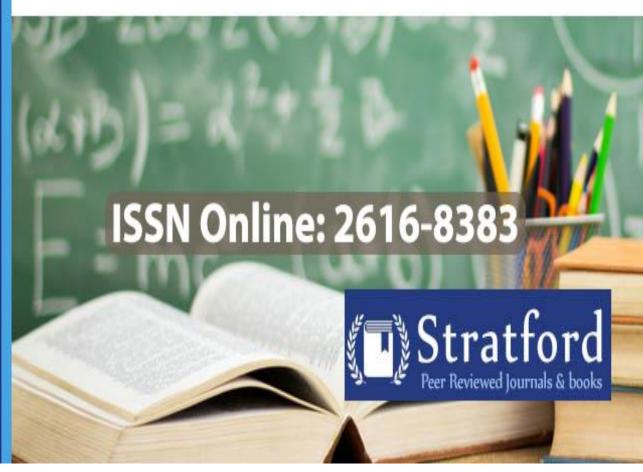
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Assessing the Extent of Provision of Facilities, Resources and Instructional Materials in Free Compulsory Basic Education in Public Primary Schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County

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Assessing the Extent of Provision of Facilities, Resources and Instructional Materials in Free Compulsory Basic Education in Public Primary Schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County

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Abstract

Provision of quality education is dependent on the availability of learning and teaching facilities. However, the situation in most public primary schools depicts lack of enough facilities, resources and instructional materials. The study aimed at assessing the extent of provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials in Free Compulsory Basic Education in public primary schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County. The study employed descriptive survey research design. The target population comprised of 40 Primary schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, 4 were used in the pilot study. The sample size for the study included 36 head teachers, 36 parents composed of chairpersons of schools' Board of Management, 2(CSOs), and 1 Sub-county Director of Education (SCDE). Purposive sampling technique was used to obtain sample size. Data collection instruments included the questionnaires, interview schedule and group discussions. Reliability was addressed by piloting the instrument through test retest in four schools. Validity of the instrument was addressed through expert vetting. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis. This study found out that implementation of free primary education is to the extent of tuition, activity, textbooks and stationery, non-teaching staff which do not attract user charges. However, examinations, extra tuition, employment of extra teachers, uniforms, lunch, and school infrastructure attract

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user charges. In order to increase pupils' access to public primary schools, FCBE should broaden its scope beyond providing funds for only tuition and instructional materials and include cash for development of infrastructure to ease the burden on parents.

Keywords: Facilities, resources, instructional materials, Free Compulsory Basic Education, public primary schools, Kisii County

1.0 Introduction

The International Convention on Human Rights (1948) Article 26(1) states that everyone has a right to education and that education shall be free at primary level. Furthermore it declares that primary education shall be compulsory. The World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) held in Jomtien, Thailand in March, 1990 was a historic initiative intended to stimulate international commitment to a new and broader vision on basic education, to meet the basic learning needs of all. The Dakar Conference of 2000 reviewed developments in achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) Governments have heavily invested in efforts aimed at achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of Education for All by 2015.

The United Nations Sustainable Development Summit (2015) came up with the Post 2015 agenda which involved developed of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which are meant to be achieved by the year 2030. SDG 4 is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. With the stand-alone Goal 4 on education and its related targets, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes that education is essential for the success of all sustainable development goals (SDGs). Education is also included in goals on health, growth and employment, sustainable consumption and production, and climate change.

Despite the Kenyan government attempts to allocate more funds to the provision of free and compulsory primary education for all, 31% of the children in Kenya have not joined any form of learning level in Kenya. Most of these children are from the pastoralist communities, Northern Kenya and some war-torn areas in Kenya. Ministry of Education (2017) indicates that education has not been fully accessed by most primary school learners with resources being a challenge.

School fees have always been found to be a major deterrent to educational access, and to have large negative effects on take up of educational services in a variety of settings (Holla & Kremer, 2008). Consequently governments have instituted policies that reduce or eliminate education fees in order to boost school enrolments. Amongst the advanced countries the idea of UPE emerged at various times. Phillips, (1975) observes that in France and the United States, there had been a good deal of heart searching about public responsibility for primary education. Other states were influenced to legislate UPE making its provision free. This includes various Germany states between 1817-1870, Russiain 1806 and Austriain 1841. While developing countries in Latin America have generally chosen targeted fee reduction schemes, many African countries have eliminated public education fees for all pupils in primary schools. Targeted fee reductions in Bogota, Colombia increased primary school enrolments especially for the poor students, Barrera-Osorio (2007). Shutz, (2004) agrees that the progress program of cash transfers in Mexico leads to an increase in school attendance. In Indonesia, a nationwide school construction program of the 1970s increased educational access.

