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Influence of Excess Pocket Money on Drug Abuse among Secondary Schools in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties, Kenya

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Abstract:

Drug abuse in Kenya is a serious problem facing secondary school going students. Excess pocket money given to students has been cited as a common factor leading to drug abuse. The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between amount of pocket money given to students and drug abuse among students in urban and rural secondary schools in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties. The study used descriptive survey and ex- post facto research design. The target population was all the secondary school students in the region. Purposive sampling was used to select the 66 administrators and school counsellors. Simple random sampling was used to select the 320 students within Form II and III classes. Stratified random sampling was used to select the schools. Pretesting of the instruments was done in the Kiambu County in three schools where the Cronbach correlation coefficient was 0.72, which was higher than the minimum, required in social science research. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 was used in the data analysis. Descriptive analysis (percentages) and Chi-square was used to test the relationship between pocket money and drug abuse. An alpha level of .05 was used for the statistical test. The study indicated that the drug problem was higher in rural schools than in urban schools and that the amount of pocket money given to students has a statistically significant relationship with drug abuse. This study thus recommends that the amount of pocket money given to students should not be excessive and that there should be a heightened focus on educating and enlightening students on proper use of pocket money.

Keywords: students, drug abuse, school, pocket money, urban and rural

1. Introduction

A drug is as any substance that when absorbed into a living organism may modify its physiological functions. In the broadest sense, it is any chemical entity or mixture of entities, other than those required for the maintenance of normal health, the administration of which alters the biological function and possibly structure. Drug abuse is the self-administration of drugs for non-medical reasons, in quantities and frequencies which may impart inability to function effectively and which may result in, physical, social and/or emotional harm (Otieno & Ofulla, 2009).

Students are likely to start experimenting with drugs while at school either at primary or high school. According to the American National Institute on Drug Abuse (ANIDA), the first big transition for children is when they leave the security of the family and enter school. Later, when they advance from elementary school to middle or junior high school, they often experience new academic and social situations, such as learning to get along with a wider group of peers and having greater expectations for academic performance. The National Institute on Drug Abuse (1997) further asserts that during this transition the children are likely to encounter drug abuse for the first time and then face additional social, psychological, and educational challenges later when they enter high school where they may be exposed to greater availability of drugs, drug abusers, and social engagements involving drugs. These challenges can increase the risk that they will abuse alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs with studies showing that early initiation of drug abuse is associated with greater drug involvement, whether with the same or different drugs.

The USA, National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism estimates the number of children who begin drinking in the 8th grade or earlier to range from 36% to 53% (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA), (2005). It was also found that 46% of all students had consumed an alcoholic drink in the 30 days before the survey. Twenty-seven percent of all students reported at least one episode of binge drinking (defined as consuming 5 or more drinks in a row within a couple of hours) during the 30 days before the survey. More than half (59%) of students who reported any current drinking also reported engaging in binge drinking at least once in the 30 days before the survey. Risk behaviours are once again shown to cluster: among students who had ever had a drink in their lives, those who reported current alcohol use were significantly more likely than students who did not drink (the month before the survey) to report lifetime and current drug use, lifetime and recent sexual intercourse, attempting suicide, carrying a weapon, being in a physical fight, and experiencing sexual contact against their will. All measures of alcohol use were associated with significantly lower rates of academic achievement. Students in rural school districts had the highest rate of binge drinking (31% vs. 28% in suburban districts).

Research by the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (NIAAA) has found that one youth in four (or about 19 million young people) is exposed to family alcoholism or alcohol abuse some time before the age of 18. This condition may rise especially when parents care less about their children psychological, physical and social development. Children in families affected by alcohol often live in environments that are stressful, chaotic, and frightening. Moreover, children of alcoholics are vulnerable to mental illness and medical problems and are at greater risk than others to abuse alcohol (Elkins, Malone, McGue & Iacono, 2004).

A pilot survey by Muganda (2004) found that on most school compounds, there is a ready and wide variety of drugs hidden or kept somewhere in the school. For instance in Lugari District it was confirmed from the school records that in the last five years, over 20 students were either suspended or expelled from Lumakanda secondary school for having taken drugs in one year. Schools in Nairobi have also reported higher cases of hard drugs such as cocaine, heroin, kuber and inhalants. Nairobi also leads in tobacco use among students followed by the Rift Valley, Nyanza and North eastern. (Muganda, 2004). This indicates that students are able to buy or are easily supplied with these drugs than we can imagine.

