FACTORS INFLUENCING INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS UNDER FREE PRIMARY EDUCATION POLICY IN SUBA- EAST DIVISION.

BY

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A RESEARCH REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION IN ECONOMICS OF EDUCATION.

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

2006

DECLARATION

This report is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University

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DEDICATION

To Mr. and Mrs. Eliud Adawo King'wara , I dedicate this piece of work to you as a testimony of the virtues of integrity, honesty and cheerfulness you inculcated in me whatever the circumstance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My sincere appreciation goes to my supervisor, Mrs. Loise. P. W. Gichuhi, lecturer department of Education Administration and Planning (Economics of Education), who in spite of her tight schedule was firmly committed to duty and always available and patient for my consultation.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my parents for understanding the depths of my pockets during the entire period of the course. I will not forget the tireless efforts of Lillian Awuor Akedde for the time she took to type the work besides her normal duties.

I cannot forget the moral support and encouragement I received from my brothers Robert King'wara, Evans King'wara and Leonard King'wara for the keen ear they gave to my boring thoughts.

This acknowledgement will not be complete without thanking my classmates for the encouragement and tiny pieces of advice they threw my way.

I may not quite exhaustively thank each and every person but I am very grateful to everyone who facilitated this work in one way or another.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the factors that influence internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba – East division under the FPE policy. It involved a selected cluster sample of 25 schools whose head teachers participated in the study. It also involved 70 repeaters who were in grade 4 up to and including grade 8 of primary schools. Thirty-six children who had dropped out of school after the inception of FPE also participated in the study. Questionnaires were administered to the head teachers while data was collected from the repeaters and dropouts by use of FGD. The data was then analyzed descriptively and by Pearson's product – moment correlation. The study found out that despite the introduction of FPE to improve internal efficiency in primary schools; primary schools in Suba – East division still revealed high rates of repetition and dropouts. This was influenced majorly by school administrative practices and poverty amongst those who repeat and dropout. It was further found out that there exist a positive and significant correlation co – efficient between teacher – pupil ratio and repetition and also between textbooks availability and repetition. A conclusion was therefore reached that for FPE policy to positively impact on the internal efficiency, there is a need for schools to do away with administrative practices that tolerate repetition. The government also needs to augment FPE policy by other programmes that will impact positively on the socio – economic standards of the poor and the marginalized in Suba – East division. This is because children from poor backgrounds face increasing opportunity costs as they continue staying in school, a fact that makes them to dropout.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A.S.A.L.	- Arid and Semi Arid Lands
A.I.D.S.	- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
C.R.D.	- Centre for Research and Development
E.F.A	- Education for All
F.P.E.	- Free Primary Education
G.E.R.	- Gross Enrollment Ratio
G.P.I.	- Gender Parity Index
H.I.V.	- Human Immuno-defiency Syndrome
K.C.P.E	- Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
M.D.G	- Millennium Development Goals
M.O.E.S.T	- Ministry of Education Science and Technology
N.G.O.	- Non-Governmental Organization
N.E.R.	- Net Enrollment Ratio
N.F.E.	-Non- Formal Education
P.T.R.	- Pupil Teacher Ratio
S.A.P.	- Structural Adjustment Programmes
T.S.C.	- Teachers Service Commission
U.I.S.	- Unesco Institute for Statistics

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the Problem

A quantum of education can be considered as both an investment and consumption, and the definition of the two terms will always shift as the angle of vision of the one perceiving the purpose of education changes (Blaug, 1970). Whether education is an investment or consumption good, it entails costs aimed at achieving specific outcomes. These costs are borne by both the government and the household as social and private costs respectively.

Birdsall (1980) and Cochrane (1979) argued that the household faces a tradeoff between present consumption and children's future income. This is because schooling is not free: the time children spend in school and the money costs of school necessarily reduce total family work time and total consumption of goods in the present. In other words, the household faces a budget constraint on what can be called a full-income constraint, where full income includes the time available to household members as well as cash (Cochrane, 1979). Colcough (2003) stated that the main loci for poverty/schooling interaction are at the levels of the household and the state. As regards households, in cases where the ease of access to schools of reasonable quality is similar for all, there are two main reasons why poorer household may choose not to send their children to them or withdraw their children from them:

(a) The direct costs that parents have to meet may be too great. Such ancillary costs exists even where school fees are not charged. In most cases, parents incur some expenditure for school uniforms, text and exercise books and many also have to contribute to the construction and upkeep of school buildings and provide other

inputs in cash or in kind. Poor households may judge such costs to be beyond their means (Mukudi, 2004: Colcough, 2003).

(b) Poorer households may depend more so than richer households, upon the labour of their children in order to supplement household income either directly on the farm or in the market place or indirectly by children undertaking household task which liberate adult labour force for other remunerated work (Chernichovisky, 1981; Tan, 1985; Tan, Lee and Mingat, 1984).