There was a consensus at the conference of African countries on development of education in Africa, held in 1961 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia about the urgency of providing education for human resource development. In the wake of this conference, a number of African countries

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started launching Free Education programs in the early 1960s. Since1994, seventeen Sub-Saharan African countries have implemented free primary education programs. However, it is during the 2000s that the clamor for Universal Primary Education intensified in many developing countries (UNESCO2008) with some countries re-introducing the policy despite earlier failed attempts. Some countries that introduced FPE included Malawi (1994), Tanzania and Lesotho (2000) Uganda (1986) and Kenya in 2003.

Kenya has developed a comprehensive legal and policy framework on Free and Compulsory Basic Education. The government of Kenya is committed to implementing its international, regional and national commitments to education. The Millennium development goals (MDG's) Education for All (EFA) goals, post 2015 education targets and the Basic Education Act (2013) have emphasized the need to provide quality basic education. The constitution of Kenya (2010) provides for Free and Compulsory Basic Education to all children. This includes article 53 of the constitutions which states that every child has the right to free and compulsory basic education. In line with both international commitments as well as Kenya's legal framework, the government is committed to safeguarding the right of every Kenyan child to Free and Compulsory Basic Education.

As part of the national policy, the government re-introduced Free Primary Education in 2003 in line with the EFA goals of universal basic education. Under the policy and subsequent legislative framework, the government will provide Free and Compulsory Basic Education that is equitable, qualitative and relevant to Kenya's development goals. Every child will be entitled to free and quality education regardless of their socio-economic condition, gender, regional background and disabilities. This will be guided by the principle of universal access to primary education for every child.

The MOE strategic plan (2008-2012) operationalized sessional paper No,1 of 2005 in a policy framework for education with the main strategic objectives to ensure that all children including girls, children in difficult circumstances and those from marginalized and vulnerable groups have access to free and compulsory primary education, enhance access, equity and quality at all levels of education by 2015 and to ensure quality management capacities amongst education managers and other personnel in education.

The passing into law of the constitution of Kenya in 2010, which has the Bill of Right at its core, the framing of a blue print for national development, Kenya vision 2030 and government's acknowledgment of the need to reform the education sector has led to the policy changes embodied in this document. They address both the constitutional requirements and the national aspirations embodied in Kenya vision 2030, as well as offer direction in modernizing the country's education system.

The Kenya government introduced FCPE because it considered primary education not only as having the highest returns to the nation in all economic and cultural aspects but also as a human right and all Kenyans should have an access to it, (Children's ACT, 2010). However for Kenya, there are still a lot of costs to bear that hinder access to primary schooling. The Government of Kenya (2003) launched Free Compulsory Primary Education (FCPE) as a strategy to make education accessible and affordable to many households in the country in tandem with the international conventions and protocols that encourage governments all over the world to provide universal education to its citizens, (Getange, Onkeo & Orodho, 2014; Nyangia & Orodho, 2014; Orodho, 2013, 2014; Republic of Kenya, 2013; Mwinyi pembe, & Orodho, 2014). It is implicit that the Government of the Republic of Kenya envisaged putting up appropriate strategies that would ensure that the free education policies would be efficient and effective in providing quality education to the beneficiaries (Oketch & Ngware, 2012;

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Orodho, 2013). The FCPE policy was meant to address illiteracy, low quality education and low completion rates at the primary level, high cost of education and poor community participation (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

By the common expectations of the free compulsory primary education policies in Kenya, the government was expected to meet the tuition fees while the parents were required to meet other requirements like lunch, transport and boarding fees for those in boarding schools, besides development of approved school projects. This was in line with the government commitment to ensure that the immediate outcomes of the education policies was experienced in growth of enrolment in public primary schools which escalated from 5.9 million in January 2003 to 9.4 million in 2010, an increase of 59.32% (Republic of Kenya / UNESCO, 2012). Literature indicates that sustainable provision of the quality primary education is fraught with intertwined challenges which include limited facilities and the growing government financial deficits as well as delays in the disbursement of the funds (Getange, Onkeo & Orodho, 2014; Mwinyi pembe & Orodho, 2014). These draw backs are likely to compromise access to free primary education. According to the Sessional Paper No1, 2012 Republic of Kenya, (2012), although enrolments have increased, over 10% children of school going children have not enrolled. Moreover, retention has remained a challenge especially in Nyanza, Coast and North Eastern regions.