A study conducted by Ngesu, Nduki, & Maseses (2008), revealed that abuse of alcoholic drink by students in Kenya is not confined to urban schools. There are many schools in rural areas where alcohol is a major problem also. For instance, schools located in areas where brewing of chang'aa, busaa and other illicit drinks common in the study Counties often report high cases of students involvement in these illicit drinks. Sneaking out of school is a common phenomenon in schools experiencing indiscipline problems and which are closely located to urban centres or adjacent to shopping centres. In such schools two or three students are usually sent by their colleagues to go and buy the drinks. Those sent are obviously the most daring ones (especially the hardened, indiscipline few). Once in town, they buy liquor, usually the wines and whiskeys and put them in bags before taking the "safest" route back to school. Once they get back to the dormitories, the alcohol is shared out according to how each student contributed. The alcohol is then consumed at night or kept for the week-ends (Muganda, 2004). Another common method used by students to sneak alcoholic substances to schools is by mixing wines and whisky's with juice which is then carried to school during school opening days or after mid-term breaks. In the school, the juices are then hidden in some "secret" places and taken (consumed after night preps or during weekends).

Other occasions during which students get access to alcoholic substances include school outings such as educational trips/tours, sports and games days, music and drama festivals. It has been established that in most cases those who drink alcohol also buy cigarettes an indication that these students have money to buy this drugs. Sometimes hawkers are the ones who are either sent by students for a commission to buy cigarettes or they sell to them directly. The other way in which cigarettes find their way to schools is during schools opening days and mid-term breaks. On such occasions students come with cigarettes concealed in funny and secretive places. Packets of cigarettes have been found hidden in omo detergent containers in the seams of long sleeved shirts, collar and in hidden pockets in their inner wears. The fact that drugs are easily available in the kiosks, bars, hotels, drug stores shops, social gatherings and from subordinate staff in institutions gives the youth easy access to them. In many of the communities within the Counties studied brewing of beer is a traditional practice for this reason, consumption of beer is a cherished practice. It is also more acceptable in society compared to other types of drugs. The same case applies to tobacco which is grown and consumed by various communities freely. This puts the student in this region in a dilemma of either abusing the drugs or abstaining.

The influence of parents and older siblings contributes significantly to drug abuse and addiction among school going students. Parental influence is especially strong in leading students to either abuse or abstain from alcohol and cigarettes. Both parents and teachers are role models to the students. The students tend to copy what they see in adults. Bad examples from adults sometime lead students to alcohol and drug abuse. In homes where parents drink and smoke openly, students tend to copy their parents habits hence, they end up abusing alcohol and drugs. Ngesu et al. (2008) also noted that students from homes where parents abuse drugs tend to imitate the behaviour of their parents by taking illegal drugs. Young people learn from what they see by imitating what other people in community do. The resounding negligence of the society to provide guidance to the students is thus a major factor of drug abuse among the students (Ngesu et al., 2008).

Ndakwe (2005) indicated that widespread abuse of alcohol and other drugs is a result of weak social control systems in Kenya. Parents and other influential figures, are no longer giving the youth proper guidance. The community and religious groups have abandoned their role of nurturing the youth, who become vulnerable to peer pressure. This has made the students seek advice from their fellow students who are also ill-informed in many matters of social life. In Kenya today, there are several dysfunctional families that are the products of social, religions and financial forces operating in the world today. These forces have lead to separations, divorces, death of either one or both parents. Children coming from such families usually suffer from social, psychological or financial constraints or

excesses that sometimes drive them into drugs and substance abuse. Majority of the said children are products of dysfunctional and broken families where there are frequent quarrels and domestic violence. Unable to understand why their parents are frequently at war with each other, children take drugs as a means of seeking solace (Ndakwe, 2005).

