESEARCH PERMIT

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Lydia Njeri Muchai
of (Address) Egerton University
P.O.Box 536-20115, Egerton
has been permitted to conduct research in

Location
District
Nakuru County

on the topic: Investigation of the relationship
between perceived Post Election Violence,
Emotional well-being and academic performance
Among secondary school students in Nakuru
County.

for a period ending: 31st March, 2013.

PAGE 3
Research Permit No. NCST/RCD/14/012/168
Date of issue   8th January, 2013
Fee received   KSH. 2,000

Applicant's Signature

Secretary
National Council for
Science & Technology

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed with-out prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/ four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

GPK6055t3mt10/2011

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

RESEARCH CLEARANCE
PERMIT

(CONDITIONS–see back page)

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