The government of Kenya cites increased funding and the scrapping of examination fees as its' improvement of the education sector. Budgetary allocation increased from ksh.30 billion in 2014/2015 to ksh.80 billion in 2016/2017 with the objective of achieving free and compulsory basic education. As one of the measures to keep pupils in schools in 2014/15 financial year the government provided the school feeding programme by providing midday meals to approximately 1.3 million primary school children in 105 arid and semi-arid areas and some selected schools in the informal settlements within Nairobi (MOE,2017)

According to Oduor, (2017) at least one million children are still out of primary schools although basic education in Kenya is free and compulsory. In Kitutu Central Sub-County child labour in motor bike business, construction industry and in tea farms even during school days has been common practice (MOE, Kitutu Central Sub-County, 2017). There was need to find out why the children are out of school despite the provision free and compulsory basic education by the government of Kenya.

In January 2018, the MOE begun a nationwide registration exercise for all schools and learners under the initiative called National Education Management Information System (NEMIS). NEMIS is set to become the only source of accurate and up to data for the education system in Kenya showing the number of schools, learners, resources and facilities available.NEMIS enrolment data released by MOE, in July, 2019 shows that only 5.2 million pupils have been captured under NEMIS although the government puts the figure of learners in 23,000 primary schools to be about 10 million. Under NEMIS, the learners are assigned a unique personal identifier (UPI) which provides accurate data that will guide allocation of funds to public schools. The MOE uses the information fed onto NEMIS to disburse Free Primary Education funds.

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1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Government of Kenya implemented FCBPE in January 2003. The main objective of this policy implementation was to make primary education accessible to all children irrespective of their economic backgrounds. However, the situation in most public primary schools depicts lack of enough facilities, resources and instructional materials. Parents still have to buy or pay for provision of essential requirements for their children in school. In Kitutu Central Sub-County, children of school going age have been reportedly found engaging in motor bike business and child labour instead of being in school and this is a major concern to stakeholders. Many of the children end up dropping out of school completely yet basic education is free and compulsory as provided in government policy. There seems to be a gap between the intents of the Government of Kenya on implementation of FCBE and the unforeseeable challenges that prohibit pupils' access to primary schools. The present study sought to assess the extent of provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials in Free Compulsory Basic Education in public primary schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Assess the extent of provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials in Free Compulsory Basic Education in public primary schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County

1.4 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the theory demand and supply. The phrase "supply and demand" was first used by James Denham-Stuart in the book "Inquiry Political Economy," published in1767. Adam Smith used the phrase in the book "The Wealth of Nations", and David Ricardo titled one chapter on demand and supply in the book "Principles of Political Economy and Taxation." On the Influence of Demand and Supply on Price, Smith (1776) described that theory of supply and demand dictated how prices vary as a result of imbalance between product availability and the desires of those with purchasing power. Marshall (1890) depicted an increase in demand along with the consequent increase in price and quantity required to reach a market clearing or equilibrium point on the supply curve.

The demand and supply theory was used in this study since the school and education sector is a system and the demand for the services is often influenced by society and the perceived returns and future prospects for the pupils in terms of quality and competitiveness which does affect enrolment rates and access to education. In addition to direct costs levied by schools, households can often be faced with other economic costs of basic education. Poor households often incur indirect economic costs by sending their children to school who otherwise contribute to the household economy. Among the major determinants of enrollment identified in recent studies include household income, schooling costs and the opportunity costs of attending school (UNICEF, 2010)

Public schools need to make deliberate effort towards upgrading the organization of work, to match or surpass the competition that is mostly provided by private schools. Public primary schools are funded by the government and parents who cannot afford private education have little choice but to send their children to public schools. This theory implies that developing schools should have capacity to perpetually upgrade their ability to accommodate more pupils without compromising quality, thus enhancing demand, access and participation in Education. Public primary schools in Kenya have not been keeping up with this pace due to high enrolment rates and inadequate resources to cater for the teaching and learning process