Occasionally, one comes across a family that is united and 'normal' but whose parents are very busy or absent for long durations of time. This is often the case with parents who are working or studying abroad while their children are in Kenya. It is also common with high level business parents or those working with international agencies, where they frequently visit different countries on job related missions; such families have very little time for their children. Whether in school or at home, youth from such families' lacks parental love, care and concern and in a number of cases turn to drugs either due to lack of parental guidance or as a way of escaping from loneliness (Kerechio, 2004).

Parents provide their children with pocket money for positive use but student are found o divert this to negative use and especially purchase of illicit brews. This study set out to examine the influence of pocket money in encouraging or discouraging drug abuse in schools. This is an issue that needs attention.

According to Otieno (2009) excess money in the hands of students may be diverted into purchasing of drugs. Students who get access to a lot of money may be tempted to buy drugs. Curiosity, one of the hallmarks of human beings, may lead to extensive exploratory behaviour. Consequently, many young people will wish to try drugs to determine the effects for themselves. Ndegwa (1998) asserts that availability of drugs is a factor that may lead to drug abuse. If drugs are easily available students may decide to try them out and since they have money they easily purchase them at will. In day schools, especially in the urban areas drugs are available and easy to purchase. Even in boarding schools, students may device secret ways of obtaining them. In some cases, members of the public or day scholars from other schools may easily walk into schools and sell the drugs. Results of an unpublished report of the baseline survey on Drug and Substance Abuse among the youth in Kenya (Siringi, 2003) established that the youth from rich families abuse drugs more than those from poor ones. It also stated that those from poor families cannot continue with education for lack of school fees and are unable to finance the use of drugs.

2. Statement of the Problem

Students continue to abuse drugs worldwide and provision of excess pocket money has been thought of as one of the many factors contributing to drug abuse. Unless issues of use of pocket money as well as their influence on drug abuse are fully identified and isolated, the associated problems of abuse would remain in spite of the availability of many prevention and treatment programmes in schools

3. Objective of the Study

To determine the relationship between amount of pocket money given to students and drug abuse in the urban and rural secondary schools in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties.

4. Hypothesis

Ho₂: The amount of pocket money given to students has no statistically significant relationship with drug abuse in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties.

5. Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by the Anomie theory by Emile Durkheim which explains why some young people abuse drugs. It is based on the assumption that lack of regulation or control of behaviour in modern societies can lead to deviant or criminal behaviour like drug abuse (Macionis, 2012). When changes within the society impose pressures on its members, it is possible for many to engage to drug abuse in response to the societal pressures. For example, social factors like busy parents, lack of mentors and role models, lack of good advice, and a highly materialistic philosophy of life that stresses on the need to gain more and spend lavishly are some of the factors that compel underachievers and disillusioned people to seek and try drugs. This fact may be corroborated from the observation that most of the drug addicts take to drugs at a very young age: an age when they are most susceptible to the pressures of the society and peer influence. Parents' pursue material wealth and have very little healthy time with their children. This wealth which is passed on to their children in form of pocket money or money for upkeep is in most cases misused to finance the habit of drug abuse to their detriment.

6. The Conceptual Framework

The anomie theory explained above indicate well how the independent factor and dependent factors for this study may interact with each other to influence the outcome. The independent variable in this study was the excess pocket money and dependent variable was level of drug use. In this study the intervening variables were gender type of drug, age, peer pressure and level of awareness and resistant skills. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework model used by the study.



Figure 1: The Conceptual Framework Model.

Having excess pocket money may influence the ability to acquire the drugs and increase the level of drug abuse. Students with a lot of pocket money have the ability to purchase drugs than those without. Their ability to purchase drugs may escalate the abuse of drugs.

7. Research Design

The research method for this study was descriptive survey. The purpose of a survey is to explore and describe a phenomenon. It seeks to obtain information that describes existing phenomena by asking individuals about their perceptions, attitudes, behaviours or values. The study was guided by ex-*post facto* design. According to Kerlinger (2000) *ex-post facto* design is a system of empirical enquiry in which researchers do not have direct control over independent variables because their manifestation have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable. *Ex-post facto* design was used because the researcher, rather than creating the treatment, only examined the effect of a naturally occurring treatment after the treatment has occurred. The treatment was included by selection rather than by manipulation.