For each or both of these sets of reasons, poor households may decide not to enroll some or all of their children to school. Chernichovisky (1981) indicated that despise private costs affecting enrolment rates in Botswana, economic and policy changes did little to affect the enrolment of boys. Despite the abolition of primary school fees, the introduction of free meals and health care, parents were still reluctant to send their boy-child to school. Instead a majority remained at home herding cattle, which are a symbol of wealth in the country. Consequently, this draws attention to the lack of any systematic analysis of the determinants of enrolment to determine whether fees represent an obstacle to internal efficiency. Raja and Burret (2004) stated that there are a number of low enrolment countries in which fees might be impeding enrolments as well as relatively high-fee country where fees may not be impeding effective enrolment or competition. This is signaled by the fact that the enrolment rate in countries such as Canada is at a hundred percent even in the presence of fees, though they may still have a regressive impact. Bray (2001) argued that user fees in primary education are pervasive and a serious obstacle to enrollment and completion rate for millions of children around the World. This has been evidenced by the huge surges in enrolment that have accompanied fee removal in countries such as Uganda, Kenya and East Timor, where surges have at times threatened to overwhelm these countries

education system. Warren and Stocks (1985) further argued that elimination or reduction of charges to the individual may increase the demand for education to a point unjustified by the economic returns to a society. They further stated that if demand exceeds available school places, the poor are most likely to be excluded.

The Benefits of Education

There are many potential benefits of education. Education improves peoples ability to shape their lives - strengthening their functioning in society and contributing to their welfare directly. According to Thomas, Daitami, Dhareshwar, Kauffman, Kishar, Lopez and Wang (2000), educating women, for example, not only increases their income-earning capacity, but also improves their reproductive health, lowers infant and child mortality and benefits both current and future generations. Investing in human capital is therefore crucial for economic growth, poverty reduction and environmental protection. Furthermore Thomas et al (2000) stated that investing in people improves human rights and social justice which provides direct satisfaction. Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) stated that additional years of education per person increase real output or growth rates.

Studies by Dessus (2001) indicated that differences in educational infrastructures explain significantly differences in human capital marginal productivity across countries. Moreover the capacity of school system to distribute educational services equally within the population enhances the contribution of human capital accumulation to growth.

Psacharopoulos (1994) indicated that the social return of education generally decreases with the number of years of schooling. Under this condition, the social return of educational investment is higher when it is aimed at increasing the human

capital of the less skilled who are majorly in primary schools (Shultz, 1999). Poverty traps resulting from vicious circles are therefore not inevitable. A priority given to primary education and access to all should produce for the same fiscal burden, more positive effects in terms of growth than prioritizing secondary education for a few (Pissorides, 1993; Benuel, 1996). According to Thomas et al (2000), the main asset of most poor people who in most cases only have access to primary education is their human capital. Investing in the human capital of the poor is a powerful way to augment their assets, redress asset inequality, reduce poverty and achieve growth. While redistributing existing assets and income is politically difficult, building new assets such as human capital is widely accepted (Thomas et al, 2000).

Education for All

Globally, the quest for Education For All (EFA) began with the universal declaration of human rights adopted in 1948 that declared education as a human right. It aimed at ensuring that elementary education was made freely and compulsorily available for all children in all nations. This was affirmed again in the Bill of human rights in the 1970's (EFA Global monitoring Report, 2005). The subsequent declarations on EFA were notably adopted at the World conference on Education For All in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. This sparked off a new impetus in basic education especially with its so-called vision and renewed commitment. It was noted that,

> to serve the basic needs for all requires more than a recommitment to basic education as now exists. What is needed is an expanded vision that surpasses resource levels, institutional infrastructure, Curricula and conventional delivery systems, while building on the best practices (World Declaration on EFA, 1990).

This was further amplified by the Dakar framework of action in 2000 and in the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of the same year. These last two reaffirmed the commitment to achieve universal provision and access to primary schooling and added a target year, 2015. The goals stated that: -

(a) All children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities should have access to complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality by 2015.

(b) Gender disparities in primary and secondary education should be eliminated by 2005 and gender equality in education should be achieved by 2015 with a focus on ensuring girls full and equal access to basic education of good quality (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005; World Education Forum, April 2000).

In Kenya, during the 1963 elections, the Kenya African National Union (KANU) that became the ruling party published in its manifesto entitled 'what a KANU Government offers you' which committed the party to offering a minimum of seven years of free primary education (FPE). In the 1969 election manifesto, the party again re-echoed its commitment to providing seven years of FPE (Sifuna, 1990).

