

Trends in Special, Minority and Gender Mainstreaming Education For Sustainable Education

Violet Odenda Namuhisa

violetnamuhisa@gmail.com

Department of Educational Planning and Management, School of Education, Masinde Muliro
University of Science and Technology

ABSTRACT

Education is a human right to all existant beings. Provision and access to education must not descriminate any group of people. Hence, educational mainstreaming is imperative to the human race existant today. This paper sought to search and bring fourth three major aspects in educational mainstreaming in Kenya's Basic Education, that is : trends in special éducation mainstreaming ; minority education mainstreaming ; and, gender mainstreaming in education for sustainable development in Kenya. As Kenya sthrives to attain Global Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030 and Vision 2030, it is appreciated, that all nationals are educationally mainstreamed for meaningful developmental contributions. BUT, is this the true situation in Kenya? One wonders, how are trends in special education, minority education and gender mainstreaming actualized ? Or, to what extent are these trends fulfilled? The authors of this paper adopted the Library Analytical Design to accrue data for trends in special education mainstreaming ; minority education mainstreaming ; and, gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development in Kenya. Only trends in basic education were considered. It was concluded that Kenya is still to achieve 100% transtional trends in Basic Education. The Presidential Declaration of 2018, that all graduates of Primary Schooling should continue Learning at higher levels is appreciated, but it is NOT enough. It is reccomended herein more strategies ought to be employed in order to realize total mainstreaming of special ; minority ; and gender mainstreaming in education for development in Kenya. For instance, official follow-up of every birth in Kenya ought to be embraced as is the case in china. Through such approaches, Kenya could be able to harness every individual's inputs for Sustainable Development.

Keywords: Trends, Special Education, Minority, Gender Mainstreaming, Sustainable Development

1.0 Introduction

The notion of sustainable development (SD) includes a vision of a new and better world. This vision paves the way to meet the needs, demands and aspirations of the present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs, demands and aspirations (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). It is essential that the status of women as opposed to their male counterparts should be considered in a tridimensional SD approach because of their relatively poor economic and social status. Historically, women have been treated unequally and their tasks are often undervalued (Hatfield, 2002). The Earth Summit findings also trace that SD cannot be achieved without women's involvement because women are more likely to be susceptible to environmental vulnerabilities for their poor social and economic position. Researches on gender and SD trace the fact that gender inequality is a major obstacle to attain sustainable development especially in developing and underdeveloped countries (Hatfield, 2002).

Moreover, Denton (2002) in his study observes that seventy percent (70%) of the 1.3 billion people in the developing world living below the threshold of poverty are women. Thus, without the upliftment of such a large marginal group of a society, sustainable development is a far cry. Empirical evidence from Bangladesh demonstrates that it is possible to enhance the socio-economic status of women by creating opportunities for them to participate in income generating activities. For example, women in Bangladesh have made important gains along with changes in social attitudes towards women's economic participation (IMF, 2012). More noteworthy examples include; women's involvement in ready-made garments manufacturing industry of Bangladesh (Kholisa, 2009) and women involvement in alternative income generating activities through micro-financing of Grameen bank, Bangladesh (Hatfield, 2002).

2.0 Statement of the Problem

Results from previous research indicated that it is important to eliminate gender inequalities in an attempt to increase SD. For example Hatfield (2002) mentions reduction of gender inequalities may help to improve women empowerment and sustainable development. In an effort to eliminate gender inequalities, gender-based policy is indispensable. Therefore, there needs to be specific and relevant strategies targeting women and a reconsideration of all policies from a gender perspective. Consequently, this requires a detailed examination of the underlying assumptions about gender differences in rights, responsibilities, and roles which underlie the definitions and policies aimed at the household, community, entrepreneur, and farmer, to explicitly include women's concerns in 'malestream' policy (Lemire et al., 2002).

2.1 Research Objectives

- I. To establish the trends in special education for sustainable development
- II. To find out the trends in minority education for sustainable development
- III. To assess the trends in gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development

2.2 Research Questions

- I. What are the trends in special education for sustainable development?
- II. What are the trends in minority education for sustainable development?
- III. What are the trends in gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development?