The study was carried out in the Nakuru, Kericho and Laikipia Counties. These counties were chosen because they have a large number of secondary schools comprising of public and private, national, provincial and district schools and a multiplicity of ethnic groups. This means that the respondents were not biased in terms of ethnic background, gender or locality. The Counties also has several urban Centres like Nakuru, Nyahururu, Naivasha, Nanyuki and Kericho and a very remote rural setup. The three Counties are in an agricultural and industrial area with people of diverse cultural, social, educational and economic backgrounds. Thus the issue under investigation would easily be achieved incorporating all this diversity. The area also had all types of schools required for the study. This implied that the population in the region could be rich in information that was being sought.

The target population comprised of all secondary school students in Nakuru, Kericho and Laikipia counties, all the school heads and all guidance and counselling teachers. The schools were profiled into rural and urban schools and into day schools, boarding schools, day and boarding schools respectively.

According to the Provincial Director of Education office there was 529 secondary schools in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties in Kenya where 337 were rural secondary schools and 192 were urban schools. A sample size of 33 (6.24%) out of 529 schools was selected. Of this 21 were rural schools and which constituted 6.23% of the rural schools and 63.6% of the sample size. Twelve (12) urban schools constituting 6.25% of all urban schools and representing 36.4% of the total sample size was used in this study. This provided an almost equal proportionate chance of representation. Based on this record, the sample size for schools is shown in the Table 1. The table gives the distribution of the sample schools. This number of schools was chosen to ensure that all the school categories were represented and according to their total proportion.

		Population			Sample Size		
Gender	Day/Boarding	Rural	urban	Total	rural	urban	Sch. Total
Boys	Day/ Boarding	15	10	15	1	2	3
Girls	Day/ Boarding	22	22	44	2	3	5
Mixed	Day	255	123	378	15	5	20
	Boarding	9	9	18	1	1	2
	Day and Boarding	36	28	64	2	1	3
Total		337	192	529	21	12	33

Table 1: Schools' Population and Schools Sample Size

The sample size for students and school administrators was determined using the following method described by Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003) as indicated below:

When the population size is greater than 10,000 $n = Z^2 pq/d^2$

Where: n = Required Sample Size when the population is >10,000 where n=384

- Z = the standard normal deviation at the required confidence level. In this research z=1.96 at 95% confidence level
- p = Population Proportion estimated with the desired characteristic being measured. P is taken in this research as 0.5
- q = 1-p

• d = the level of significance set. In this research it is .05

The required sample size as per the above procedure was 384.

In retrospect the sample consisted of 320 students from different schools as shown on Table 2. The students were from Forms II and III classes, chosen because they were not so new in their schools and were not busy preparing for final examinations. From each school the head teacher/principal and the guiding and counselling teacher was included in the sample making up a total of 66 participants. This brought the sample of participants to 386 (320+66=386).

		S	Sample of s	Sample of	
Gender	Day/Boarding	rural	Urban	Sch. Total	Students
Boys	Day	0	1	1	10
	Boarding	1	1	2	10
	Day and Boarding	0	0	0	0
Girls	Day	1	1	2	20
	Boarding	1	1	2	20
	Day and Boarding	0	1	1	10
Mixed	Day	15	5	20	200
	Boarding	1	1	2	20
	Day and Boarding	2	1	3	30
Total		21	12	33	320

Table 2: Proportionate Sample of Students

The total sample of 386 respondents was made up of 320 students and 66 head teachers and counsellors as indicated in Table 3.

Target	Total number
Students	320
Head teachers and Guiding and Counselling teachers	66
Total	386

Table 3; Sample Size for Students and School Administrators

8. Sampling Procedure

The sampling frame comprised the entire population of rural and urban secondary school students in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties comprising of 529 schools. The study used a combination of sampling procedures to ensure representation by gender and the different socio-economic conditions. The schools were first stratified into rural and urban schools. Then a further stratification was done to include different categories; across gender (into girls, boys and mixed schools). Within each category of schools simple random sampling was carried out to select a school. According to Kothari (2003) stratified sampling is done when a sample is drawn from a population that is not homogeneous. Under this procedure, the population is divided into several sub-populations that are individually more homogenous than the total population and the sample is drawn from each sub-population proportionately. In this case, the sub-populations were the different types of schools (girls, boys and mixed schools).