The aim of FPE programme was to provide more school opportunities, especially to the poor communities. The argument was that payment of school fees tended to prevent a large proportion of the children from attending school (Centre for Research and Development (CRD), 2004). According to Eiseman and Schurze (1991), Kenya abolished tuition charges at primary schools in the 1970s. The other non-tuition costs associated with education remained the responsibility of parents. With the adoption of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the mid 1980s, user fees were introduced and applied to infrastructure development (Adams and Hartlet, 1996).

In September 2001, the assistant Minister for education revealed that the government was working on a programme to offer free and compulsory primary education starting in January 2005. Toward the end of 2002, however, the director of education announced the reintroduction of user fees (Mukudi, 2004). This action sharply contradicted the goal of universal access which the Kenyan government had been seeking to fulfill. After parents, teachers, Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and politicians protested at the reintroduction of user fees, President Daniel Toroitich Moi issued a proclamation to the effect that the new user fee policy would be put on hold. He also reaffirmed the government's commitment to provide FPE by 2005. The newly elected National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) government of President Mwai Kibaki began providing FPE in keeping with its election platform promise to eliminate user fees in primary schools as of January 2003.

According to Raja and Burret (2004). providing universal basic education has proven to be considerably more challenging than was initially anticipated despite general progress. Mukudi (2004) indicated that in spite of the government's implementation of the new policy of FPE, children of school going age continue to be denied access and participation.

Trends in Internal Efficiency

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), the latest global data for EFA are for 2001/02 school years (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005). Inevitably there is some time lag between the collection (and often the publication) of data by national governments. The EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005, indicated that: -

(i) The gap between Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) is often large for countries with low NER. This shows that lack of coverage and inefficiency in primary education tend to occur together,

(ii) The greatest concentration of educational deprivation is found in Africa and South Asia. In sub Saharan Africa, only a handful of small countries both reach GERs of 100 percent or more and have NERs above 90 percent. Some larger countries combined GERs below 100 percent with NERs below 70 percent or even below 50 percent. The only other countries reporting NERs below 70 percent are a few Arab States and Pakistan.

The report further indicates that, just six countries in the World (Burundi, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Eritrea, Burkina Faso, Niger) have a primary education NERs below 50 percent and that highly populated regions within countries have lower enrolment levels than do many African states. When initial enrolment is low, its growth is often gender imbalanced, with enrolment ratios for males increasing much earlier than those for females (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005). A Gender Parity Index (GPI) between 0.97 and 1.03 is considered as reflecting gender parity. Gender disparity in enrolment is characteristic of many countries with low overall enrolment. All but three of the countries with a GPI below 0.90 are in sub Saharan Africa (Notably West Africa), the Arab states, and south and west Asia. Nevertheless, progress towards gender parity has been notable since 1990 and the trend has continued (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005).

The report also noted that a large number of children drop out of school before completing the fifth grade. The survival rate varies in the world and is especially low in sub Saharan Africa. The survival rate is below 75 percent in thirty countries and below 66 percent in half of the sub Saharan Africa countries. Survival rates tend to be

higher for girls than for boys in all regions. This can be explained by the fact that in countries where parental preference for sons is strong and/or the school system and society discriminate against girls, families that manage to send their daughters to school tend to be more advantaged than those who send only their sons. The drop out rate reduced by 10 percent points in Cambodia, Djibouti, Malawi, Namibia, and Samoa. Substantial declines were registered in Chad, Colombia, Eritrea, Ghana, Madagascar, Rwanda and South Africa. Very high levels of grade repetition affect relatively few countries. The report indicated that grade repetition became less frequent during the 1990s. Two thirds of the countries displayed rates below 10 percent. There is much diversity among the remaining countries, however, and in those where more than a quarter pupils are repeating grades such as Chad, Comoros, Gabon, Madagascar and Rwanda, repetition is equivalent to an additional year of participation.

According to Lewin (1999), large proportions of primary - school teachers lack adequate academic qualifications, training and content knowledge, especially in developing countries. The average number of years of academic study and teacher training required to become a primary school teacher ranges from just over twelve years among countries where the standard is lower secondary to seventeen years where it is higher education (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2005). In Botswana, Cote d'voire and Zambia almost the entire teaching force reaches the upper secondary standard while Benin, Burkina Faso and many other countries, fall short of this upper secondary level.

The Pupil - Teacher Ratios (PTR) are low (less than 20:1) in regions where enrolment rates are high - in particular North America and Western Europe, Central and Eastern Europe and central Asia - and high in regions where enrollments are low,

notably South and West Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, with median values of 40:1 and 44:1 respectively. Efforts to widen access to primary education partly explain the rise in PTR in Ethiopia (23 percent) Nigeria (28percent) and Tanzania (22percent) between 1998 and 2001. At the introduction of FPE in Kenya, the PTR increased from 1:34 in 2002 to 1:42 in 2005. Out of the seventy five districts, Migori is amongst the top 20 with the highest PTR. While in 2002, the PTR in the district was 1:36 in 2005 it was 1:49 (MOEST, 2005).