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(Salina, 2007). Therefore, the already existing schools had been forced to accept a large population of students that they could not be able to support an effective teaching-learning process. As a result, the quality of education at the moment became questionable Aduda, (2003) which in one way or another limited access to education for all. The government therefore needed to restructure the FPE policy to cater for the development of ill-equipped schools so that there was uniform demand for slots in all-public primary schools.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Extent of provision of facilities, resources, instructional materials and participation of pupils in FCBE

Free education policies worldwide and Sub-Saharan Africa in particular has been a subject to a variety of factors. Indirect costs such as transport, uniform and extra tuition have been shown to undermine implementation of free education policies in Malawi, Ghana, Zambia, Ethiopia and Tanzania have shown that children are hindered form effective participation in schooling due to inability to afford such costs (Kelly, 2009). A similar view is shared by Njeru and Orodho (2003) in their study on region a line qualities in education in Kenya. They pointed extra costs not catered for in the free education overheads can be an impediment to realization of implementation of free education. Moreover, students from poor social economic background have borne the brunt Njeru and Orodho (2003), consent that the critical factor that is responsible for the low access and poor participation in education is poverty. High rates of poverty at house hold level have made poor households either not to enroll their children in primary schools or fail to sustain an uninterrupted participation of those who are enrolled due to inability to meet various requirements. This has resulted in inadequate provision of learning facilities to the enrolled, poor quality education and high dropout rates among the poor. There is inability to meet indirect costs for schooling, such costs being school learning and teaching materials, uniforms, transport to and from school and food (Mbai, 2004). Several studies done in Malawi, Ghana, Zambia, Ethiopia and Tanzania have shown that children are hindered form effective participation in schooling due to inability to afford such costs (Kelly, 2009).

Access to education is influenced by its demand which in turn is influenced by the level of family income, Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985). It is therefore noted that, the level of family income influences pupils' access to primary education where low income earners may not be able to meet the cost of primary education. Tyler (1997) asserts that socio-economic background of pupils influence their schooling. Abagi (1998) points out that, as the level of poverty rises, child labor has become crucial for family survival; more children are therefore increasingly employed in domestic activities, agriculture and petty trade in rural and urban Kenya. Therefore, poor household shave to carefully analyze the opportunity cost of education. Free Primary Education has not ensured total enrolment for all primary school age going children. In Northern Eastern Province for example, where the highest index of poverty is recorded nationally, only one out of three children attends primary school (Achoka, Odebero, Maiyo & Mualuko, 2007).

Shapiro and Tambashe (2003) suggest that the economic efficiency of households in peasant societies increases with greater total work input from children. They further indicated that an equally powerful reason for keeping children at home is that poor families need the additional income that even young children may generate. This reinforces that the value of earnings forgone or unpaid work in the household, accounts in large part for lack of demand for education among the poor. Owiti (2014) affirms that with increased poverty levels, many

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parents and communities have not been able to meet education costs for their children. This has led to many pupils either not accessing education or dropping out of school. The problem is so severe that it is estimated that unless practical efforts are made to source funds for learning programs, the country will not realize meaningful gains in education due to the high poverty levels.

A research was carried out in East Africa on child trafficking into domestic labor and commercial sex by Africa Network for Prevention against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPCAN, 2013). It revealed that poverty led to most parents from poor households in rural and urban slum areas to give out their primary school going-age girls to serve as housemaids in urban areas, thus denying them a chance to access primary education. ANPCAN also found that between 2000 and 3000 children engage in sex tourism in Mombasa, Kilifi, and Kwale and Malindi districts. Some of the children, who have joined the trade to raise money for uniforms, never return to class because they engage in the trade as a source of living. The report indicates that they are among the 700,000 children countrywide who are out of school because their parents are too poor to afford food and uniform. Poverty was cited as the major cause of child labour as the majority of working children came from lower income families. The long-term effect is that children from poor families who do not access education will end up raising poor families and the poverty cycle is bound to continue.

3.0 Research Methodology

The study employed Descriptive Survey Design. The study was carried out in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County, Kenya. The study targeted 40 public primary schools in Kitutu Central Sub-County, Kisii County, Kenya. The schools that formed the sampling frame were purposively sampled because already four schools out of the total population had been chosen for piloting; hence remaining with 36 schools. The sample size for the study included 36 head teachers, 36 parents who are chairpersons of board of managements, 2 Curriculum Support Officers (CSO's) and a Sub County Director of Education (SCDE). The main instruments of data collection for this study are questionnaires, interview schedules and focused group discussion. The data collected were both—quantitative and qualitative.