For each school that was randomly selected, the head teacher and guidance and counselling teacher were purposively selected into the study. In some schools where more counsellors existed the senior counsellor was selected for their role of coordinating counselling programmes placed them in better position of knowing what was happening in their schools. The students' selected were from Forms II and III were purposively selected because they had been in their school for long enough and were not so busy preparing for the KCSE examination. Where the school was of one gender, selection of the students was done through simple random sampling. Where the school was mixed, stratified random sampling was used. The stratification was based on gender so as to randomly include girls and boys proportionately.

9. Instrumentation

The semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect data from the students, school counsellors and administrators on the prevalence of drug abuse, socio-economic information and use of pocket money. A semi-structured questionnaire contains both close ended and open ended items. Close ended items make the tool easy to administer and inexpensive to analyse. The provision of expected responses helps the respondent to understand the question more clearly. On the other hand, the use of open ended items allows the collection of a wide range of data that can be put in the words of the respondent. The open ended items allowed the researcher to get in-depth information relevant to the study (Kothari, 2003).

Secondary data was collected from the existing literature on the subject matter of the study. The secondary data was collected from books and journals in the library, unpublished theses in libraries, from electronic journals and other electronic publications of various organisations in the internet. Other data was collected from government offices in the relevant ministries.

The questionnaires were piloted on a selected sample similar to the actual sample that was to be included in the study. The piloting allowed establishing and improving the reliability and validity of the tools. It was also important in verifying whether the proposed methods of data analysis were adequate. It was carried out in Kiambu County for it had similar conditions to those of the area of study. The area has similar types of schools including urban and rural schools, similar geographical condition, and similar agriculture set up, people of diverse cultural, social, educational and economic backgrounds and thus chosen. The piloting was carried out in three schools and a total of thirty (30) students, three(3) counsellors and three(3) school principals and counsellors were included. Validity was improved through the input of peers and supervisors. Furthermore, the tools were analysed after the piloting to ensure that each item of the tool collected the required data to address the objectives. In this regard, the tools were improved after piloting to improve on validity.

The internal consistency technique was used to test reliability of the tools. In this method a score obtained in one item is correlated with other items in the instrument (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Cronbach Alpha was used to establish the reliability coefficient. A reliability coefficient of 0.7 or greater is usually deemed as adequate. Modification on the tool was carried out after piloting. After reliability testing the Cronbach correlation coefficient alpha was 0.72 which was above the threshold.

10. Data Collection Procedure

Authority was sought from the National Council of Science and Technology to conduct the research before actual data collection. Permission was also sought from the DEO and County Commissioners from each County. The research first made introductory visit to the selected secondary school to seek permission from the school principal and to also make appropriate for the most appropriate time to visit. During the data collection, three research assistants were trained on how to use the tools before administration of the questionnaires. The research assistants ensured that they supervised the respondents and provided any assistance they required as they filled the questionnaires. Issues of confidentiality were well explained and no respondent was expected to write his name or that of his school in the questionnaire.

11. Data Analysis

The analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 17. Before the actual analysis was done, data were edited, coded, entered into the programme and then cleaned. Descriptive statistics used to discuss the results included means, percentages, measures of central tendency and frequencies. The hypothesis was tested using Chi-square at 0.05 level of significance.

12. Results and Discussion

Acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis was based on the calculated tests statistics and the value of the probability of significance (p-value). The null hypothesis was accepted if $P \ge .05$, and it was rejected if P < .05.

In order to gather the necessary information on pocket money and drug abuse the researcher had intended to capture an equal number of boys and girls so that this report would not only be gender sensitive but one that would provide information that was all inclusive. This was not so for some school especially the mixed school, girls would shy away from being included as respondents especially the Form II girls. This made the number of males to be more than that of female student's respondents. The male student made a larger proportion of the respondents than the female counterparts in both rural and urban schools with males being 51.3% and 50.3% respectively. About 80% of the student respondents, 80.8% were aged 16-18 years, 10.4% were aged below 16 years whereas 8.8% of the respondents were aged above 18 years. Two classes were considered for inclusion in this study. The Students participants per form are indicated in Table 4.