In Kenya studies by CRD (2005) indicated that the enrollment in absolute terms went up from 5,392,319 in F990 to 7,208,100 in 2003. The Economic Survey (2004) further indicated that the enrollment of girls as at 2003 stood at 48.6 percent to that of boys at 51.4 percent. The gender gap was in favour of boys. In 2005 according to the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST) statistics department, primary school GER steadily declined in the year 2000 to 2002 from 91.69 percent to 88.67 percent. However, at the implementation of FPE policy the GER of the school age population increased from 92 percent in 2002 to 104 percent in 2003. The implementation made children jam classrooms beyond capacity (East African Standard, January 11, 2003). CRD (2004) indicated that FPE did not impact uniformly in the schools by gender. Rift valley and North Eastern Provinces enrolled the highest percentage of girls at 55 percent as compared to 15 percent of the boys while Nyanza and Western registered 32 percent girls and 28 percent boys. The study concluded that it is difficult to identify contributory factors leading to high or low increase in enrollment in the different districts.

According to Sifuna (2003), there was a considerable fall in the repetition rate in most of the districts in Arid and Semi-Arid lands (ASAL) as a result of the FPE programme. In Narok the rate changed from 45.1 percent to 21.8 percent, in Marsabit

it shifted from 58.0 percent to 13.1 percent. In Wajir, the change was from 80.6 percent to 67.7percent.

According to MOEST (2005) data, there was a national fall on the repetition rate in 2003 following the introduction of FPE. In 1999, the rates stood at 13.5 percent for boys and 12.9 percent for girls, translating to a national average of 13.2 percent. In 2003, the repetition rate for boys was 10.1 percent and for the girls it was 9.4 percent translating to a national average of 9.8 percent. While this marked a significant drop in repetition rates in Migori district the rates still remained high. In 1999, they were 13.1 percent for boys and 12.9 percent for girls, an average of 13.0 percent. In 2003, the repetition rates for boys increased to 13.5 percent while for girls it declined to 11.9 percent, an average of 12.7 percent, well above the national average.

Out of the 75 districts in the country, Migori District, which covers Suba East Division, was one of the nine districts with a drop out rate of 8.0 percent and above in 1999. This was well above the national average of 4.9 percent. The boys' average in the nation was 5.0 percent while in Migori is was 7.3 percent. The girls' national average was 4.8 percent while in Migori it was 8.7 percent. This trend did not change much following the implementation of FPE. Migori district as at 2004 was one of the four districts including Meru South, Turkana and Ijara to still have a drop-out rate of 4.5 percent and above. This figure was above the national average of 2.0 percent. Boys in Migori District had an average drop-out rate of 4.3 percent against a national average of 2.1 percent while girls had an average of 4.6 percent against a national figure of 2.0 percent.

The above information can be summarized in table 1 and 2 that indicates the primary school repetition and drop out rates.

Table 1: Primary schools repetition and dropout rate by gender and province (1999 and 2003)

Province	Repetition rates				Dropout rates			
	1999		2003		1999		2003	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Coast	14.7	15.1	11.6	11.2	5.2	5.0	1.9	1.8
Central	11.6	10.5	6.8	6.2	3.1	2.6	1.0	0.8
Eastern	13.2	13.1	8.5	7.9	6.4	5.7	1.9	1.4
Nairobi	3.0	2.4	0.7	0.6	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.3
North Eastern	6.5	9.3	4.5	4.9	5.5	6.9	2.3	3.1
Nyanza	12.7	12.2	10.3	9.3	5.5	6.2	2.8	3.1
Rift Valley	15.6	14.9	11.0	10.0	4.9	4.7	2.3	2.2
Western	15.4	13.8	12.3	11.4	5.1	5.0	2.4	2.4
National totals	13.5	12.9	10.1	9.4	5.0	4.8	2.1	2.0

Source: MOEST (2005)

Table 2: Primary schools repetition and dropout rate in Nyanza Province, by gender and district (1999 and 2003).