Descriptive statistics were employed in presenting quantitative data results where frequencies and proportions were used in interpreting the respondent's perception over issues raised in the questionnaires so as to answer the research questions. Graphs, pie charts and tables were used in data presentation. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to calculate the percentage, frequency and standard deviation of the responses. Data from the interviews and focus group discussions were read carefully paying particular attentions to comments, ideals and concerns from the participants. The field notes were edited, coded and written based on content and then analyzed deductively where all the responses were categorized according to their theme and content. Presentation was done using tables, figures and charts. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyze the data.

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4.0 Data Analysis, Presentation and Interpretation

4.1 Return Rate of Instruments

The instruments of data collection were questionnaire, in-depth interview and focus group discussion. The study had one questionnaire for the head teachers (QFHT). A total of 36 head teachers of public primary schools from Kitutu Central South Sub- County filled. Two public primary schools from each zone were used during questionnaire pre-testing. The anticipated QFHT were 36 but the questionnaire returned for the study were 30 which translates to 83.3% which exceeded 70% return rate, the minimum as recommended by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). The questionnaire return rate was high because the researcher personally visited the sampled schools and requested the respondents to participate in the study. The head teachers who did not return their questionnaires sited a lot of administrative work and did not find time to answer the questionnaire.

Table 1: Return rate of instruments

Instruments	Admistered	Returned	Response Percentages		
Questionnaire					
for head teachers	36	30	83.3		
	Conducted	Returned	Response percentages		
In-depth interview	3	3	100		
Focus Group Discuss	ion 4	4	100		

There were three in-depth interviews for one SCDE and two for the CSOs. All the in-depth interviews were carried out as programmed. The SCDE and CSOs adhered to the interview schedules agreed on and the response rate was 100%. On the focus group discussion, the study was successful in conducting four focus group discussions with 30 parents with at least 6 parents in each focus group. The researcher was able to get a good representation of the parents from the schools. The parents were facilitated with fare to reach the venues of the focus group discussion by the researcher. This implied that response rate was in line with the views of Cooper and Scindler (2006) cited by Achumbi (2012) who proposed that a study response rate of 75% is adequate for a study of a social scientific nature.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of Respondents

Demographic information was sought on gender, age, experience in leadership and professional qualifications of head teachers.

4.2.1 Gender of Head teachers

The gender of respondents was examined. The results are as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Gender of Head teachers

Gender	Frequency	%
Males	18	60
Females	12	40

The results indicate that among the head teachers, 60% (18) and 40% (12) are male and female respectively. The study indicates that there were more male head teachers than female head teachers. Two third gender rule has not yet been attained in headship positions.



4.2.2 Age of Head teachers

Table 3: Age of Head Teachers

Age	Frequency	Percentage
21-30	0	0
31-40	3	10
41-50	12	40
51 &Above	15	50

Among the head teachers, 10% are between 31-40; 50% Between 41 and 50 and 40% above 50. No head teacher falls in the age bracket of 21-30. The findings show that leadership positions are largely held by older teachers. The findings are similar to World Bank (2009) which found out that school administrators in Sub-Saharan Africa were selected based on age.

4.2.3 Head teachers Highest Education Qualifications

Highest education qualification of head teachers was sought. The findings are presented in figure 1. The results show that 13.33% hold a master's degree, 16.67% an undergraduate degree, 63.33% a diploma in education and only 6.67% have P1 certificate. Notably, the number of P1 holders is the least while the number of diploma holders is the highest. It reveals that head teachers had taken advantage of the opportunities available to pursue higher education under the school based mode of study in various universities. Donnelly (2004) suggests that it is necessary for a teacher to plan his career development for the teaching career to be successful. This was necessary as the management skills of the head teachers as managers could be established in the study.

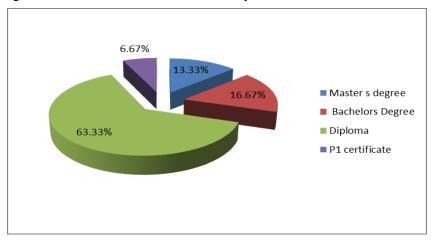


Figure 1: Highest Education Qualification of Head teachers



4.2.4 Head teachers Administrative Experience

The administrative experience of head teachers is shown in Table 4. According to the findings, 36.7% of respondents have an experience of between 6-10 years; 30% between 11-15years; 20% between 0-5 years and 13.3% between 16-20 years. Slightly more than half of head teachers have an experience of less than ten years (56.7%). Perhaps it is due to the appointment of new head teachers to replace retirees after expiry of five years since 2009 when retirement age was raised from 55-60 years.