Class	Frequency	Per cent
Form 2	125	39.1
Form 3	195	60.9
Total	320	100.0

Table 4: Form (Class) of Student Respondent

The Form III class made up 60.9% of the student respondents while the rest were Form II (Table 4).

The duration of stay for a student in a particular school would be useful in confirming whether the student had enough time to have known the history of drug abuse of a particular school and associated pocket money distribution. Thus the researcher found it necessary to ask the respondent to give the duration of stay of an individual student in that school. Table 5 indicates the findings.

Duration	Frequency	Per cent
1 Year	56	17.6
2 years	100	31.3
3 years	159	49.8
Over 3 years	4	1.3
Total	319	100.0

Table 5: Duration of Students Stay in a School

Table 5 clearly shows that majority of the respondents selected for this study had stayed in school long enough (3 years) and this could provide useful and reliable information on issue related to drug abuse in relations to their school. The highest proportion of the student respondents (49.8%) had stayed in the school for three years and 31.3% had stayed for 2 years. Only 17.6% and 1.3% had stayed in the school for 1 year and over three years respectively. Thus the respondents (students) selected for this study the Form II and III and were mainly in this category of students. This meant that the information they gave was quite substantive as far as issue of a school drug abuse cases are concerned. It was also useful to find out where majority of the students lived. This would help in identifying their economic status and that of their parents. Some of the student respondents lived in the rural areas with their parents or guardians (49.5%) and others lived in urban areas (50.5%). It was also necessary to find out who paid their school fees. Table 6 indicates the students' fees payments

Paid by	Frequency	Percent
Parent	285	89.3
Guardian	34	10.7
Total	319	100.0
	/	00.0

Table 6: Students School Fees Payments

About 89.3% of the students reported that it was their parents who paid their fees while the rest had their fees paid by their guardians as indicated on table 6. It is important to note that only 10.7% of the students never got support from their immediate families The research objective for this paper was to determine the relationship between amount of pocket money given to students and drug abuse in the urban and rural secondary schools in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties. The research found that Student receive different amount of pocket money and the researcher attempted to find out the differences of the amount of pocket money received by student from rural and urban school. The results are indicated in Table 7.

School location						
		<500	500-1000	1000-2000	>2000	Total
Rural	Frequency	85	40	14	10	149
	% within rural schools	57	26.8	9.4	6.7	100
	% of Average pocket money	47.8	52.6	43.8	55.6	49
Urban	Frequency	93	38	19	8	158
	% within urban schools	58.9	24.1	12.0	5.1	100.0
	% of Average pocket money	52.2	48.7	57.6	44.4	51.5
Total	Frequency	178	78	33	18	307
	% within all schools	58.0	25.4	10.7	5.9	100.0
	% of Average pocket money	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 7: Amount of Pocket Money Given to Students and Location of School

The difference in the amount of pocket money received by students in rural schools was only slightly different from that given to students in urban schools. Most of the respondents received up to one thousand shillings of pocket money. This applied to both students in rural as well as urban schools. In rural schools, 83.8% of the students received up to 1000 shillings whereas the same amount was received by 83.2% of the students in urban schools. For small amounts of pocket money (<KES500), few students in rural schools (57%) received this than in urban schools (60%). For large amounts (>KES 2000) more students from rural schools (6.7%) received this amount as compared to students from urban schools (5.9%).

A chi square test was carried out to test whether there was any relationship between the amount of pocket money given and the location of school. It was found that there was no significant association between the pocket money given and the location of the school. (χ^2 =1.174, df =3, p=0.759).

	Ever used drugs	Average amount of pocket money				Total
		<500	500-1000	1000-2000	>2000	
Yes	Frequency	18	13	3	9	43
	% of Ever used drugs	41.9	30.2	7.0	20.9	100.0
	% of Average pocket money	11.8	14.3	9.4	47.4	14.6
No	Frequency	134	78	29	10	251
	% of Ever used drugs	53.4	31.1	11.6	4.0	100.0
	% of Average pocket money	88.2	85.7	90.6	52.6	85.4
Total	Frequency	152	91	32	19	294
	% of Ever used drugs	51.7	31.0	10.9	6.5	100.0
	% of Average amount of pocket money	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Student were asked to state the average amount of pocket money they receive and this was compared to whether they have ever abused drugs or not and their response is given in Table 8.