District	Repetition rates				Dropout rates			
	1999		2003		1999		2003	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Gucha	18.7	18.2	5.8	5.4	5.5	6.6	2.1	2.2
Homa bay	15.8	14.8	12.9	9.4	9.8	11.7	2.9	3.5
Kisumu	5.5	5.3	12.0	12.3	3.2	3.5	3.2	4.2
Kisumu Mun.	13.5	12.3	5.9	5.3	6.2	5.9	1.9	1.8
Kisii	14.1	13.5	6.8	6.3	4.2	4.5	1.4	1.6
Kuria	13.5	14.2	14.0	13.0	5.5	6.0	3.4	3.2
Migori	13.1	12.9	13.5	11.9	7.3	8.7	4.3	4.6
Nyando	-	-	11.4	10.4	-	-	3.7	4.2
Nyamira	13.3	12.4	7.1	6.4	3.4	3.4	1.5	1.6
Rachuonyo	13.2	12.9	11.9	11.1	7.5	8.6	3.8	4.1
Suba	15.6	14.1	15.1	14.2	5.5	7.3	2.4	3.3
Bondo	9.4	9.1	13.3	12.1	8.7	10.2	3.1	3.8
District Total	12.7	12.2	10.3	9.3	5.5	6.2	2.8	3.1

Key: Mun - Municipality

Source: MOEST (2005)

In Migori District, the problem can be reflected by a comparison of the enrollment levels in standard one and eight as shown in table 3 and 4.

Table 3: A comparison of enrollment levels in Standard one and eight by divisions in Migori District (2001-2005)

YEAR	DIVISION									
	Awendo		Karungu		Muhuru		Nyatike		Suba - East	
	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8
2001	3329	1728	965	496	391	167	2326	848	3111	1328
2002	325	1825	958	578	442	197	2779	1059	3231	1519
2003	4421	2458	1564	778	632	260	3938	1433	4379	1937
2004	4103	2339	791	727	727	256	3618	1474	4244	1918
2005	3975	2407	832	733	733	357	3506	1580	6069	1872

YEAR	DIVISION					
	Suba –West		Uriri		Rongo	
	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8	Std. 1	Std. 8
2001	1745	580	3068	1340	3162	1403
2002	1989	650	3159	1406	3157	1663
2003	2921	823	5211	1698	4587	2082
2004	2948	832	4529	1891	3836	2119
2005	2890	863	4600	1761	4550	2666

Source: MOEST, Migori District (2005).

Table 4 compares the percentage of pupils enrolled in standard one and eight of the same years by division.

Table 4: Percentage decrease of pupils enrolled in standard eight to standard one in Migori district (2001-2005)

DIVISION	YEAR				
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Awendo	51.9	54.9	55.6	57.0	60.6
Karungu	51.4	60.3	49.7	51.3	56.2
Muhuru	42.7	44.6	41.3	35.2	48.7
Nyatike	36.5	38.1	36.4	40.7	45.0
Rongo	44.4	52.7	45.4	55.2	58.6
Suba-East	42.7	47.0	44.2	45.2	30.8
Suba-West	33.2	32.7	28.2	28.2	30.0
Uriri	43.7	44.5	32.6	41.8	38.3

Source: MOEST, Migori District (2005).

From the data in table 3 and 4, it can be deduced that the number of pupils enrolled in class one compares very poorly to those enrolled in class eight of the same year in Suba– East division. This is reflective of internal inefficiency and calls for a study to find out why pupils enrolled in standard one do not flow through to standard eight; given that the said division consists of a municipality and thus the population's earning is higher than the other divisions.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Raja and Buret (2004) stated that there is a serious absence of current literature examining the possible causes of internal inefficiency among countries that have not achieved Universal Primary Education. In part, this literature gap reflects the

considerable progress made in increasing primary enrollment around the world which made it a less pressing global issue. But it remains a high priority for developing countries. In most of these countries, Kenya included, a great majority of children attend the first years of primary school but drop out before completing fifth grade (EFA, Global Monitoring Report, 2005). To maintain a high enrollment rate therefore, the Kenyan Government increased its expenditure on education under the FPE programme thereby eliminating school fees. This policy option according to studies (Colcough, 2003; Filmer and Pritchett, 1999; Mingat and Tan, 1992) can neither assure nor guarantee high levels of efficiency, as there exists many other variables other than fees that do influence levels of efficiency. Consequently, it is not in order to assume that high expenditures under the FPE programme absolutely increased the rate of internal efficiency of public primary schools. This is clear from the MOEST (2005) data that still reveal high rates of repetition and dropout in some districts including Migori district and in extension Suba-East Division even after the implementation of FPE programme.

1.2 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the factors influencing Internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba East Division, in Migori district after the introduction of FPE programme.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

More specifically, the study aimed at: -

i) Determining the rates of dropout and repetition of Primary schools in Suba-East Division.

ii) Determining the factors that contribute to pupils dropping out from the primary schools in Suba East division,

iii) Determining the factors that contribute to pupils repeating classes in Primary schools in Suba-East division.

iv) Determining gender disparities in the dropout, repetition rates in Suba East Division.

v) Drawing policy recommendation for consideration towards ensuring high levels of internal efficiency of primary schools in Migori District.