Table 4: Head teachers Administrative Experience

Number of years	Frequency	%	
0-5	6	20	
6-10	11	36.7	
11-15	9	30	
16-20	4	13.3	
20 and above	0		

4.2.5 Gender, Occupation and Educational level of parents

The demographic characteristics of the parents that were considered for the study were gender, occupation and educational level. Distribution of parents gender was important to ascertain there was no gender bias. Parental level of education distribution would most likely influence on the attitude of parents to education. The occupation of the parents is a determinant of the socio-economic status of the parents which could influence their involvement in pupils' education especially in provision of learning resources.

Table 5 Demographic characteristics of parents

Demographic factors		Frequency	Percentages
Gender	Female	8	22.2
	Male	28	77.7
	Totals	36	100
Occupation	Employed	3	8.33
_	Self-employed	7	19.4
	Not employed	26	72.2
	Total	36	100
Educational level	Primary	22	61.11
	Secondary	12	33.3
	College	2	5.5
	University	0	0
	Total	36	100

Table 5 reveals that there was unfair distribution of parents' gender in representation of parents in the school management boards. 22.2% were represented by female while 77.7% were represented by male. On occupation a majority of the parents cumulatively a total of 91.6% were either self-employed or unemployed. This indicated how low the socio-economic status of the parents was. The ones employed were only a dismal 8.33% and actually were mainly working as casual workers.

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The study found out that most of the parents had some level of education up to secondary level being 94.41%. Only 5.5% had education college level of education and completely none to university level. This showed that very few parents valued the returns of investment in education of their children. This can be justified by the fact that some parents let their children drop out of school to assist them in farms and others especially the girl child being involved in child labour as house girls.

4.2.6 Background information on SCDE and CSOs

On the CSOs, the study found out that one was female and the other was male. This indicated fair distribution of gender. Both the CSOs had university education being a minimum requirement for appointment to the position by Teachers Service Commission (TSC) in Kenya .The SCDE was male and well educated with a master of education degree in educational administration. The officers were well informed on their roles having long working experiences and out of attending many refresher courses.

4.3 Results and Discussions of the study

The study sought to assess the extent of provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials in implementation of Free and Compulsory Basic Education. This objective was responded to through the questionnaires by opinions sort from the head teachers. The scores from the items in the questionnaire are represented in a five likert scale and when requested to score the likert scale, the head teachers gave the responses that are in Table 6.

Table 6: Head teachers' responses on provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials under Free Primary Education n=30

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	TF	TS	AVS
Free primary funds cater all instructional materials	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	18(60%)	12(40%)	30	48	1.6
Free primary funds cater school infrastructure	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	10(33.3%)	20(66.7%)	30	42	1.4
Free primary funds cater extra teaching staff	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	24(80%)	6(20%)	30	44	1.47
Extra levies are charged for school infrastructure	18(60%)	12(40%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	0(0%)	30	38	4.6
Extra levies are charged for Text books	5(16.7%)	5(16.7%)	0(0%)	14(46.6%)	6(20%)	30	79	2.63
Extra levies are charged for stationery	4(13.3%)	4(13.3%)	0(0%)	10(33.3%)	12(40%)	30	68	2.27
Extra levies are charged for examinations	8(26.7%)	12(40%)	0(0%)	4(13.3%)	6(20%)	30	102	3.4
Extra levies are charged for activity	3(10%)	6(20%)	0(0%)	11(36.7%)	10(33.3%)	30	71	2.37
Extra levies are charged for administrative purposes	6(20%)	6(20%)	0(0%)	10(33.3%)	8(26.7%)	30	82	2.73
Extra levies are charged for lunch	6(20%)	4(13.3%)	0(0%)	12(40%)	8(26.7%)	30	78	2.6
Extra levies are charged for uniform	5(16.7%)	6(20%)	0(0%)	11(36.6%)	8(26.7%)	30	79	2.63

SA – Strongly Agree, A – Agree, U – Undecided, D – Disagree, SD – Strongly Disagree, TF – Total Frequency, TS – Total Score, AVS – Average Score, %S – Percentage Score.