3.0 Literature Review

A discussion of the theories undergirding the study subject follows in this section. The theories under review are; Social Model Theory of Disability,

3.1 Social Model Theory of Disability

Social model theory of Disability was used in this study as advocated by Oliver (1983). The theory states that it is the society that disables physically impaired people and that disability is something imposed on top of our impairments by the way we are unnecessarily isolated and discriminated from active participation in the society. Barriers which exist in the society can be grouped as environmental, economical and cultural. Environmental barriers exist where the disabled are unable to move freely and function actively in the society. Cultural barrier is evident on the way the disabled are generally viewed in the society; they are not given equal treatment as other people in the society without disabilities. The model is applicable in this study in that schools are social setups and should value diversity as a resource thus work

towards elimination of such barriers which discriminates learners with special needs. The social model postulates that schools should be restructured in terms of adapted physical facilities, training teachers in special education in order to acquire desirable knowledge and skills to handle learners with special needs and also to employ teaching methodology which caters for diversity in the classroom. Since the model advocates for elimination of barriers that exists in the society for acceptability of all learners, teachers need to develop a positive attitude towards inclusion of learners with disability in mainstream schools thus encourage and support them. It was therefore applicable in this study since effective implementation of inclusive education in schools greatly depends on how school factors are adapted to incorporate learners with special needs.

Research has shown that policy is needed before gender equality can be infused in education management, planning, and staffing (Nanivazo & Scott, 2012; Heikkinen, 2017). Nordic countries share a common policy environment where legislation can ensure gender equality and non-discrimination in early childhood education. Such legislation can have the effect of solidifying national commitment to gender equality in early childhood education, and to help pave the way for gender to be mainstreamed in policies, processes, and practices in education. Budgetary allocation to gender equality in early childhood care and education (ECCE) is notable across the Nordic countries reviewed. Indeed, some Nordic countries have specific budgets for the promotion of gender equality in ECCE, and all the Nordic countries reviewed grant access to alternative resources to fund projects promoting gender equality in ECCE. For example, the Finnish government has funded projects to promote gender-sensitive pedagogy in early childhood learning settings, including a website on gender equality for ECCE teachers. The Norwegian government has created a budget for recruiting male teachers in an effort to achieve gender balance among the ECCE teacher workforce. Sweden uses its funding for research on gender in early childhood. Iceland produces handbooks on gender equality for pre-school educators, and has even budgeted for a permanent position to promote gender equality in preschools (Heikkinen, 2017). Such funding allocations, whether directly in a specific budget or in special projects, incentivize teachers to try innovative approaches related to gender equality in ECCE.

In contrast, there is no budget allocated for gender equality in ECCE in China. In fact, budgetary spending in ECCE in China is lower than any other education levels, and much lower than the average of Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCED) countries. Household spending has long been the main source of funding for both public and private ECCE. National education resources allocation for ECCE in rural areas is especially inadequate (Chi & Velez, 2017; Liu & Gao, 2013; World Bank, 2016). This has led to inequality issues in access to education, as well as other financial burdens for ECCE teachers, including lack of proper payment and remuneration, poor working conditions, and low job status that has posed a challenge to attracting and retaining quality teachers in the field.

3.2 Empirical Literature

Beyond providing teachers with relevant knowledge and skills, evidence elsewhere suggests that the alignment of teaching and learning is indispensable in establishing an evidence-based accountability system and for targeting policy implementation gaps for improvement (Brown, Irby & Yang, 2005; UNGEI, 2013). For example, to achieve gender parity in basic education, the Chinese government had established an accountability system that monitored girls' enrollment (Wang, 2012). Such a mechanism could be built upon for ECCE accountability systems to ensure

the integration of gender equality issues by school management. Efforts such as education and skill development may help them engage in alternative income generating activities or efficient operation of existing activities. Our analysis in the previous section indicates that attainment of sustainable development and reduction in gender inequality are interlinked. Agarwal (2002) identifies two forms of gender inequalities mainly: (i) pre-existing inequalities in private property resources (such as, land and income) and in gendered social norms and perceptions.

