

682

**DECENTRALISATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN
KEBIRIGO DIVISION, GESENENO VILLAGE, KEBIRIGO ZONE NYAMIRA
DISTRICT OF NYANZA PROVINCE- KENYA:**

**BY
RORI ZEPHANIA MOMANYI
BED/30119/82/DF**

**RESEARCH REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE OF OPEN AND DISTANCE
LEARNING PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF BACHELORS DEGREE IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
(SCIENCE) OF KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY**

NOVEMBER 2011

DECLARATION

I, **RORI ZEPHANIA MOMANYI** declare that this project is my original work and has never been presented to any other university for award of any academic certificate or anything similar to such. I solemnly bear and stand to correct any inconsistency.

SIGNATURE 

RORI ZEPHANIA MOMANYI

DATE: 19/12/2010

DEDICATION

This book is dedicated to my wife Mrs: Martha Bosibori and my cousin Bernard Osumo plus my son Philip Momanyi their love and support during my course.

APPROVAL

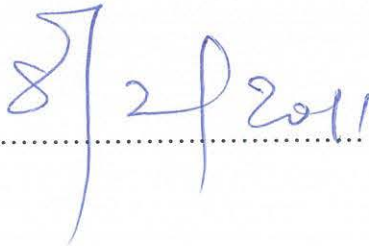
This report is resulting from the researcher's effort in the area of the nature and performance of decentralized education service delivery in Nyamira District, Kenya was conducted under my supervision with my approval; it is now ready for submission to the academic board for the award of a Bachelor of Development Studies of Kampala International University

SIGNATURE



MRS; NANKINGA YUDAYA

DATE



ACKNOWLEDGMENT

First of all I give thanks to the almighty God for his mercy and grace granted to me during this time of my degree course and through this research project

I would like to thank my supervisor Mrs. Nankinga Yudaya for being there for me whenever I needed her and also offering his professional advice where necessary.

Not to forget my friends and class mates, for their support may my Lord reward them.

Am also grateful to the full Faculty of IODL Kampala International University for mounting all the directives, procedures and methods of carrying out this research project

I would also like to thank the respondents who returned the questionnaires and those who were cooperative to me.

May God bless you all.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION.....	ii
APPROVAL.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
ABSTRACT	x
CHAPTER ONE:INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	2
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	2
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	2
1.5 Research questions	3
1.6 Scope of the Study.....	3
1.7 Significance of the Study.....	3
CHAPTER TWO:LITERATURE REVIEW.....	4
2.0 Introduction	4
2.1 Definition.....	4
2.3 Decentralization and Service Delivery	5
2.4 Decentralization of Education	7
2.5 Africa's Education Decentralization in Practice	8
2.5.1 Education Decentralization Kenya	9
2.6 Delegation to Schools and School Councils.....	12
2.7 Conclusions and Lessons Learned.....	16

CHAPTER THREE:RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	17
3.1 Research Design.....	17
3.2 Area of the Study.....	17
3.3 Population and Sample Size.....	17
3.3. Sampling Procedure.....	17
3.4 Methods of Data Collection	17
3.5 Data Analysis	18
3.6 Ethical consideration	18
3.8 Validity and reliability.....	18
3.8.1 Validity	19
3.8.2 Reliability	19
CHAPTER FOUR:DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION....	20
4.0 Introduction	20
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.....	20
4.2. The nature of educational services in Kenya.....	21
4.2.1 Equitable Access to Secondary Education	21
4.2.2 Completion rates:.....	22
4.2.3 Transition Rates.....	24
4.2.4 Secondary school dropout rates.....	24
4.2.5 Equitable Access to Secondary Education	25
4.2.6 Completion rates at senior four	26
4.2.7 Relevance of Education	26
4.2.8 Quality of Education.....	27
4.2.9 Affordability of Education.....	28
4.3 The adequacy of budget allocation for education.....	29
4.3.1 Budgetary Allocation.....	29
4.4 Community Participation.....	32
4.5 Barriers to Effective Community Participation	34
4.6 Strategies to Enhance Education Provision	35
4.6.1 Liberalization, Privatization; and Partnership	35

4.6.2 Poverty Alleviation.....	35
--------------------------------	----

CHAPTER FIVE:SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	37
---	----

5.1 Conclusions	37
-----------------------	----

5.2 Recommendations	39
---------------------------	----

REFERENCES	40
------------------	----

APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE	45
-----------------------------------	----

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Growth in the Secondary Enrolment 1996-2004 as a consequence of UPE	21
Table 2: Performance indicators for the Secondary sub sector (2009-2009)	23
Table 3: Trends in transition rate to senior one (S1) and senior five (S5) (2005-2009)	24
Table 4: Public Expenditure on Education (billions of KENYA shillings)	30

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Estimated Drop-out rate	24
Figure 2: Trends in Total Enrolment in secondary schools (2000 - 2004).....	25
Figure 3: Trends in Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education	26

ABSTRACT

The major objective of this study was to examine the implementation process of Education Decentralization specifically in view of having the required institutions, and their performance, the level and nature of participation of the community, the financial resources made available and its adequacy. To meet the above objective concerned authorities, professionals and community members have been interviewed.

Data for the research was collected from Secondary sources with the help of interview guides, unstructured questionnaire and focus group discussion guides. Secondary sources were equally reviewed. The study was conducted in Nyamira District in the Eastern part of the country.

The study found out, among other things, that Kenya Education Decentralization gave the mandate for responsibilities like: opening schools; recruit, promote, discipline and dismiss teachers and other educational professionals; procure and distribute school provisions without prior approval of ministry of education. The study found that the power devolved is adequate to undertake the responsibilities of expanding Basic Education. But the relationship between the Nyamira District Education office and that of schools is mostly characterized by a top-down hierarchical relationship. In Nyamira District Education and schools level there is manpower problem in terms of having the relevant capacity to undertake the responsibilities and bring change in Education Decentralization. There is acute budget shortage principally capital budget which is reflected in shortage of school infrastructure, provisions and manpower shortage and as a result a tendency of exercising much reliance on the community beyond it can afford to tolerate is observed.

It was generally recommended that for Education Decentralization to succeed there is a need to address the capacity of all those involved from District Education office to the level of schools and equally the budget constraint must be solved if education should serve as a basis for all forms of development.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter looked at background, problem statement, purpose, objectives, research questions, significance and conceptual framework of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

In recent years, many countries have increasingly resorted to decentralization measures as a way to realize effective public service delivery and local self rule. Several political systems implemented a range of decentralization policies that are designed to bestow different degrees of power, responsibility and resources-sharing rights to decentralized entities. While some experimented with the devolved type of decentralization, others experimented with the deconcentrated and delegated variant.

In a decentralized system, intermediate and local levels of government as well as institutions are believed to have the freedom to make decisions on various functions such as policy making, generating funds and spending, provision of public services like education, health, social insurance, justice services and others.

The scope of the concept of decentralization is revealed by the many objectives it serves. Programs are decentralized to overcome delays in service delivery. It is thought that decentralization will improve governments responsiveness to the public and increase the quantity and quality of the services it provides (Rondnelli, Nellis, Cheema: 1988). Furthermore, some scholars in showing the relationship between decentralization and service delivery have mentioned that many functions that are currently the responsibility of central ministries or agencies are performed poorly because of the difficulty of extending central services to local communities.

What local governments can achieve depends on the resources and responsibilities they are granted and on the power of national governments to override their decisions.

World Development Report (1999/2000) shows that local service provision requires an adequate resource base, money, people, information and technology.