Table 8; Amount of Pocket Money and Drug abuse

Of the total respondents, 14.8% reported using drugs whereas 85.2 % were not using drugs. Proportionately those who used drugs received more pocket money than those who did not take drugs. Whereas 20.9% of those who took drugs received more than 2000 shillings of pocket money, only four percent of those who did not take drugs received a similar amount of pocket money. Similarly, for low amounts of pocket money (<500 shillings) a less percentage of the students (41.9%) taking drugs received this amount as compared to those who were not taking drugs (53.4%).

13. Hypothesis Testing: The Amount of Pocket Money Given to Students Has No Statistically Significant Relationship with Drug Abuse in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties

A chi-square test was done to test whether there was any significant relationship between the amount of pocket given to students and drug abuse in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties. Table 9 gives the chi-square association of pocket money and drug abuse.

Ever used drugs	Average amount of pocket money				
	<500	500-1000	1000-2000	>2000	
Yes	18	13	3	9	43
No	134	78	29	10	251
Total	152	91	32	19	294

Table 9: Chi-square for Association of Pocket Money and Drug abused $\chi^2 = 17.971$, df = 3, p < 0.001

It was found that there was a significant relationship between the two variables (χ^2 =17.971, df = 3, p<0.001). This result indicates that the null hypothesis "The amount of pocket money given to students has no statistically significant influence on drug abuse in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties." has to be rejected. Therefore, it can be surmised that the amount of pocket money given to students has a statistically significant influence on drug abuse. This implies that a student who is given more pocket money is more likely to abuse drugs than those who receive relatively less amounts. Consequently, regulating the amount of pocket money can be one of the steps that can be used to address the issue of drug abuse. There is also a need of educating students on how to manage and utilise their pocket money wisely so that it is not channelled to the wrong purpose.

The study revealed that proportionately those who used drugs received more pocket money than those who did not take drugs. Moreover the student reported that the major drug abusers tended to be the most affluent. This was the case for both rural and urban schools. This is in line with published literature where money is a predisposing factor towards drug abuse. Siringi (2003), in a report of the baseline survey on drug and substance abuse among the youth in Kenya established that the youth from rich families abuse drugs more than those from poor ones. Further, students from poor families cannot continue with education for lack of school fees and as well are unable to finance the use of drugs. Similarly, according to Otieno (2009) excess money in the hands of students may be diverted into purchasing of drugs. Students who get access to a lot of money may be tempted to buy drugs.

Schools have the responsibility of ensuring the overall development of students, by providing an environment that supports their adjustment to school and to life. This would make students to fully realize their unique individual potential, and in their adults' lives, contribute as citizens of their country, and as well as being useful members of their families and communities.

14. Summary

The results of the study show that the amount of pocket money given to students has a statistically significant relationship with drug abuse in Laikipia, Nakuru and Kericho Counties. The hypothesis upon testing showed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi 2=17.971$, df = 3, p<0.001). This led to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Therefore, the amount of pocket money given to students has a statistically significant influence on drug abuse."

15. Conclusion

The conclusion that can be made from this study is that the more the pocket money the higher the probability of drug abuse among students.

16. Recommendations

The recommendation of were;

- The amount of pocket money given to students should not be in excess or if it is excess there should be a follow up on how it is utilised. The study revealed that a higher percentage of students abusing drugs received higher amounts than those who did not abuse drugs. Thus a programme should be put in place to help the students develop skills and ability of managing finances properly and avoid misusing it in buying illicit drugs.
- Parents should be closer with their children early enough to train their children on assertive skill of saying no to drug abuse. They should provide them with financial management knowledge early enough and be supportive to them on any other challenges they may encounter related to drug abuse.
- In the processes of Teaching teachers should incorporate issues related to drug abuse dangers, management and control. Every teacher should carry the burden of good role modelling. Simple instruction on how to manage pocket money and other resources should always be discussed by teachers during teaching, special forums and in counselling sessions.
- The law on not selling drugs to underage should be enforced and heavy penalty be imposed to those found selling drugs to students.

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