Hamel and Välikangas (2003) identified institutionally created inequalities (such as, inequalities built into the structure of the governing institution, in particular in its rules and procedures, which can exclude women, and can make for a highly gender unequal sharing of costs and benefits). Their study also found that the substantial gender gap in economic endowments, gendered social norms and perceptions, the rules governing the institution, and the power of coercion underlying gender relations (at home and in the community) significantly constrains women's cooperation in sustainability. Research also shows that differences in social capital (individuals' social and political participation outside the home/family) also affect the growth of a society (Stotsky, 2006). Gender inequality slows down economic development and deepens poverty. Therefore, it is crucial to recognize that gender equality is one of the overriding issues related to SD and reduction of poverty (Fedon, 2004).

The Constitution of Kenya 2010 (CoK) perceives ladies, youth, people with incapacities and ethnic minorities as unique gatherings meriting sacred security. The CoK embraces the privileges of ladies as being equivalent in law to men, and qualified for appreciate break even with circumstances in the political, social and monetary circles. Article 81 (b) which alludes to the general standards of Kenya's constituent framework expresses 'the discretionary framework should conform to the accompanying rule -(b) not more than 66% of the individuals from elective open bodies might be of a similar sexual orientation. Article 27 goes further to commit the legislature to create and pass arrangements and laws, including governmental policy regarding minorities in society projects and strategies to address the past segregation that ladies have confronted. The legislature is required to create approaches and laws to guarantee that, not more than 66% of elective or representative bodies might be of a similar sex. In spite of Article 177 guaranteeing that Articles 81(b) and 27 (8) of the CoK are consented to at the County level through the assignment of extraordinary seat individuals, the same has not been ensured at the National Assembly and the Senate.

Brock et al. (1997) investigated the factors affecting women participation in education in seven developing countries. They used primary data from field visits. They utilized probit model in his analysis. The findings were that rural area and health effects of poverty and malnutrition affected participation of women in education more than the men counterparts. Cultural bias was also found to be the biggest barrier to female participation in education. Other factors like religion and legal factor had only indirect effect on female participation in education. Haque (2003) investigated the factors that constrain women from participating in governance in seven East Asia countries. The findings indicated that the ongoing traditional norms and perceptions based on confucius values hindered women participation in governance. In addition the demographic, normative, attitude and political factors significantly affected women participation in governance.

Kivoi (2014) examined the factors that hinder political participation and representation of women in Kenya. He used secondary data and employed content analysis in an attempt to realize his objectives. The findings show that political, economic, cultural factors and gender stereotypes

were the key factors impeding women representation and participation in politics in Kenya. His study however concentrated on women and politics unlike the present study which focuses on the trends in special, minority and gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development. Wamuthenya (2010) analyzed factors influencing participation in formal and informal employment in Kenya. Kenya Labour Force Survey data (1977, 1986, and 1998) and multinomial logit model were utilized in his study. The results were that age by cohort, gender, marital status, Household headship education and employment policy gaps were the significant variables influencing participation in employment in Kenya.

Farah (2014) investigated the factors that influence women participation in entrepreneurial activities in Mandera Township in Kenya. The study used primary data collected from 138 women and employed qualitative and quantitative analysis in achieving its objectives. The findings were that individual factors, socio-cultural factors, economic factors lack of finances, insecurity and lack of entrepreneurial skills significantly influenced women participation in entrepreneurial activities in Mandera. Kakumbi (2010) examined the benefits plus the limitations of existing participatory mechanism in rural development in Uganda. The results of the study were that decentralization enhanced participation of the marginalized groups like women and youth in decision making. In addition local community participation was significant in providing resources necessary for local development, asking for accountability and in participatory planning.