Improving service provision for local development requires specifying institutional arrangements for the production and delivery of public facilities. Allocating roles among local organizations, according to the context and conditions, and enhancing their capacity is among the important activities.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Part of the overall decentralization process in Kenya, decentralization of educational management has been officially adopted through the 2002 Education and Training Policy of Kenya to create the necessary condition to expand, enrich and improve the relevance, quality, accessibility and equity of education and training (MOE 2002). Generally national ministries, public corporations and other central government agencies attract the most skilled technicians and the best educated managers, leaving a chronic shortage of talent at the local level. Studies undertaken by scholars like Rondinelli, Nellis and Cheema (1983) show that financial, human and physical resource constraints have inhibited the successful implementation of decentralization in nearly all developing countries. These scholars emphasize that the limited resources made available to local organizations in the initial stages of decent. The inadequacy of financial resources and the inability to allocate and expand them effectively has motivated the researcher to investigate the performance of education in the decentralized system in Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the nature and performance of decentralized education service delivery in Nyamira District, Kenya

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives;

1. To examine the nature of educational services

2. To examine the adequacy of budget allocation for education
3. To identify the level of community involvement to promote the service through participatory approach
4. To identify constraints, challenges and problems and achievements

1.5 Research questions

1. What is the current status of education service in the nyamira District?
2. What new institutional arrangements are put in place and how is coordination and integration ensured?
3. What is the level and nature of community participation in the education sector?
4. What is the level of budget allocation for education and is enough financial resource assigned to deliver appropriate service?

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study concentrated of the nature and performance of decentralized education service delivery in Nyamira District Nyamira District is a district in eastern Kenya. It is named after the largest city in the district, Nairobi East, which also the main administrative and commercial center in the sub-region. The study took place for a period of three months from May to August 2010.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Highlight the problems that deserve attention for future solutions.

Generate valuable information on decentralized education service delivery since the sector is one of the bases of development.

Create awareness on the part of higher authorities to reflect on corrective measures.

Encourage future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to familiarize readers with the theoretical a literature review of decentralization.

2.1 Definition

Decentralization is not easily defined. Different scholars and writers define decentralization in different ways. Not with standing the variations in interpretation, decentralization can be understood as the transfer of legal and political authority from a central government and its affiliates to sub national level organizations and institutions. This is aimed at enabling officials and institutions below the national level to make decisions and mange public functions. Let us look at some of the definitions.

Decentralization is transferring authority and responsibility from the central government to field units or agencies, corporations, non-government and semi-autonomous public authorities etc. to plan, manage, raise and allocate resources (Liou, 2001).

Decentralization is the devolution of resources, tasks and decision-making powers to lower- level authorities, which are elected and independent of the central government. It has a form of deconcentration and devolution (Bossuyt and Jermy, 2000; Yigremew, 2001).

Political Decentralization aims to empower citizens or their elected representatives by giving more power of decision making. Political decentralization is usually based on constitutional reforms, the development of multi-party politics, and the presence of strong legislatures and the encouragement of effective public interest groups (WB, 1997).

Decentralization, or decentralizing governance, refers to the restructuring or reorganization of authority so that there is a system of co-responsibility between institutions of governance at the central, regional and local levels according to the principle of subsidiarity, thus increasing the overall quality and effectiveness of the system of governance while increasing the authority and capacities of sub-national levels (UNDP 1997).

Rondinelli's (1981) classification of the types of decentralization-deconcentration, delegation, devolution remains useful. However, Parker (1995) and Binswanger and Shah (1994) found through their literature reviews, that most analysis of decentralization are one-dimensional, focusing narrowly on fiscal relations, or on political aspects, or some other characteristics.

Successful decentralization programs have just the right mix of political, administrative, and fiscal elements and include sophisticated mechanisms to achieve redistribution and efficiency objectives (Parker 1995).

2.3 Decentralization and Service Delivery

Service Delivery basically refers to the systematic arrangement of activities in service, giving institutions with the objective of fulfilling the needs and expectations of service users and other stakeholders with the optimum use of resources. Service delivery improvement contributes to the establishment of administrative machinery that can face the challenges of the 21st century.

The classic argument in favor of decentralization is that it increases the efficiency and responsiveness of government, locally elected leaders know their constituents better than authorities at the national level and so should be well positioned to provide the public services local residents want and need. Physical proximity makes it easier for citizens to hold local officials accountable for their performance.

Decentralization can create competition among local governments to better satisfy

citizens needs (World development Report 1999/2000).

Decentralization will improve government's responsiveness to the public and increase the quantity and quality of services it provides. Many functions that are currently the responsibility of central ministries or agencies are performed poorly because of the difficulty of extending central services to local communities. Programs are decentralized with the expectation that delays will be reduced and indifference to satisfying the needs of the clientele are overcome (Rondinelli, Nellis, Cheema 1983).

Decentralizing governance, from the center to the regions, districts, local government's authorities and local communities, can be an effective means of achieving critical objectives of sustainable human development vision, improved access to services and employment, increased people participation in decisions affecting their lives, and enhanced government responsiveness (UNDP 1997).

When decentralization is accompanied by local elections, government responsiveness increases markedly, improving the quantity, speed and quality of service delivery (WB 1996).

Shah (1997) emphasizes that arguments that recommend decentralization only for mature governments in developed countries are misleading. Indeed, it is probably more difficult for developing countries to operate central government structures effectively. These require complex machinery, involving well-developed infrastructure and highly trained staff, to ensure that information flows to the center and rules are enforced. Developing countries public administrations fare better under decentralized systems because some of the oversight and decision making functions are moved to local governments, which have the information and incentives to efficiently perform them.

Local communities possess significant latent capacity, which was earlier suppressed by centralized rule, for planning and implementing local micro-projects. They are capable of highly productive innovations, and can often deliver services more efficiently than conventional bureaucracies (WB 1995).

Skeptics feared that decentralization would lead to a collapse of services, since localities lacked technical expertise. However, decentralization disclosed a substantial hidden capacity to plan and execute programs, often far better than the earlier centralized administration (WB 1995).

2.4 Decentralization of Education

The expansion of education throughout the world in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries occurred simultaneously with the development of strong governments, which sought standardization of the content and process of schooling. In the pursuit of improved quality and higher efficiency through standardization, most education systems became more centralized.

In contrast in recent years there has been renewed interest by countries, international aid organizations and scholars in decentralization of government, including public education. Decentralization of schools is truly a global phenomenon (Fiske 1996). As for example in 1972 Peru established regionalized directorates and community nuclei to reduce bureaucracy. In 1974, the Philippines established thirteen regional offices of the Ministry of Education to undertake regional planning and administration. In 1977, Nigeria established local governments whose main function is provision of Secondary education. And in 1980, Chile instituted the most radical decentralization policy to date, assigning the responsibility for elementary and secondary education to municipalities, along with local revenue sources to support them.

In the newly independent countries that once made up the former Soviet Union, central governments stripped of political legitimacy and lacking financial resources, simply

lost control of the educational system. Decentralization emerged as a way of filling a political vacuum.

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has generally favored strong community involvement in educational planning. UNESCO has generally favored decentralization as one means of incorporating marginal groups in public decision making and improving the quality of services they receive (Wikler 1989). The action takes forms ranging from elected school boards in Chicago to school clusters in Cambodia to vouchers in Chile (Fiske 1996).

Fiske (1996) in his attempt to explain the decentralization of education notes that decentralization of schools is a complex process that can result in major changes in the way school systems go about making policy, generating revenues, spending funds, training teachers, designing curricula, and managing local schools. He further develops his point by stating that inherent in such changes are fundamental shifts in the values that underlie public education values that concern the relationships of students and parents to schools, the relationships of communities to central government, and indeed, the very meaning and purpose of public education. According to Fiske, school decentralization is also a political process since it involves substantial shift in power.

The rationale for decentralization may differ depending on the level to which educational decision-making responsibilities are assigned. Decentralization to the regional level is most frequently undertaken for reasons of administrative convenience (as in Latin America). Decentralization to the local level is more commonly undertaken as a means of democratization and increasing citizen participation and as a means of stimulating larger financial contributions by the community (Winkler 1989).

2.5 Africa's Education Decentralization in Practice

Reflecting the cross-country diversity in approaches to public sector institutional reform more broadly, there is a very wide diversity across African countries in the way in which

they have approached decentralization of education. This section examines three different types of approaches: decentralization of control over education to regional/provincial authorities; decentralization to local governments; and decentralization to community schools. The country examples to be reviewed are, grouped according to the three distinct approaches. The grouping is somewhat loose and is based what was deemed to be the dominant or focal aspect of the reform, recognizing that some countries have adopted mixed approaches.