1.4 Research Questions

The research questions focused on four main themes: -

i) What is the extent of dropout and repetition rates of primary schools in Suba East Division?

ii) What are the factors that contribute to pupils dropping out of school?

iii) What are the factors that contribute to pupils repeating grades in the primary school?

iv) What is the gender disparity in primary schools in Suba East Division?

v) What other policies can be implemented to improve the internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba-East Division?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study contributes to the body of knowledge on factors that influence internal efficiency at the primary level of education. One of the major aims of FPE was to attain the goal of EFA by reducing household expenditure in education consequently eliminating dropouts and repeaters from the primary school system. The

study addressed the policy challenges that still hinder the successful attainment of the goals.

In addition, the study findings and recommendation may help education administrators and educational agencies in Suba-East Division better understand factors that are preeminent in influencing levels of internal efficiency other than school fee. Specifically:

a) This study may guide administrators in allocating resources to the primary education sector to all those factors that impact on the internal efficiency of education.

b) To the educational agencies, the study may help them prioritize their intervention measures in efforts to improve the internal efficiency in primary schools.

1.6 Limitations

According to Republic of Kenya (1994), empirical evidence shows that majority of private schools have established high standards of quality education. Although they charge high fees, they have increased access to and participation in education, especially at primary school level. However, this study did not dwell on the contributions of private schools towards internal efficiency in schooling.

Non-formal education (NFE) has also made a substantial contribution towards enhancing access to primary education in the country. However the study focused on formal education owing to lack of consistent, reliable and comparable data and information on NFE at both national and regional levels.

The survey method that was used in the study does not have direct control of the variables being studied. It does not also reveal the strength of correlation between the variables.

1.7 Delimitations

The study covered only selected schools in one division, in one district in Kenya, majority of which are in rural areas, leaving many schools within the division and beyond. So the findings of the study can only be generated to other divisions and districts with caution.

1.8 Basic Assumptions of the Study

In the study, the following assumptions were held:

a) The amount of learning as measured by the number of schooling years is an indicator of internal efficiency.

b) Pupils who dropout or repeat classes do so because of certain specific factors peculiar to them.

1.9 Definition of Significant Terms

Division	Refers to an administrative unit.
Dropouts	Refers to those students who neither repeat a class nor are promoted to the next class and are no longer in the same school.
Gender disparity	Refers to the statistical measure of the quantitative gender gap

Gross enrollment Ratio	Refers to the ratio of the number of children enrolled at a given level whatever their age to the number in the age range officially corresponding to that level.
Internal efficiency	Refers to the amount of learning achieved during school age attendance, compared to the resources provided as measured by the percentage of entering students who complete the course.
Net enrollment ratio	Refers to enrolled children who belong to the official age range regardless of whether younger or older children are enrolled.
Primary school	Refers to the institution that offers the first eight grades of schooling excluding nursery school.
Repetition	Refers to those students who stay in the same grade they were in previously.
Teacher-pupil ratio	Refers to the ratio of the number of pupils in a school to the number of teachers in the same school.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one deals with the introduction of the whole study: Background, Statement of the problem, research

questions, purpose and significance of the study, objectives, limitations, delimitations, basic assumptions, definition of significant terms used in the study and organization of the study. Chapter two presents the literature review of the publications and relevance of the study. Chapter three consists of a detailed description of research methodology, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instruments, validity and reliability, data collection and analysis techniques. Chapter four deals with data presentation, analysis and discussion, and interpretation of Research findings of the study. Chapter five provides a summary of the research findings, makes conclusions and recommendations and offers suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is organized into six subtopics. These include the scope of internal efficiency, school based factors that influence internal efficiency, home and community based factors that influence internal efficiency, individual factors influencing internal efficiency, summary of the literature review and finally a conceptual framework of the study.

2.1 The Scope of Internal Efficiency

The term efficiency refers to a comparison of inputs and their related outputs. A more efficient system obtains more out put for a given set of resource inputs or achieves comparable levels of output for fewer inputs, other things being equal (Hanushek, 1986;Pogrow, 1983;Rosmiller and Geske, 1976,) "internal Efficiency" of education therefore, refers to a comparison of learning (a non- monetary outcome of education) to the costs of educational inputs (Lockheed and Hanushek, 1994) .It can be inferred that internal efficiency of education addresses the question of how funds within the educational sector should be best allocated. It is concerned with obtaining the greatest educational output for any given level of spending. Economists have simple conceptual rule to determine how resources should be allocated among alternative educational activities: The improvement in educational performance that results from the last amount of funds spent on an educational activity should be equal across each possible activity. That is to say that, in order to maximize output subject to a budget constraint, it is necessary that the marginal product of the last dollar spent be the same for all inputs .The policy prescription which emerges from this condition

is to estimate the marginal products of all inputs, determine their relative prices and equate the ratios of marginal product to price over all inputs (Leigh and John, 1975). For example, consider a school that is deciding between buying new workbooks for students and hiring a part-time teacher to tutor individual students. Clearly, the school should spend the funds on the one that increases performance the most ------- say workbooks in this example .In fact it should continue spending money on workbooks until the educational value of the two choices is the same (after the initial purchase of workbooks, the value of added workbooks is probably lessened so that at some level of spending the appropriate decision is to purchase a tutor instead of more workbooks). Internal efficiency is also sometimes referred to as "allocative efficiency" or "Price efficiency" (Levin, 1976).