Onsongo (2004) studied on the factors that affect women participation in university management in Kenya. He used primary data which was collected from three public and private chartered universities in Kenya. This was done between the month of January and June 2002. He used questionnaires, interview guides and document analysis guides to get the required information. From the findings it was revealed that institutional, and society and personal level factors inhibited women who were qualified from getting higher position in Kenya universities. Personal level factors include lack of confidence and the fear of public office. Institutional level factors included appointment and promotion, political appointments, discriminatory recruitment, unclear criteria for promotion, lack of documented staff development policies for managers and limited opportunities for future training of women. Lastly, societal factors include discrimination against girl child education and overall belief on females, domestic roles.

4.0 Research Methodology

Research methodology outlines the methodology applied to undertake the study. It looks into research design, sampling design and data analysis.

4.1 Research Design

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2009), research design is the blueprint on which research is carried out. It states out how information is gathered for the purpose of analysis and interpretation of findings. This study adopted qualitative descriptive research design. It critically helped in examining the journal materials by analyzing and interpreting information thus arriving at findings that indicated the trends in special, minority and gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development. Furthermore, this design was suitable for the study that involved secondary data.

4.2 Sampling Design

The study used purposive sampling design to select the suitable journals for the study. This helped in gathering information from selected journal articles with detailed data about the trends in special, minority and gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development.

4.3 Research Data

The study used secondary data from research journals with information concerning the trends in special, minority and gender mainstreaming education for sustainable development. This data assisted in clarifying the problem of sustainable development.

4.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of breaking complex information into smaller elements that can be easily clarified and understood (Zikmund, Babin and Griffin, 2013). This study applied analysis method to analyze the data from the selected journal articles. Content analysis is an appropriate technique for making valid inferences by interpreting already existing information. This perfectly fitted this research paper as it entirely used secondary data from journal articles and other few published documents.

5.0 Research Findings and Discussions

Table 1. 1: Trends in Gender Mainstreaming Education and Sustainable Development

ENROLLMENT FOR KCSE										
GENDER	2017	%	2016	%	2015	%	2014	%	2013	%
FEMALE	293,108	47.6	299,268	52	243,581	46.6	223,884	46	203,028	43
MALE	322,665	52.4	271,893	48	279,289	53.4	259,746	54	221,914	47
TOTAL	615, 773	100	571,161	100	522,870	100	483,630	100	424,942	100

ENROLLMENT FOR KCPE										
GENDER	2017	%	2016	%	2015	%	2014	%	2013	%
GIRLS	494,943	49.81	468,185	49.7	459,885	49.6	437,288	49.7	413,390	49.2
BOYS	498,775	50.19	473,836	50.3	467,904	50.4	443,198	50.3	426,369	50.8
TOTAL	993,718	100	942,021	100	927,789	100	880,486	100	839,759	100

GENDER	2012	%	2011	%	2010	%	2009	%
GIRLS	396,310	49	375,400	48	357,859	48	345,454	48
BOYS	415,620	51	400,814	52	388,221	52	381,600	52
TOTAL	811,930	100	776,214	100	746,080	100	727,054	100

In Table 1.1 above shows the trends in gender mainstreaming distribution in terms of transition from “A” Levels to “O” .For instance the pupils who sat for Kenya Certificate of Primary Education in the year 2009 were 345, 454 and 381,600 girls and boys respectively. The same group is

expected to clear” O” levels in the year 2013 of which according to the data obtained from Kenya National Examination Council website the transition to tertiary learning of this particular set was 203,028 and 221,914 female and male respectively this represents a decline by 142,426 (41.23%) and 159,686 (41.85%). The statistics summarized shows evidence that almost half of the pupils that sit for KCPE in respective years fail to sit for KCSE as is expected in normal scenario.

In addition in the year 2013 KNEC registered a total of 839,759 representing 413,390 and 426,369 girls and boys respectively. However in the preceding year 2017 KNEC records showed that a total of 615,773 sat for the exams this decline in the transition from “A” levels to “O” levels represents a 27% decline of what the study expects. These negative trends should send a wakeup call to the government agencies and education stakeholders to try and find out the reason behind these negative deviations as much as the Government of Kenya (GoK) of the introduction of Free Secondary Education.