Table 3: Country Examples of Education Decentralization in Africa

Type of Education Decentralization	Country Examples
Devolution to Regions	Ethiopia, Nigeria, South Africa
Devolution to Localities	Tanzania, KENYA
Explicit Delegation to Schools	Burkina Faso, Mali, Senegal

2.5.1 Education Decentralization Kenya

After decades of civil war and dictatorship, the National Resistance Movement (NRM) began to bring some stability to Kenya in 1986. This included an overall effort to decentralize government legislated primarily through the 1995 Constitution and the 1997 Local Government Act. There are 45 districts with elected councils and chairs and over 800 sub-counties.

Recently, the Government of Kenya (GOU) has increased its effort in the education sector, raising spending from 2.6 percent of GNP in 1996 (with only 43 percent allocated to Secondary schooling) to 4 percent in 2000, or nearly a third of its discretionary recurrent budget. This increase was necessitated by the much celebrated “big bang” approach the government took to universal Secondary education (UPE) in 1997, abolishing all fees for Secondary schooling and fully assuming the responsibility for financing the sector. Up to that point, household contributions represented about 60 percent of funds for Secondary schools. As a consequence, enrolments skyrocketed, and pupil-teacher ratios increased.

Despite annual economic growth of 7 percent during the early 1990s, social services hardly improved in many respects. A now famous Public Expenditure Tracking Survey found that as little as one quarter of Secondary education grant monies actually reached schools and further that schools operated under perverse incentives to misreport enrolment and fee data. Since 1995, the GOU has sought to redress these problems, namely “to improve the flow of information, and make budget transfers transparent by: i) publishing amounts transferred to the districts in newspapers and radio broadcasts; ii) requiring schools to maintain public notice boards to post monthly transfer of funds; iii) legally providing for accountability and information dissemination in the 1997 Local Governance Act; and iv) requiring districts to deposit all grants to schools in their own accounts, and delegating authority for procurement from the center to the schools.”

Officially, the districts are responsible for providing Secondary and secondary schooling but are supposed to devolve Secondary education to the sub-counties and other local governments (villages and parishes) and schools, but the division of powers under the Local Government Act is not entirely transparent. Districts recruit teachers, but teacher pay is both determined and provided by the central government. Lang (2000) captures the recent progress in this area nicely:

“When Kenya introduced UPE, it also introduced a capitation grant system, which provides about \$4 per child per year for children in grades one through three and \$6 per child per year for children in the next four years. The government pays teachers salaries and textbooks, but the grants are used to fund other school needs. Kenya’s grant system is calculated centrally and released as a conditional block grant to districts, which in turn, release all funds to schools on the basis of enrollment. The ministry has also released guidelines to schools for allocation of funds, for example, 50% for scholastic materials, 5% for administration, and so on. The School Management Committee manages the money at school level. The amounts received from the district office are posted publicly in the school. Some schools publicly display expenditures, but anyone can ask to see the records of how the money is spent. There have been regular audits that show increasing evidence that the funds do reach the schools and are utilized for the purposes intended.”

Regarding the role of the School Management Committees, Azfar et al (2000: 9) explains:

“The School Management Committee, which is distinct from but often associated (or overlapping) with the PTA, now appears to be the most important governance mechanism dealing with education locally. These committees are empowered to sign checks for the headmaster, oversee the schools, and investigate problems.... The committees also oversee school construction and improvements.”

Table 5a: Education Devolution in Kenya.

Function	Description
Teacher Compensation	Set nationally, administered regionally (district level) through conditional grants.
Teacher Recruitment	Regional level.
Principal Recruitment	Regional Level.
Allocation of Budget	Central transfer of funds to regions, sub-counties, and schools. Some school-level budget responsibility.
School Construction	Funded centrally, administered and overseen regionally, and implemented largely by schools.

The Kenyan decentralization experience has won significant international praise, though naturally it has had its pitfalls. Transparency of budgetary allocation, largely in response to the very negative outcomes of the Public Expenditure Tracking Survey, has played a large role in its early successful aspects. For instance, information on the conditional grants to districts are published in the national press and provided to schools. Schools and sub-counties, in turn, must publicize their budgets and sources of funds. In addition, a

rare, detailed analysis of the Kenyan reforms shows that in fact some of the touted theoretical benefits of decentralization can occur in practice. Specifically, sub-county government officials are well-aware of the preferences of parents even if institutional rigidities prevent them from matching those preferences well. Unfortunately, devolution may be reproducing centralization at the regional level, in part because the assignment of, and expectations for, sub-regional responsibilities is not well articulated in the decentralization legislation. This result is particularly negative since regional officials were found to be less in touch with citizen preferences than either sub-county or national officials.

2.6 Delegation to Schools and School Councils

The empowerment of schools and school councils fall under several rubrics—school based management, community schools, and community participation. While these terms are often used interchangeably, they mean quite different things when arrayed along a continuum of voice and authority.

Community schools tend to have strong parental voice and high authority, in which parents select the governing board which in turn selects the school director and other personnel and which along with the school director has a high degree of authority to make decisions.

School based management is a term typically used to describe schools where a high degree of authority has been delegated to the school principal, but parents may have limited voice in terms of assigning the director and other key personnel, in terms of selecting the governing board (if there is one), and in terms of making important personnel and budget decisions.

Community participation is the voluntary participation of parents and other citizens in school councils. Typically, these school councils are advisory bodies rather than decision making bodies and, typically, they fall apart if they are not granted serious decision making responsibilities.

Community schools, the focus of this section, are the most common form of educational decentralization in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) as well as the most studied and evaluated. In some countries they represent a significant percentage of all schools. For example, they represent 20 percent of Secondary schools in Togo, 32 percent of Secondary schools in Mali, 50 percent of secondary schools in Tanzania, and most Secondary schools in Ghana. Community schools are found at both the Secondary and secondary levels. Most are in rural (often remote) areas and rely upon inexperienced, uncertified teachers (often high school dropouts from the local community). They provide examples of some of the most successful efforts to date in the sector, and they also show the possible drawbacks.

Community schools have deep historical roots, both as a response by communities to the failure of the state to provide access to schools—especially, in remote rural areas--and as a result of efforts by churches to create autonomous, religious schools. However, increasingly, governments are stimulating their creation and growth, with the objective of rapidly expanding coverage at relatively low cost. Community schools now often fit squarely into larger reforms to decentralize school systems and governments.

Table 6 presents a simple typology for classifying the emerging variety of community schools. Each of the elements of the typology are explored further below.

Table 6: Typology of Community Schools

Characteristics	Definitions
Motivation	Community initiative vs. government initiative
Finance	Self-finance through fees, government subsidies, and/or NGO subsidies
Governance	Selection and composition of school council
Council Powers	School construction vs. school governance and management
Regulation and Supervision	Benign neglect, encouragement, discouragement, or cooptation

The financing of community schools usually includes school fees, but a number of national and international NGOs—CARE, World Learning, World Education, Action Aid, World Care, Save the Children, ADEF-Afrique, Aide et Education, and UNICEF—provide partial or full funding. Increasingly, these NGOs act as conduits for government, bi-lateral and multi-lateral grants and loans. A more recent phenomenon is government assistance. For example, Burkina Faso, with a net Secondary enrollment rate of only 32 percent, has begun paying the salaries of newly recruited teachers contracted by community school councils with the dual objective of rapidly improving access and doing so at much lower cost than would be possible through the traditional public school system with its highly paid teachers. Senegal, also, is moving to local recruitment of contract teachers. Guinea provides assistance to community schools in the form of training, materials and teacher salary supplements. Government financial need not come from the central government: in Ethiopia it is the local governments which match revenues from fees at the school level.

One risk of decentralization to community schools with government assistance is the subsequent removal of government financial support. In Zambia, for example, after initially encouraging community schools, the government subsequently reduced its funding, thus forcing schools to charge student fees to meet minimum costs. Currently, Zambian households spend almost as much on a pupil's education (\$17 annually) as does the government (\$22 annually) in Zambia.

The governance of community schools varies across and even within countries, but it usually includes participation by teachers, parents, and community members. When school directors serve on the governing council, as in Guinea, they can come to dominate the other members, many of whom may be illiterate.

While the powers of community schools varies across and even within countries, they nearly always include community involvement in school construction and maintenance [e.g., Malawi, Senegal]. The provision—finance and construction—of a school by the community is often a condition for the government to place a teacher in the community.