The best tool for analyzing internal efficiency is the production function. According to Hexem and Heady (1978), the production function represents a mathematical formulation expressing the relationship between inputs and outputs .It also indicates the maximum amount of product obtainable from a specified quantity of inputs given the existing technology governing the input-out put relationship. Omari(1987) stated that inputs into the education sector are wide and varied .This is because it is not only restricted to only those inputs which can be expressed as physical quantities or in monetary terms but also the complex interactions of students and teachers as elements of inputs (even though this is best expressed as processes). Abagi and Odipo (1997) stated that inputs include textbooks, teachers, money and school physical resources. Psacharopaulos (1985) while including the number of pupil-years as an input further stated that outputs are often measured in purely quantitative terms such as the number of graduates or qualified school leavers produced in the education system. Lockheed and Hanushek (1994) and warren and

stocks (1985) agreed with this and further stated that the most common "output" measure used in research in developing countries is counts of students; enrollment rates by ages, grades or level of schooling; continuation rates and dropout rates at specific ages or grades; and repetition or completion rates by grade or level. Each measures some aspect of the flow of students through the school. Though, not all "improvements" in quantity mark "educational" improvement, since some might not be warranted if learning declines as a result .For example, repetition rates in primary grades can be changed by direct government policy. Yet lowering repetition rates in a mechanical way might reduce the amount students learn. The popularity of quantitative measures is clearly related to their availability not their conceptual desirability.

The input –output analysis as used in the concept of internal efficiency is widely recognized as a highly important tool of economic analysis (Ikiara, 1981) .It provides concise and adequately detailed data on all economic activities by tracking down the flow of inputs and out puts. In their study on education production function, Leigh and John (1975) gave an example of the most commonly used form as,

$A_{it}=g(f_{i(t)},S_{i(t)},P_{i(t)},O_{i(t)},I_{,i(t)},u)$.

Where the i subscript refers to the i^{th}student; the t subscript in parenthesis (t) refers to an input that is cumulative over time.

$F_{i(t)}$ -A vector of an individual and family background characteristics cumulate to time(t).

$S_{i(t)}$ -A vector of school inputs relevant to the ith student cumulative to (t)

$P_{i(t)}$ -A vector of peer or fellow student characteristics cumulative to (t).

$O_{i(t)}$. A vector of other external influences (the community for example) relevant to the i(th) student cumulative to (t) .

$I_{I(t)}$ -A vector of initial or innate endowment of the I(th) student at time t.

U - Error item.

The first two inputs; vector of an individual and family background characteristics cumulative to time (t), and a vector of school inputs relevant to the i (th) Student cumulative to time (t) translates to costs.

Hallack (1969) noted that in assessing the total real costs of education, the actual expenditure should be added to the opportunity cost for domestic (households) and government transactors. According to Reche (1982), costs influence internal efficiency in two ways; first through effects of costs and returns to education on the individual and household incentives, and, secondly, through effects of income or the ability of the government and sponsors to afford the necessary educational expenditures. On the basis of studies done in the United States, Psacharapoulos (1985) suggested that family background and socioeconomic factors are more important determinants of internal efficiency than school variables such as teacher qualification or expenditure on books that is mainly funded by the government. Pall and Glewwe (1980) supported the point by testing cross-country econometric models relating education efficiency to public expenditure and other supply - side and demand – side variables. They indicted that factors other than public expenditure have significant Co-efficient and explain a high proportion of the variance in output. They concluded that these factors comprised the price elasticity of demand for primary education that directly influences levels of internal efficiency.

2.2 Home and Community Based Factors Influencing Internal Efficiency

Abagi and Odipo (1997) and Bwonda and Njeru (2004), Indicated some of the household factors that influence internal efficiency to include; household attitudes,

opportunity costs, gender issues and socialization and religious factors. According to a survey conducted by Pradhan and Singh (2000) in rural India, the major reasons for non – enrollments are unconstrained demand (interest – related factors being 51 percent) and constrained demand (economic factors accounting for 39 percent). This establishes that demand reasons, and more so the interest – related factors such as parents perception of economic opportunities for children and quality of education, are more important than other reasons for explaining dropouts. This finding supported an earlier study by Chernichovsky and Oey (1985) who argued that households' ability and willingness to pay for education determine enrollment levels in schools. They further indicated that there is a considerable variation in school enrollment rates by region (urban – rural), level of educational attainment of the parents, occupation of the father and level of household per capita consumption expenditure. They therefore concluded that economic reasons are the more significant reasons for not attending schools all other things being equal.