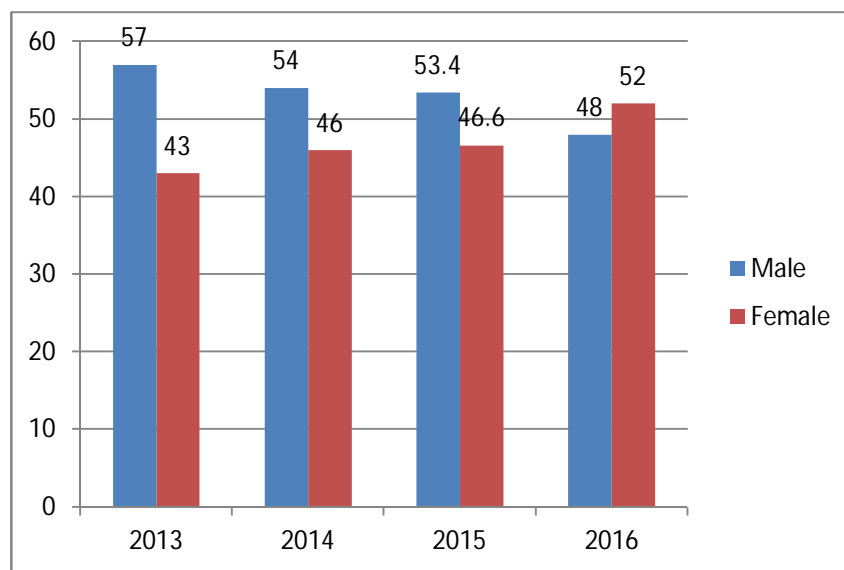


Figure 1. 1: Trend Analysis for KCSE Candidature

In Figure 1.1 on trend analysis of KCSE candidature evidence show that the girl child is empowered. The candidature of the girl child enrolment has been consistently rising from the year 2013 to 2016. Statistics show that as much as the girl child records a lower enrolment each year, the enrollment is significantly raising thus a positive indicator to the education system. For instance the numbers has been rising from 43%, 46%, 46.6% and recently in the year 2016 the number exceeded male enrolment by a significant 4%.