In many cases, communities provide all the financing—either in cash or in-kind—for construction. In other cases, communities may only provide a small share of matching financing (usually 10 percent) but, also, assume the responsibility for procuring and managing construction activities. Of course, by definition participation requires significant time, effort, and other non-cash resources as inputs from parents and community members. While such participation is generally touted as an unequivocal benefit, participation is itself a scarce resource and any true evaluation of cost effectiveness would need to take account of the cost side of the participation ledger.

An important distinction is between community school councils which construct and maintain schools and those which actually govern and manage schools. With respect to the latter, almost all set the school calendar and daily schedule to fit parental needs, and almost all set their own fee levels. In Mali, Zambia, and several other countries, community school councils can hire and fire teachers. On the other hand, in Togo the central government selects the school directors. It also is useful to distinguish between community school councils with real powers—either in construction and maintenance or in governance and management—and those with illusory powers. Ghana, for example, has legislatively mandated the creation of school management councils [SMCs] but given them only advisory powers. Similarly, in Guinea school councils have a largely advisory role to play vis a vis teacher management.

In general, community schools are lightly regulated, if not in law, at least in practice. In most countries, the central government regulates the core curriculum and sometimes textbooks, though none has gone as far as Zambia and created a separate central entity to regulate and coordinate community schools services and activities. But even in Zambia, technical assistance to and supervision of community schools is rare, and the result can be inconsistent educational quality and a lack of qualified teachers and supplies. While benign neglect in regulation may be viewed as a benefit by the schools themselves, it is also a legal risk. Many community schools lack the firm legal basis to ensure their long term viability. The legal and political risks to community schools are likely to increase as

community schools become viewed as threats by labor unions and other education stakeholders.

There is mounting evidence that community schools are educationally successful, especially in terms of reducing student and teacher absenteeism. There is, also, suggestive evidence that learning has improved in some cases. Of particular note is the careful empirical study by Dowd (2001) showing that by enhancing local accountability community support in Malawi has an important independent impact on student learning. More broadly, there is anecdotal and qualitative evidence that parental and citizen participation in the governance of community schools has not only improved over time but, also, has spilled over into other realms of civil society.

The studies that provide this evidence must be interpreted with caution, since many are self-studies or studies commissioned by the programs being evaluated, and few have the necessary baseline data and experimental controls to provide statistically reliable results. There remains a need for systematic evidence of the impact of various community schools experiences on educational quality and other outcomes. Nevertheless, the impressions, however anecdotal, are positive enough to warrant guarded optimism.

2.7 Conclusions and Lessons Learned

Africa is on the path to decentralizing educational decisions from central government ministry offices in the capital city to regional and local administrative units—sometimes of the MOE itself and sometimes of elected regional and local governments—and to local school communities. This experience is too recent to fully know its effects, or to even know which decentralization policies and strategies work best. To date the best evidence is consistent with international experience in showing that moving responsibilities to schools governed by elected school councils can improve accountability and performance, whereas decentralization to regional or local government provides mixed results highly dependent upon 1) the true decentralization of budget and personnel authority, 2) the incentives created via intergovernmental fiscal transfers and mandates, and 3) the political power struggle inevitable in decentralization reforms..

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study used a case study research design, where both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection were employed. Interviews were used to collect data from a cross section of respondents.

3.2 Area of the Study

The study was carried out in Nyamira District. The place was chosen as the case study because it is the area where most small businesses activities are carried out.

3.3 Population and Sample Size

The population of the study included district education officials, head teachers of the schools in the district, and other officials in the management of education service in the country.

3.3. Sampling Procedure

The researcher employed purposive sampling to get the required respondents who were connected to the education service delivery in the District.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

(i) Instruments

Interview guide

The researcher conducted key informant interviews with the members of the management teams who play a key role in the education services in the district and at the headquarters. The interviews were intended to generate information on policy and challenges faced in the process of providing education services in Kenya.

(i) Documentation

The researcher carried out documentary review. The documents included; policy, strategic plans, budgets and work plans.

3.5 Data Analysis

The researcher carried out qualitative analysis, where information from the respondents was interpreted and presented in chapter four.

3.6 Ethical consideration

The researcher ensured that the names of respondents do not appear on the instruments to ensure confidentiality of the respondents as it is part of the ethical procedure to ensure that respondents are protected.

The researcher assured respondents that the information given by them was purposely for the reasons of this study and was not used for any other purpose. This was done to ensure that they confidently answer all the necessary questions for this research with out fear of using it for other purposes other than that of academic research.

The permission to conduct the research was got from the relevant institutions, which included, Kampala International University and heads of the Bank where data collection took place.

The researcher then went ahead to conduct interviews with the respondents in order to obtain information relevant to this study.

3.8 Validity and reliability

In order to reduce the possibility of getting incorrect answers, attention needed to be paid to validity and reliability (Saunders et al., 2003).

3.8.1 Validity

Validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about (Saunders et al., 2003). Validity defined as the extent to which data collection method or methods accurately measure what they were intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2003). Yin (1994) states, "no single source has a complete advantage over all others" (P.85). The different sources are highly complementary, and a good case study should use as many sources as possible. The validity of a scientific study increases by using various sources of evidence (Yin, 1994).

The following steps were taken to ensure the validity of this research:

The needed data was collected in the format of an interview guide and focus group discussion that had been designed based on the literature related to adoption of innovation.

After translating the questionnaire into the local language for the community members who were not so familiar with English, in order to make sure that the measurement scales were adapted appropriately, company administration and experts had given their views about the topic.

3.8.2 Reliability

According to Saunders et al. (2003), reliability refers to the degree to which data collection method or methods will yield consistent findings, similar observations would be made or conclusions reached by other researchers or there is transparency in how sense was made from the raw data.

Numbers of different steps were taken to ensure the reliability of the study:

- Case studies was used during the data collection.
- The same type of questions were asked from respondents in order to increase the reliability

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter attempts to make a presentation of the research results and findings. Results are presented in tables and in form of frequency counts and percentages.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The study covered 100 randomly selected respondents of whom 55(55%) were male and 45 (45 %) were female. Table 4.1 shows respondents age brackets.

Tables 1: Age of respondents

Age bracket	Frequency	percentage
24 years and below	1	0.5
25 - 34 years	99	45.6
35 - 44 years	87	40.1
45 - 54 years	27	12.4
55 – 64 years	3	1.4
Total	217	100

Table 4.1 shows that majority of respondents 46 (46 %) were in the 25 - 34 years age bracket, followed by 40 (40%) in the 35 - 44 years age bracket. The table also shows that 12 (12%), 1 (1%) and 1 (1%) respondents were in the 45 - 54, 55 - 64 and 24 and below years age bracket respectively. This result suggests that the distribution of person active in the education sector by age fall between 25 - 54 years. Overall, 86% of the respondents are in the middle age (25 - 44 years).

4.2. The nature of educational services in Kenya

Results from findings of the study came to the conclusion that the nature of educational services in Kenya is guided by; Access, Equity, Relevance, Quality; and Affordability as elaborated below:

4.2.1 Equitable Access to Secondary Education

Since the early 1990s, government has pursued policies intended to expand access to all levels of the education system, with a special emphasis placed on Secondary education because it directly benefits the rural poor. Therefore, in 1997, Universal Secondary education (KPE) was launched and has been implemented since then. The main achievement of KPE has been a surge in gross enrolment in Secondary schools. At the end of 1996, there were only 3 million registered Secondary school children, this figure has more than doubled and now stands at over 7.3 million. This trend of growth is as shown in the table below.