The analysis in Table 6 shows the status of implementation of FCBE. When asked to respond to whether FPE funds cater for all expenses the head teachers score on the likert showed that, no head teacher strongly agreed, agreed or was undecided, 18(60%) disagreed while 12(40%) strongly disagreed. This was an average score of 1.6(32%) an indication that the head teachers did not support the statement. On whether FPE caters for infrastructure in the schools, no head teacher, strongly agreed or agreed.2(6.7%) were undecided,8(26.7%)

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disagreed and 20(66.77%) strongly disagreed. An average score of 1.4(28%) was realized indicating that the head teachers did not support the statement. Indeed, all respondents (100%) agree that they charge levies for school infrastructure. In most cases the head teachers have to look for other sources of financing for development of infrastructure.

On the statement that FPE funds cater for extra teaching staff, no head teacher strongly agreed, agreed or was undecided.14(46.7%) disagreed and 16(53.3%) strongly disagreed. This was an average score of 1.47(29.2%) an indication that the head teachers disagreed that there was no provision of FPE funds for hiring extra teachers. Where there is shortage and there is need to hire extra teachers, the burden is always transferred to parents. When asked whether they charge extra levies for text books, the head teachers responses on the likert score was as follows; 5(16.7%) strongly agreed, 5(16.7 agreed, no head teacher was undecided%) 14(46.7%) disagreed, while 6(20%) strongly disagreed. The average score was 2.63(52.6%) which indicated that the head teachers did not charge extra levies for text books. The text books available are procured under the FPE programme.

On the statement whether the head teachers charge extra levies for examinations, a majority 8(26.7%) and 12(40%) strongly agree and agree respectively that they charge levies for examinations. An average score on the likert is 3.4(68%) which indicates that indeed they supported statement that extra levies are charged for examinations. When asked to respond on to whether they charged extra levies for activity the head teachers scored as follows on the likert scale. Those who strongly agreed were 3(10%) and 6(20%) agreed, no head teacher was undecided 11(36.7%) disagreed and 10(33.3%) strongly disagreed. This was an average score of 2.37(47.4%) an indication that they charged some levies to support co-curricular activities.

On whether there are extra charges for administrative purposes the head teachers score was 6(20%) strongly agreeing and agreeing, no head teacher was undecided, 11(36.7%) disagreed while 10(33.3%) strongly disagreed. An average score of 2.37(47.4%) was realized which indicated that they supported the statement. A majority 6(20%) and 12(40%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively that levies were charged for lunch programme at school. Indeed many public primary schools have an organized lunch programme for upper classes. They contend that the funds available are not adequate to cater for all instructional materials. When asked to respond to as whether extra levies were charged for uniform, 5(16.7%) strongly disagreed, 6(20%) agreed, no head teacher was undecided, 11(36.6) disagreed and 8(26.7%) strongly disagreed. This was an average score of 2.63(52.6%) an indication that they supported the statement. The parents are asked to buy uniforms for their children and especially in public boarding primary school, extra levies are charged as of uniform fee. The same is corroborated by the findings from the focus group discussion with parents.

Parents are usually asked from time to pay for or buy directly some materials such as mathematical instructional materials. They contend that the funds available are not adequate to cater for all instructional materials. Parents are frequently asked to contribute money to buy desks and put up school buildings and employ extra teachers due to large enrollments. Additionally, the parents reported that they are charged for examinations and extra tuition for the purposes of quality involvement.

Parent 2 elaborated further and had this to say:

The school does not provide some of the items required by the pupils for use in school. Parents are often asked to buy mathematical sets, supplementary and revision text books, drawing and graph books which are not provided under free education. The parents also have to bear the burden of putting up some school facilities like classrooms and buy more desks for pupils' to sit on in class. In some

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cases I have witnessed incidences where pupils joining school for the first time being asked to pay for or carry desks from the carpenter. The children are always being sent home for money to cater for internal examinations and extra tuition even though having been banned by the MOE. Besides all these we still have to provide uniforms and give money or foodstuffs for lunch programme which is compulsory in most of the schools to pupils in class seven and eight. In some cases where acute shortage of teachers parents are made to meet the cost of employing an extra teacher under BOM. We are called for meetings in which some these resolutions are passed even without due consideration of the parents who may be unable to pay. Pupils whose parents are unable to pay are usually sent away to home for the monies.