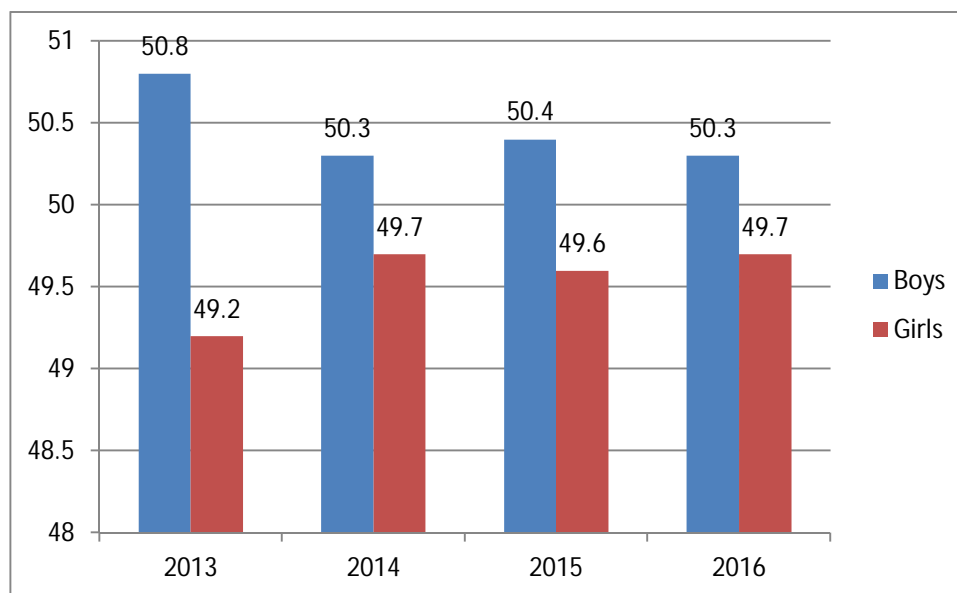


Table 1. 2: Trend Analysis for KCPE Candidature

In Figure 1.2 the trend in girl child percentage enrolment has been rising for instance in the year 2013, girl child enrolment was equivalent to 49.2% (413,390 girls) this was followed by 2014 representing 49.7% (437,288 girls) in 2015 the data showed 49.6% (459,885 girls) and lastly 2016 the secondary data collected girls represented 49.7% (468,185 girls) this is a positive impact of the influence of consistent campaigns on girl child empowerment.

Trends in Minority Education and Sustainable Development

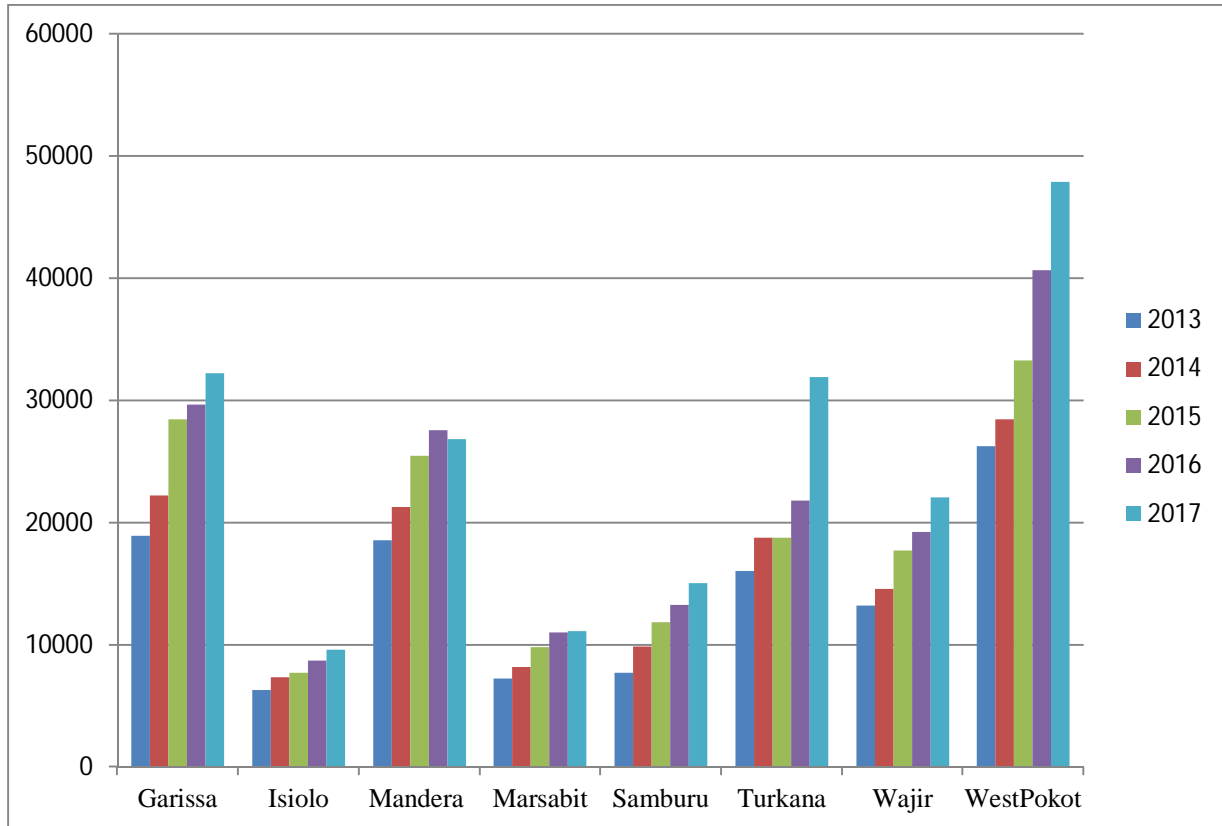
The researcher will collect data based on the students enrollment for Kenya Certificate of Primary Education and Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education during the periods between 2013 to 2017 to monitor the trends in the following counties; Marsabit, Turkana, Wajir, Mandera, Garissa, Samburu, West Pokot, and Isiolo .