Table 1: Growth in the Secondary Enrolment 1996-2004 as a consequence of KPE

Year	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Male enrolments in all Secondary schools	1,647,742	2,832,472	3,061,722	3,301,888	3,395,554	3,528,035	3,721,135	3,872,589	3,721,911
Female enrolments in all Secondary schools	1,420,883	2,471,092	2,744,663	2,986,351	3,163,459	3,372,881	3,633,018	3,760,725	3,632,838
Total enrolment in all Secondary schools	3,068,625	5,303,564	5,806,385	6,288,239	6,559,013	6,900,916	7,354,153	7,633,314	7,354,749
Secondary	8,531	8,600	9,916	10,597	11,578	13,219	13,332	13,353	13,239

Schools									
Number of teachers	81564	89247	99237	109733	110366	127038	139484	145587	145,819
Number of classrooms	25,676	25427	28380	43174	50,370	60,199	69,900	73,104	79,132
Core textbooks procured	783,556	2,112,104	1,492,186	1,331,710	1,171,235	2,086,132	3,426,000	3,467,266	2,828,324
Teachers guides procured	236,816	485,195	549,150	593,480	637,811	673,533	686,297	118,123	254904

Source: EPD, Annual School Census (2004)

The greatest beneficiary of KPE has been the girl-child. Enrolment of girls has increased from a dismal 1,420,883 in 1996 to 3,632,838 in 2004, representing a 156% increase over the eight-year period of implementation. Consequently, gender disparities in Secondary school enrolment have been almost wiped out because there is a steady increase in the number of girls enrolling at school each year.

4.2.2 Completion rates

The proportion of children successfully completing P7 has increased from 49.1% (2008) to 62% (2009). However, the completion rate for boys at P7 is still higher than that of girls (i.e. 72% for boys and 54% for girls respectively).

Indicator	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Pupil enrolment in all Secondary schools	6,559,013	6,900,916	7,354,153	7,633,314	7,354,749
Pupil enrolment in Government Aided	5,351,099	5,917,216	6,575,827	6,835,525	6,695,998
Teachers on payroll	82,148	101,818	113,232	121,772	124,137
Number of Classrooms	50,370	60,199	69,900	73,104	79,132
Pupil Teacher Ratio	65	58	56	56	54
Pupil Classroom Ratio	106	98	94	94	85
Enrolment Growth rate	-	11%	11%	4%	-2%
Pupil Textbook Ratio		2.46:1		3:1	3:1
Percentage of pupils reaching defined level of competency in literacy at (a) P3 (b) P6	18% 13%			34.3% 20.5%	
Percentage of pupils reaching defined level of competency in numeracy at (a) P3 (b) P6	39% 41%			42.9% 20.5%	
Completion rate-P7 (a) Boys (b) Girls		62.9% 71.1% 54.9%	49.1% 58.8% 41.0%	56% 66% 47%	62% 72% 54%

Table 2: Performance indicators for the Secondary sub sector (2009-2009)

Source: EPD, Annual School Census 2009.

4.2.3 Transition Rates

Transition rate to Senior 1 for girls is higher than that of their male counterparts. In 2008, transition rates for boys stood at 57% and that of girls at 63%. In 2009, transition rate for both boys and girls had increased to 61% for boys and 68% for girls. On the contrary, the transition rate for Senior five (5) for boys is generally higher than that of girls (i.e. 43% for boys and 33% for girls in 2009).

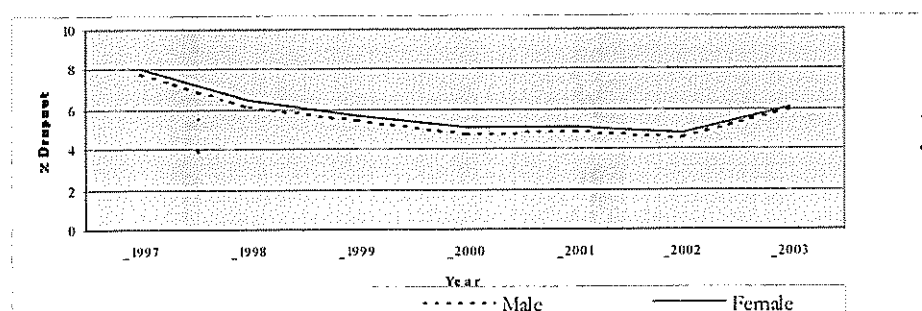
Table 3: Trends in transition rate to senior one (S1) and senior five (S5) (2005-2009)

Transition rate	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
S1	65%	61%	69%	59%	64%
i) Boys	61%	56%	65%	57%	61%
ii) Girls	70%	66%	74%	63%	68%
S5	43%	31%	41%	42%	39%
i) Boys	42%	34%	43%	45%	43%
ii) Girls	43%	28%	49%	39%	33%

4.2.4 Secondary school dropout rates

Since 1997, the rate of pupils dropping from school has been reducing until 2003, when it started to increase, (i.e. in 1997- 7.9%, 2002- 4.7% and 2003-6.1%). This trend is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Estimated Drop-out rate



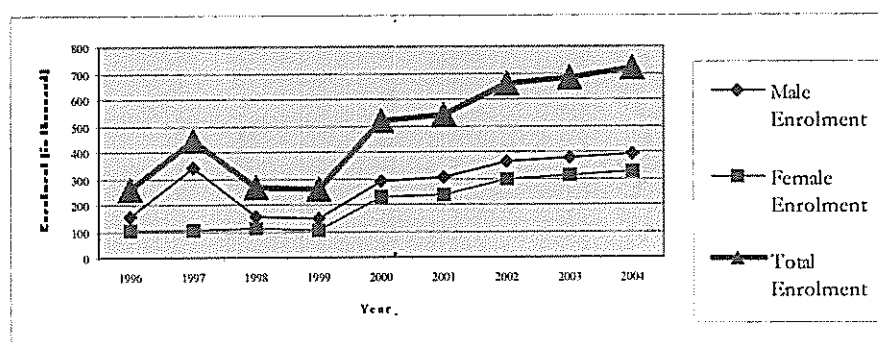
Source: EMIS data, MoES

Results from figure 1 show that since 1997, there has been a decline in the number of pupils who dropout of schools. However, the number of girls who dropout of school is higher than that of boys

4.2.5 Equitable Access to Secondary Education

In 2000, enrolments stood at 518,931 students and these have increased to 721,212 in 2004 with 78% attending private secondary schools. Consequently, over this four-year period, MoES has registered 40% increase in access to secondary education.

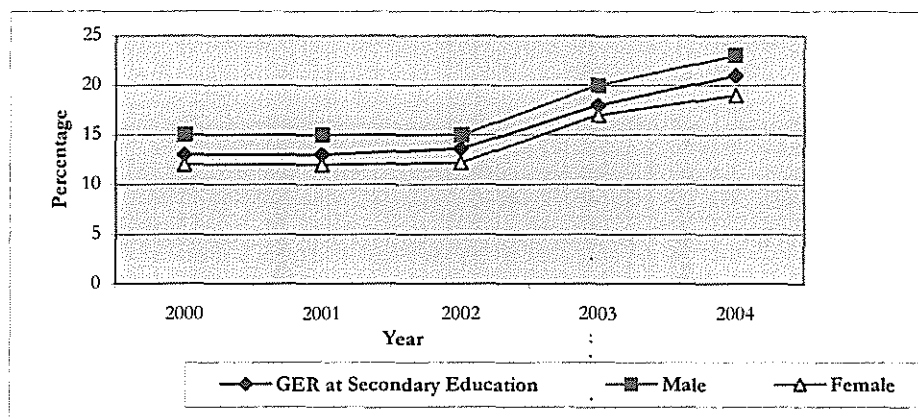
Figure 2: Trends in Total Enrolment in secondary schools (2000 - 2004)



Source: EPD, Annual School Census, 2004

Furthermore, the proportion of students attending secondary school compared to the number of 13 – 18 year olds in the entire population increased from 13% in 2000 to 21% in 2004, with an 8% increase for boys and 7% increase for girls over the four year period.

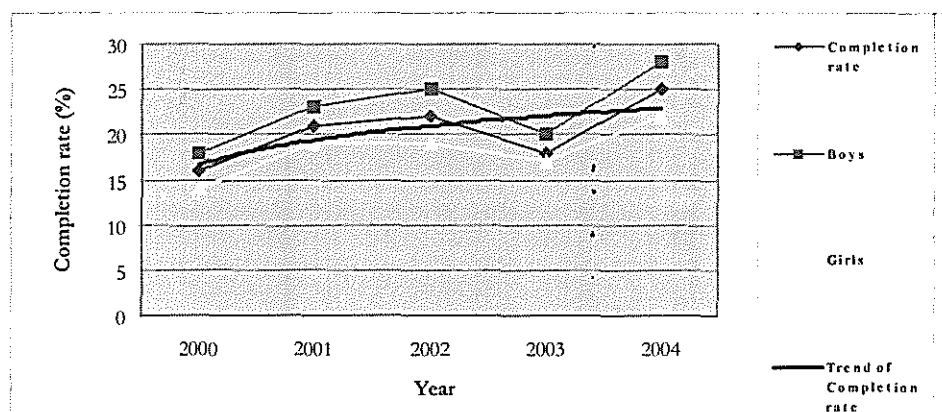
Figure 3: Trends in Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education



4.2.6 Completion rates at senior four

Despite the sharp decline in 2003, there is an evident increase in the Senior Four completion rate between 2000 and 2004 as exhibited by the increasing trend line. The proportion of male completers at senior four is higher than females.