The findings are consistent with Nyamute (2006) observation that FPE is not free as such. There are other unforeseen costs that were not put under consideration when the programme was rolled out. The scholar points out that FPE cost is much below school budgets which include extra teachers and school infrastructure. Njeru and Orodho (2003) argue that extra costs especially those not catered for in the free education over heads hinders can be an impediment to realization of free education objectives.

However, analysis of responses SCDE and CSO, reveal that even if funds are not provided to put up school infrastructure and employment of teachers, parents should not be charged for instructional materials and extra tuition. It is against the guidelines of the policy for head teachers to carry extra tuition and ask parents to pay for the same.

The SCDE explained further:

Extra tuition is illegal and it is against the policy of MOE to collect any monies from parents for purposes of offering remedial teaching. There are set guidelines on official school learning hours for pupils in school. The children should not be denied quality time for play at the expense of extra tuition. On instructional materials, funds have been provided with the MOE supplying some course text books and teachers too have a role to play in the improvisation of other instructional materials to cut on costs. I am aware that some school head teachers ask parents to provide desks before being admitted and this is not right. Children have to get good facilities like classrooms and toilets for use while in school and this underscores the role of the community alongside other supportive funds such as CDF to provide school infrastructure However, caution should be taken to ensure that no child is denied school due to failure to contribute money for school infrastructure.

However, a review of FCBE generally purposes on partnership among local communities, donors and governments in the implementation of free primary education (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Particularly, no specific role on financial contribution has been placed on parents towards implementation of the programme. According to Ayieke (2005) FPE was introduced without clear and elaborate roles of various stakeholders forming a recipe for confusion.

Similarly, the parents, Curriculum Support Officers contend that most schools do not charge levies for non-teaching staff, administrative purposes, textbooks and stationery. The SCDE and CSOs have often ensured that schools don't charge for services catered by FPE funds. However, they argue that some few schools put levies on services catered by FPE for purportedly enhancing quality especially in buying extra textbooks and especially for revision. The parents also noted that even if many schools do not charge for uniform and lunch, parents should shoulder the responsibility of buying uniform and providing meals for their children.



When asked to respond on charges on uniform and meals parent 5 had this to say:

It is the responsibility of parents to provide uniform for their children in school. However some parents have many school age going children and with the high poverty rates, they find it difficult to fully provide required uniform. Some children walk to school in tattered uniforms or wear completely different attire. On meals, most schools have made it compulsory for senior classes like class seven and eight to take lunch in school. This lunch program is accomplished by pupils paying money and carrying foodstuffs like beans and maize to school. I usually see pupils on the roadsides carrying foodstuffs and firewood which they have been asked to take to school by the teachers for their lunch. Due to poverty and famine in most families, most pupils are not able to meet such requirements. Providing school uniforms and meals for the children is an expensive undertaking and a majority of pupils whose parents cannot afford to meet such costs end up dropping out of school.

According to Kassam (2006) indirect costs such as uniform and meals have remained an impediment to implementation of free education in third world countries. World Bank (2008) urges that abolishing of user fees should be broader to cover both indirect and user charges as commitment to attaining free primary education.

5.0 Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

This study found out that implementation of free primary education is to the extent of tuition, activity, textbooks and stationery, non-teaching staff which do not attract user charges. However, examinations, extra tuition, employment of extra teachers, uniforms, lunch, and school infrastructure attract user charges. The findings indicate that pupils are usually asked from time to time pay for or buy directly some materials such as mathematical instruments, drawing and graph books, supplementary and revision text books and internal examinations. Parents are frequently required to contribute in provision of facilities like classrooms, toilets and desks. The role of community and CDF was also underscored in provision of facilities in public primary schools.

Implementation of Free Compulsory Basic Education is compromised by introduction of levies for internal examinations, school infrastructure, extra tuition, payment of salaries for extra teachers. Moreover, parents still have to shoulder responsibilities for uniforms and lunch.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study

In light of the findings of this study on provision of facilities, resources and instructional materials in implementation of FCBE, the study recommends that:

In order to increase pupils' access to public primary schools, FCBE should broaden its scope beyond providing funds for only tuition and instructional materials and include cash for development of infrastructure to ease the burden on parents.

There is need to review policy on FCBE in order redefine the role of multiple stake holders in education, increase allocations and efficiency in the utilization of the funds.



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