County Name	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Garissa	18943	22262	28455	29654	32220
Isiolo	6318	7375	7697	8725	9596
Mandera	18586	21280	25477	27606	26856
Marsabit	7228	8216	9815	11007	11150
Samburu	7737	9858	11884	13275	15043
Turkana	16040	18777	18777	21799	31907
Wajir	13212	14561	17710	19247	22104
WestPokot	26297	28469	33272	40684	47903

Trends in Minority Education and Sustainable Development

Source: Kenya National Examination Council (2019)

The data above will be presented in the graph below and discussed accordingly:



From the figure above it is evident that West Pokot County is performing better in improving its enrollment over the years than the rest of the minority counties. For instance in the year 2017, West Pokot reported 47,903 candidates whereas in the same year Isiolo County reported 9,596.

According to the data presented in the Table and the adjacent graph, Isiolo and Marsabit County has been registering dismal candidature as compared to growth for instance in the year 2013 Isiolo County Registered 6,318 whereas Marsabit County registered 7,228 while the same year West Pokot County registered 26,297. Besides, the regions registering an upwards trends in registered candidature, other regions are not performing well as others for instance in 2015 while Marsabit reported registered candidature of 9,815 Turkana reported 18,777 almost double the number that Marsabit had reported. This is an indicator that the growth reported by these counties is unproportioned.

Trends in Minority Education and Sustainable Development

The data on trends in minority education group for primary education has not been easy to find. Since the researcher has not found a reliable source to cite to show how the enrollment has been over the years. However the researcher has communicated to the ministry to try and find out if they are able to provide the data for the KCPE candidates for a period spanning 5 years from 2009 to 2013.

Trends in Special Needs Education and Sustainable Development

Providing education for children with special needs is therefore one way of ensuring that their right to basic education is protected. This will in turn promote national development by providing a secure environment that enhances good health to allow people with special needs participate in social and political activities (Republic of Kenya, 2009a). However, without special measures put in place to support these children, their right to basic education may not be realized to facilitate their full potential. Mwoma and Pillay (2015) in their study focusing on orphans and vulnerable children in public primary schools in Soweto South Africa noted that children from disadvantaged background encountered various challenges related to psychosocial support due to lack of trained personnel who could understand them. According to them, without proper attention to these children, their right to compulsory basic education will be affected.

The education for all monitoring report of 2010 revealed that an estimated number of people with disability comprise of 15% of the global population. The report further asserts that out of 77 million children who are not enrolled in education globally a third of them are children with disability (UNESCO, 2010). The report point out that 80% of people with disabilities is estimated to be living in developing countries with 150 million being children. Over 50% of the population in developing countries is affected with some disability related issues (Mukuria & Korir, 2006). In Kenya, the 2009 census indicated that there were 647689 males (3.4%) and 682623 females (3.5%) with disability totaling 1 330 312 or (3.5%) of the total population (Republic of Kenya, 2009b). The education taskforce report of 2012 revealed that in 1999, there were 22000 learners with special needs enrolled in special schools, units and integrated programmes. The number rose to 26885 in 2003 and to 45000 in 2008 (Republic of Kenya, 2009a). The report further reveals that there were over 1100 units and 100 public special schools in the country including vocational and technical institutions catering for learners with special needs and disabilities (Republic of Kenya, 2012b). The number of special needs institutions has since increased to 3464 with 2713 integrated institutions and 751 special schools as indicated in the second medium term plan 2013-2017. Among them are ten public secondary schools for learners with hearing impairments, three for learners with physical handicaps and four for learners with visual impairment (Republic of Kenya, 2013b).