Figure 4: Trends in completion rate of Senior Four



4.2.7 Relevance of Education

During the 1980s, the education system was examination oriented that the entire teaching and learning process was geared to passing examinations and getting good marks needed for entry to the next higher level of education. The previous curriculum at the Secondary level caused a lot of apprehension to Kenyans. Many children failed to gain access to what would be qualified as relevant education. Others satisfied the attendance

requirements but did not acquire essential knowledge and skills. Indeed, as the Kenya Education Commission in 1963 pointed out: “They merely learn the contents of one or two books available to them and acquire a temporary mechanical skill in reading words but not with understanding.” The curriculum was comprised of 4 subjects with summative examinations being administered by KNEB at the end of the Eight-year cycle. The pupils found it so difficult to restructure a sentence, write a free composition and answer questions on comprehension. The curriculum was not seen to be relevant to meeting the basic learning need of the individual people. It did not also relate to the need of the community served by the schools.

In recognition that Secondary education is the first terminal level of formal education and often the last for the majority of the children and realizing that this situation may hold for many more years to come, the curriculum review task force made some recommendations which all pointed to the need for a review in syllabus to make it more relevant to the development needs of the individuals. Therefore, the Secondary curriculum has been made relevant in such a way that it equips a pupil with skills to make them a productive citizen.

4.2.8 Quality of Education

In order to improve the quality of education, several well-targeted interventions are in place. The principal intervention is the implementation of the new Kenya Secondary school curriculum. Volume One of the Secondary school curriculum comprising four subjects (English, mathematics, social studies, and science) was developed in 1998/99 and launched in September 1999. Volume Two, comprising six subjects (agriculture, integrated production skills, performing arts/physical education, local languages, Swahili and religious education), was also launched. 130,000 One hundred and thirty thousand copies of each of Volumes One and Two, of the syllabus and teachers’ guides were printed and, through the Instructional Materials Unit, distributed to schools in 2002/03. Alongside this, curricula for the other levels of education, namely secondary, teacher education, BTVET and higher education is also in place.

The MOES has put due emphasis on strengthening institutions for standards setting and quality assurance. These include UNEB, ESA, NCDC and NCHE. Assessment methods have been reviewed and harmonized with the adjustments made to the curricula. Examination leakages and malpractices that had become rampant are being minimized. In spite of the staffing and budgetary limitations, ESA has carried out inspections in a number of educational institutions at all levels and has monitoring the implementation of Volumes One and Two of the Kenya Secondary Schools Curriculum, the use and management of instructional materials, textbooks, science equipment and chemicals in secondary schools. It has also monitored learning achievements through the Break Through to Literacy methodology. An inspection system for assessing and evaluating the performance of Secondary and secondary schools, teacher education and BTJET institutions was also developed.

In addition, government has continued to provide instructional and non-instructional materials to the schools. A policy of 'putting books in the hands of children' is being implemented and this is intended to ensure that schools do not keep books/instructional materials supplied in the store cupboard, but rather make them available to the learners.

Government has also implemented the Teacher Development and Management Plan (TDMP), which emphasizes the enhancement of teacher competencies through continuous professional development, improvement of teacher/instructor/in-service training programmes and strengthening of the training of teachers for children with special learning needs. In addition, Tutors have also been trained in guidance and counselling.

4.2.9 Affordability of Education

Prior to 1997, the quality of infrastructure in Secondary schools and the availability of desks and chairs varied and depended on the resources provided by the parents and communities, schools had no responsibility of vetting of textbooks. There was an acute shortage of facilities in of all types in schools. Teaching equipment and materials,

particularly in sciences was non-existent. It is only Schools with well-established PTAs' had better infrastructure compared to those with weak mobilization of resources by the parents.

With the launching of KPE, Government made basic education affordable by all children in Kenya by taking the responsibility of paying fees, providing infrastructure and instructional materials in Secondary schools. As a result, there has been an expansion in school facilities (classrooms), which has improved the teaching and learning environment.

4.3 The adequacy of budget allocation for education

4.3.1 Budgetary Allocation

In the early years of independence, government expenditure on education averaged around 4 percent of GDP. By the early 1980s this had plummeted to barely 1.0 percent. Currently, Kenya's public spending on education, both as a share of GDP and as a share of total public expenditure, is relatively high. However, the share allocated to Secondary is high. The concentration on Secondary education as a bottom-up developmental approach was justifiable within the overall context of the poverty eradication. In the F/Y 2008/9 budget, the Education sector was allocated 17.2% of the national budget or 3.96 of GDP. Table 1 shows government expenditure on Education by Financial year 2008/09

Table 4: Public Expenditure on Education (billions of KENYA shillings)

		2008/09	Sector share (%)
Secondary	Recurrent	279.182	
	Development	71.981	
	Total	351.163	67.9
Secondary	Recurrent	81.667	
	Development	1.767	
	Total	83.434	16.1
BTVET*	Recurrent	15.134	
	Development	1.422	
	Total	16.556	3.2
Tertiary	Recurrent	49.048	
	Development	1.608	
	Total	50.656	9.8
Other Expenditure	Recurrent	11.440	
	Development	4.022	
	Total	15.462	3.0
Total Public Expenditure on Education	Recurrent	436.470	
	Development	80.800	
	Total	517.27	
Education share of total public expenditure (%)			30.0
Education expenditure as percent of GDP			3.9

* Students in Government institutions

Source: MOES, Education Sector Medium Term Budget Framework Paper 2009.

The situation of teachers in particular and those involved in school management deserves closer attention. This is attested by Fiske (1996) who argues that the decentralization effort in Colombia was successful in providing legitimacy to the government and improving education, but its impact was severely limited by the failure to obtain

consensus and the support of important players including the teachers who deliver education in the classroom.

In line with the above Gaynor (1998) notes the following. Regarding the cooperation of teachers, Gaynor argues that the success of any decentralization of teacher management depends crucially on the cooperation of the teachers themselves. How receptive teachers are to changes in the way they are managed depends on their pay.

If salaries are low or at least regarded by teachers as low, teachers are not likely to be enthusiastic about being managed locally. At a minimum, continues Gaynor, decentralization should not threaten teachers' jobs, promotion prospects, workload, or conditions of service.

Furthermore an effective teacher management system, according to Gaynor (1998) must assure teachers that they will be:

- Adequately and regularly paid;
- That they will enjoy conditions of service appropriate to their profession;
- That they will have access to continuing professional development;
- That they will be able to progress along a clear and objective career path; and
- That they will be governed by a set of regulations and procedures that are reasonable, transparent and fairly implemented

Above all, the system must make adequate provision for training and preparing teachers for the classroom.

A good system will also provide teachers with recognition and feed-back on their contribution, including appropriate performance incentives to foster and reward good teaching, take into account teachers' rights to contribute to and influence the decisions that affect them, and promote good relations and communication between teachers and other stakeholders in education such as parents and educational management (Gaynor 1998).

The working situation of teachers presented in the preceding pages shows that there is a gap between what the above literature recommends and the situation of teachers in Kenya. There was no significant sensitization and consensus building effort made to integrate teachers in the process of education decentralization which may have somewhat assisted teachers to accept their difficult working situation which in some cases is a reflection of poverty in the country. The improvement of the life condition of teachers is directly related to that of the rest of the society. The task of mobilizing the community to enroll its school aged children, fund raising and promote girls education appear to be imposed on the teachers as if it makes part of their regular duty. Had there been an effort to build consensus on the fact that extra efforts by teachers are necessary to assist the empowerment and consolidation of education decentralization, their solidarity and contribution could have been maximized and morally sustained.

Having said this on the situation of teachers, it seems important to reflect on the situation of the Education Office. Rondinelli (1984) argues that genuine decentralization has to be institutionalized. He notes that it must be equipped with trained and skilled personnel capable of coordinating and integrating their own organizations with other organizations to put decentralization policies into practice. Rondinelli extends his observation by claiming that studies on Asian, African and Latin American decentralization policies have revealed lack of institutional capacities of implementing agencies. In rural areas particularly there is a critical shortage of trained personnel and leadership. The situation in Education Office level (more specifically the manpower situation) is a reflection of what Rondinelli has expressed in his above stated remarks.

4.4 Community Participation

Theories of community participation show that in response to the limitations of the highly centralized state, practitioners and policy makers are reintroducing various forms of community involvement into education development, delivery and management. The Secondary generic model developed by international educators and policy makers such as the Meta-model developed by Bray (2000) is one of partnership-education decision making shared between the government and community. Differences in theoretical

models reveal a variety of possible roles to be played by the community and the government as members with regard to this partnership; these roles range from government consideration of communities needs to simple division of labor and mutual support between partners to nearly complete community responsibility for the delivery and management of local basic education.

Community participation is term that is often used in international development and is increasingly emphasized in the policies and programs of funding agencies, non-governmental organizations, and developing country governments across sectors. In the field of education, many believe that community engagement in the delivery and management of schooling is crucial to achieving universal Secondary enrollment.

Communities and village leaders in particular, can play a helpful role in increasing enrollment. In Philippines, village leaders assisted school officials with house to house campaigns and in authenticating the age of children. In Cambodia, as part of the cluster project, parents participate in the process of surveying their community to find out the number of school age children and why some are not enrolled (KUNESCO, 1995).

One of the key strategies to overcoming education problems, as drafted into Kenya's national education policy is community engagement in schooling. Reflecting the country's new decentralized administrative structure, the Education Sector Strategy released in 1994 explains that the national education system, itself undergoing decentralization, is in this way intended to become more efficient and relevant to the needs of local populations. The strategy emphasizes local engagement in basic education delivery and management, describing how the community's participation is intended to constitute the final level of the decentralized system. Both the community's responsibility and its decision-making role are explicitly mandated by the strategy, which states: Schools will be strongly linked with community, which will take responsibility in its well-being and upkeep. They will be made to be responsive to the local needs and requirements and shall act as centers for all educational activities of the community. The management of each school will be democratized and run with the participation of the

community, the teachers, the students and the relevant government institutions.

This is emphasized in the subsequent Education Sector Development Programs I and II. The Program Action Plan (PAP), which delineates the policy and strategies for the implementation of ESDP II from 2002 to 2005, further underlines the role of the community in education delivery and management. The plan states that ESDPII will act both to systematize voluntary community financial contributions to schools and to promote a sense of ownership and thereby raise the community's role in the management of schools.

4.5 Barriers to Effective Community Participation

In general education officials and professionals reveal that the understated problems deserve attention if one should come up with effective community participation.

Even though the importance of education is gaining increasing acceptance, one observes neglect among some sections of the community. This is reflected by the fact that there are parents who do not enroll their children or even if they enroll them students dropout for economic and cultural reasons.

Programs to be covered by community participation are multiple and varied. The community is forced to contribute in money, kind and labour in multiple diversified activities at the same time. For example the community must contribute for road construction, clinic, water, education and others. All the above activities benefit the society. But the issue is the limitation in the capacity of the society to contribute to all these at the same time.

In a focus group discussion, communities revealed problems related to over reliance on their participation and too little support on the part of the government. Parents and school staff commonly contended that the government does not fulfill its responsibilities regarding the school. This view is in contrast to Education officials who insist that communities should not depend on the government to provide everything for them, and

that community participation is crucial to the creation of quality schools. But communities and parents often expressed that while they understand their responsibilities and wish to participate, they cannot support all development efforts on their own (including school) unless there is enough government support.

The work realized to involve the community in school administration is very weak. The community currently may not be able to assist in school administration. But if effort is made it can overcome its weaknesses and become a strong ally in the future.

The community is approached in the majority of the cases for its monetary, material and labor contributions. This even is not carried out in a regular manner. The community is approached whenever there are urgent problems and not on another occasion.

4.6 Strategies to Enhance Education Provision

4.6.1 Liberalization, Privatization; and Partnership

Before the liberalization of policies, education was a partnership between the MOES, schools, foundation bodies and the families. After the liberalization of policies, there has been intensified partnership most notably with the donors and other private investors. In 2004, there were about 2000 private Secondary schools in the country. Continued deliberate effort to partner with the private sector in the provision of education has raised the total number of licensed private secondary schools from 799 in 2002 to 855 in 2003. The donors under the unified umbrella known as the Education Funding Agencies contribute about 52% of the Secondary education budget. Government therefore recognizes that education heavily depends on the successful partnership with the donors and other stakeholders such as NGOs who have provided relatively well-equipped schools with a variety of market-oriented programmes.

4.6.2 Poverty Alleviation

The Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) commits the Kenyan Government to the overriding priority of tackling poverty. The objective of the PEAP is to reduce absolute

poverty to less than 10% of population by 2017 and to increase the well being of Kenyans. In Kenya, majority of the population live below the poverty line (i.e. on less than one dollar a day). In 1992, 56% of the Kenyans were living below the poverty line but this fell to 44% in 1997. In 2000, the proportion had reduced to 35% but later increased to 38% in 2003.

According to Kenya's Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), Secondary education is among the basic requirements for a full life in the modern world. Therefore, as one of the key strategies for poverty eradication in the country, Secondary Education was identified within the Poverty Eradication Action Plan to provide basic education to all children in Kenya. Other programmes like School facilities Grant (SFG), was also introduced in 1997 to provide facilities to most need school communities and as result, a number of school facilities have been provided.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

With regards to functions like teacher recruitment and appointment, school establishment and construction, upgrading of schools, budget allocation and execution, education management is devolved.

Areas like curriculum, national examinations, publication of books are performed at regional or national level. On the overall the authority and power devolved is found to be adequate. The authority to decide on matters like staff requirement, deployment of personnel, procurement and distribution of inputs, promotion, and selection of candidates for training above the level of a certificate is concentrated at District Education office level. As a result the relationship between the District Education offices is characterized by a top-down or hierarchical relationship in decision making. Schools and their representatives play the role of implementing agents.

With regards to manpower, which is critical in decentralization, the Education Office is found to have manpower problem which appears to have negatively impacted the service of the office. At school level too manpower problem in terms of qualification, number and attitude is observed. Regarding community support of school through the creation of PTAs findings show that PTAs which are expected to play a leadership role are not up to the expectation. This is mainly due to reasons like capacity and overburdened responsibility.

PTAs which enjoy responsibilities closer and narrower to the school level are generally found to have better performance. The attention given to overcome problems related to developing the manpower through capacity building program is very insignificant. Without disregarding the weaknesses, the very fact that institutions like PTAs are organized to be in charge of schools creates a responsible body at the local level. These bodies are expected to meet regularly and report to the community on school

development plans, programs and accomplishments jointly with school management bodies. The above bodies utilize a transparent system for financial management of community funds. This is particularly important because the community hesitates to contribute to school development projects if funds have been misappropriated.

Communities have demonstrated a willingness to contribute cash, labour and material to support schools. This has made possible the construction of new classrooms and the repair of existing ones. The above coupled with that concerned with involvement and support to enroll school aged children could be viewed among the contributions of education decentralization. The education officials confirmed that currently there is one school in every sub-county which was not the case some years back. The graphs for enrollment show that there is increased participation in Secondary education and the number of schools has shown significant increase. According to the Education Office in Nairobi East, Secondary school coverage which was 59% in the year 1997 (Eth.) is currently upgraded to 70% in the year 2009 equally the gross enrollment in Secondary which used to be 54% in 1997 is reported to have reached 74% in the year 2009.

However one should note that the present trend of concentrating on increasing number of schools and enrollment can not give fruit unless consolidated and organized work is done to overcome problems related with education quality.