The number however keep varying from one report/document to the other an indication that there is no accurate data on the exact number of children with special needs and the institutions catering for their needs. The 2008 Kenya national survey for people with disability affirmed that there were 1.3 million people with disability living in Kenya. Thirty nine percent were attending mainstream primary schools while nine percent were attending high school (Bii & Taylor, 2013, Republic of Kenya, 2008a). In an effort to support people with disability in Kenya, religious institutions have been instrumental in establishing schools and institutions for children with various disabilities including those with vision,

auditory, motor and intellectual impairment in various parts of the country. The Kenya National Survey for Persons with Disabilities however revealed that 39% of children with disabilities drop out of school due to their disabilities (Republic of Kenya, 2009c) contributing to their marginalization hence infringing their right of accessing free and compulsory basic education.

References

- Agostino, A. (2010). Gender equality, climate change and education for sustainability. *Equals Newsletter*, (24), 1-3.
- Brock, C and Cammish, N. (1997) Factors Affecting Female Participation in Education in Seven Developing Countries. Second Edition. Education Research. Serial No. 9.
- Brown, G., Irby, B. & Yang, L.L. (2005). Gender equity in early childhood assessment. In Koch, J. & Irby, B. (Eds.) *Gender and Schooling in the Early Years*. 149-163. Information Age Publishing.
- Chi, J., & Velez, E. (2017). Investment and intervention in early childhood development (Zaoqi ertong fazhan de touzi yu ganyu). *Journal of Schooling Studies* (Jichu Jiaoyu), 14(5), 11-22.
- Denton, D. Keith. (2002). *Enviro-management: How smart companies turn environmental costs into profits*. N.J.: Prentice Hall
- Douglas Lucas Kivoi (2014). Factors Impeding Political Participation and Representation of Women in Kenya. *Humanities and Social Sciences*. Vol. 2, No. 6, 2014, pp. 173-181. doi: 10.11648/j.hss.20140206.15
- Farah, A. I. (2014). Factors Influencing Women Participation in Entrepreneurial Activities in Mandera Township, Mandera Central Division, Kenya: Nairobi.
- Haque S .M (2003) Citizen Participation in Governance through Representation: Issue of Gender in East Asia. *International Journal of Public Administration*. 26 (5):569–590.
- Heikkinen, M. (2017). Promising Nordic Practices in Gender Equality Promotion in Basic Education and Kindergartens. <http://jultika.oulu.fi/files/isbn9789526211558.pdf>.
- Khosla, Nidhi (2009). The Ready-Made Garments Industry in Bangladesh: A Means to Reducing Gender-Based Social Exclusion of Women? *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 11(1), 289-303
- Liu, Z.L., & Gao, B. C. (2013). The comprehensive development of early childhood education in China (Zhongguo xueqian jiaoyu zonghe fazhan shuiping yanjiu). *Education Studies* (Jiaoyu Yanjiu), 4. <http://mall.cnki.net/magazine/magadetail/JYYJ201304.htm.N/B>:

Nanivazo, M., & Scott, L. (2012). Gender mainstreaming in Nordic development agencies: Seventeen years after the Beijing conference. WIDER. Working Paper, No. 2012/91.

Onsongo, J. 2004. *Factors affecting women's participation in university management in Kenya*, Addis: Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa

UNGEI. (2013). Exploring Gendered Dimensions of Teaching and Learning. New York: United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

Wamuthenya, R. W. (2010) "Determinants of employment in the formal and informal sectors of the urban areas of Kenya," *AERC Research Paper 194 African Economic Research Consortiums*, Nairobi, April 2010.

Wang, D.H. (2012). Studies on the Balanced Development of Compulsory Education in China (Guanyu woguo yiwu jiaoyu juheng fazhan zhi zaishenshi). *Basic Education Review* (Jichu Jiaoyu Cankao),7: 25-28.

World Commission on Environment and Development. (1987). "*Brundtland Report*". <http://www.ace.mmu.ac.uk/eae/Sustainability> International Journal of Business Management and Processes (IJBMP)