The Practice of involving the larger community in identifying problems and overall planning activities is almost inexistent. This situation is incompatible with decentralization. The support on the part of the community does not have a balanced backing on the part of the government which in a way forces one to raise a question of sustainability. This situation is better evidenced by the varied problems from infrastructure to other educational inputs which are the direct consequence of funding shortage. The budget is mainly absorbed by wages and salaries reserving minimal or almost nothing to capital budget. It appears impossible to address educational problems with the current budget allocation. So, it seems imperative to fulfill conditions like capacity and financial constraint if education decentralization should succeed without

neglecting the already obtained results.

5.2 Recommendations

For these reasons it is worthwhile to concentrate on the following recommendations.

It would not be possible to advance with the existing capacity constraints observed both at District Education Office level and at the level of local institutions like PTAs without undertaking major capacity building effort. An important pre-condition for decentralizing education management is the availability of sufficient capacity and resources at the level to which responsibilities are transferred. Those responsible for education decentralization must have the skills, resources to bear the responsibility. Therefore it would be necessary to build the capacity of the administrative level to which teacher management functions are to be devolved. In addition the writer believes that education decentralization responsibilities at District level should be separated from the political administration whose mandate does not allow giving enough attention for education.

The relationship between the Education Office and that of schools is characterized by a top-down or hierarchical relationship in decision making. Schools and their representatives (PTAs) play the role of implementing agents. The relationship should be redesigned in away a balance between flexibility and control can bring empowerment to schools in the long run. The areas for school empowerment need to be investigated and studied in detail.

The idea of community participation seems to be one of the Strategies to bring support to compliment resource limitations on the part of the government and at the same time create a sense of ownership on the part of the community. Initially the major share used to be raised by the State. Currently the community is expected to cover the major share. Can this situation last long is open to investigation. However there are already indications that show that there is a limit to community willingness to support schools in the absence or reduction of government support which shows that a balanced

approach on the part of the state is necessary

The trend of having dialogue with the larger community is a positive one, though it is at its infantile stage. Therefore the idea of involving the community in matters like identifying problems, planning and closely monitoring school related activities must be given more attention .

REFERENCES

- Ablo, E. and R. Reinikka (1998). *Do Budgets Really Matter?*. Washington DC: The World Bank, WPS #1926.
- AED (1996). *Decentralizing Education: The BESO/Tigray Case Study, A Summary*. Washington, DC: Academy for Educational Development, SARA Project.
- Asmelash Beyene (2000). *Decentralization as a Tool For Resolving The Nationality Problem*. The Ethiopian Experience Regional Development Dialogue. UNCRD. Nakamura-Ku, Nagoya 450-0001, Japan.
- Azfar, Omar, Satu Kähkönen, Jeffrey Livingston, Patrick Meagher, Diana Rutherford (2000). *Making Decentralization Work: An Empirical Investigation of Governance and Public Services in KENYA*. IRIS Center, University of Maryland, College Park, December 18.
- Bert Helmsing (2001) *Local Economic Development in Africa: New Generations of Actors, Policies and Instruments*, RLDS, Working paper No. 12, Hage, Iss.
- Bray Mark (1996). *Decentralization of Education. Community Financing*. World Bank. Washington, D.C.
- DAC (Development Assistance Committee expert group on aid evaluation) (1997) *Evaluation of programs promoting participatory development and good governance. Synthesis report*, Paris: OECD
- De Muro, Pasquale, Luca Salvatici and Piero Conforti (1998). *An Overview of Decentralization in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Dowd, Amy Jo. (2001). *The Impact of Community Support for Education on Standard 2 Mathematics Learning in Malawi*. Paper presented at the 2001 Annual

Conference of the Comparative and International Education Society, Washington, DC.

Edward J Blakley,. (1994) *Planning Local Economic Development: Theory and Practice*. Newbury Park Sage publication. Ethiopia: Sustainable Development and poverty reduction program annual progress reports

Gershberg, Alec Ian (1999). *Decentralization, Citizen Participation, and the Role of the State: The Autonomous Schools Program in Nicaragua*. Latin American Perspectives, 26(4): 8-38.

Government of Nigeria (2001). *Education for All (EFA) in Nigeria*. Lagos: Federal Republic of Nigeria. August.

Gurevich Robert (2004). *Decentralization in Education: Implications at the Local Level*. A paper Presented to The Regional and Local Development Studies Seminar Addis Ababa University.

Hinchliffe, Keith (2002). *Nigeria: Public Expenditures on Education: Issues, Estimates, and Some Implication*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Hyde, Karin, Esme Kadzamira, Juliet Sichinga, Mike Chibwana, and Ronald Ridker. (1997). *Village Based Schools in Mangochi, Malawi: An Evaluation*. (IPR Working Paper Series:Determinants of Educational Achievement and Attainment in Africa) Washington, DC: Institute for Policy Reform

Inter Africa Group (2004). *Nyamira Level Decentralization in Ethiopia*. Experience from some Nairobi EASTs.

McLean Keith, *Characterizing Decentralization in Tanzania*, mimeo, World Bank, Washington DC, 1997

Miller-Grandvaux, Yolande and Karla Yoder (2002). *A Literature Review of Community Schools in Africa*, Washington DC: USAID, Bureau for Africa, office of Sustainable Development, SARA Project.

Mingat, Alain, Ramahatra Rakotomalala, and Jee-Peng Tan, (2002). *Financing Education for All by 2015: Simulations for 33 African Countries*, Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series. The World Bank, Washington D.C. 2002.

Ministry of Education (1994). *Educational Leadership and Administration community Participation and Financial Directive*.

Moulton, Jeanne, et.al. (2001). *Paradigm Lost? The Implementation of Basic Education Reforms in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington DC: KSAID. Sustainable Development Publication Series, Office of Sustainable Development Bureau of Africa Technical Paper No. 109

Odonkor, Martina (2000). *Final Evaluation of Care International's School and Community Oriented Education Project*. Frontier Analysis Consulting Associates.

OECD, *Education at a Glance*, <http://www1.oecd.org/els/education/ei/eag/>

Reinikka, R. (2000). *Recovery in Service Delivery: Evidence from Schools and Clinics*. Washington DC: The World Bank.

Rondinelli, Dennis A. and John R. Nellis.(1986). *Assessing decentralization policies in developing countries: The case for cautious optimism*. Development Policy Review 4: 3.23.

Therkildsen, Ole (1998). *Local Government and Households in Secondary Education in Tanzania: Some lessons for Reform*. Denmark: CDR Working Paper 98.6, June, 1998.

USAID (1997). *Education Decentralization in Africa*, Washington DC, KSAID, Africa Bureau.

Winkler, Donald. (1989). *Decentralization in Education: An Economic Perspective*. Population and Human Resources Department Paper. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Workineh , Ṭlahun, Tirussew Teferra, Ayalew Shibeshi and Malcolm Mercer (1999). *Studies of Education in Ethiopia: An inventory and overview of education sector studies in Ethiopia 1994 – 1997*. Paris: ADEA and KNESCO, Working Group on Education Sector Analysis.

World Bank (1999). *Zambia: Basic Education Subsector Investment Program Support Project BESSIP: Project Appraisal Document*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview guide to the district education officer/ District Administrator and Head Teachers

My name is Rori Zephania Momanyi a student of Kampala International University. I am in my final year perusing a degree in Secondary Education, currently carrying out a research in partial fulfillment for the award of degree in Secondary Education of Kampala International University. I here by have this set of questions to acquire information on how decentralization affects education service delivery in Kenya. I assure you that this information is purely for academic purpose

1. How is this district faring in the Universal Secondary education enrollment and free secondary education, drop out rate and transition rates to senior one for both girls and boys?
2. How is the infrastructure in the schools of this District?
3. What is the teacher – pupil ratio in this school?
4. How available are the instructional materials in schools of this District?
5. Comment of the class size of schools in this District?
6. Comment on the budget,allocation in the education sector for this District and Kenya at large?
7. How are the disparities in girls education handled in this District?
8. What is the total enrollment of children with disabilities in this District?
9. What is the range of activities the community is involved in aimed at improving the education in this District?
10. What challenges does the community face in trying to improve the education in this District?
11. What can be done to solve problems faced by the community in improving the education system in the District?