The perception of parents on returns to education is a determinant of enrolling their children to a school. A household will choose to invest in education if the anticipated future benefits (discounted) exceed the estimated costs, subject to any constraints the household may face (Psacharopoulos and woodhall, 1985; Schultz, 1988). This may explain the low interest in acquiring education because overtime the rate of return to primary education may have collapsed in many countries (Kingdon, 1999). According to Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2002) the average rate of return to another year of schooling is 10 percent and increases with the level of education especially in Sub – Saharan region, Latin America and the Caribbean region. In studies, the proxy "lack of interest" encapsulates this perception on returns to education and it is significantly determined by wage rates (Pradhan and Roy, 2003).

The cost of education greatly influences the attractiveness of investing and participating in schooling (Mason and Rozelle 1998). These costs include both direct costs (e.g. school fees and contributions, school supplies, uniforms, transportation, and so on) and indirect costs (e.g. the opportunity costs of children's time). The opportunity costs of a child's time represent the value of foregone earnings and home production associated with a child's being in, or traveling to and from school. This opportunity cost is a function not only of the hours a child spends in traveling to and from school, but also of the labour market and the nature of home production (Mason and Rozelle 1998). Using correlation analysis to determine the degree of association among variables that determine the quality of children in a household (An application of Becker's quantity –quality trade off model) in rural Nyeri, Gichuhi (1995) indicated that there is a negative relationship between distance to the nearest school and child quality. As the distance to the nearest school decreases, the quality of children increases. Regression results indicated the distance to show a positive but statistically insignificant association to quality as most schools in Nyeri are nearby. Mueller (1983) suggested that rising incomes fosters a sense of economic independence from children and raises the education aspirations of parents as well as the perceived costs of raising children. As income changes, parent's tastes change in favour of educated children. Gichuhi (1995) further indicated an insignificant effect of mother's education but significant effect of a mother's age on the quality of children. She explains that this may be due to the realization of the benefits of educating children and also fewer needs in old age.

Even though the co-efficient on birth order is positive and significant in Ghana (Glewwe and Jacoby, 1991a; 1991b), much of the empirical literatures on human capital indicate that parents favour first-born over later-born children when investing

in education (King and Lillard, 1983; Alba, 1992). Chernichovsky (1981) stated that the marginal productivity of labour in the household falls with an increase in the number of children. Some children will therefore be sent to school while others will be assigned duties at home in large families.

Pradhan and Singh (2004) indicated that in rural India where religion and customs abound, custom and health related factors account for only 4 percent of primary school dropouts. Most studies done in Kenya indicated that most schools lose about three and seven pupils between classes seven and eight with girls dropping out more than boys. At this level unwanted pregnancy, abuse of drugs and peer pressure are some of the contributing factors (Wanjohi, 2002; Bwonda and Njeru, 2005; Livondi, 1992)

2.3 School Based Factors Influencing Levels of Internal Efficiency

The school-based factors represent the supply side factors that determine internal efficiency. In most instances it is the responsibility of the governments to ensure that quality is maintained in the school through the provision of qualified teachers, textbooks, desks, appropriate curriculum and sound policies. The quality of the school mainly affects the performance (achievement in classroom) of the child which in turn determines whether a child is promoted to the next class or not (Warren and Stocks, 1988). In 1974, Levy demonstrated that the only educational variable significantly related to drop out rate was the average rate of repetition. Proportionally the higher the repetition rates, the higher the dropout rates. According to EFA, Global Monitoring Report (2005), grade repetition, although difficult to interpret, is a proportion of children who do not master the curriculum (because school quality was insufficient). It further stated that, a high level of grade repetition is a sign of

dysfunctional school system often exacerbating dropout and resulting in overcrowded schools. Warren and stocks (1985) observed that overly rigid or poorly designed promotion policies, especially in the lowest grades, may be keeping children in a grade for too long. A study done in Senegal, where 14 percent of primary school pupils repeat grades found that repeating a grade at an early stage increased the risk of dropping out the following year by 11 percent (EFA, Global Monitoring Report, 2005). CRD (2004) indicated that generally the FPE has had an impact on repetition rate even though there is difficulty of collecting data on repetition as it is against most governments' policy. Nzomo, Kariuki, and Guantai (2001) indicated that grade one normally recorded the highest repetition rate (17.22 percent) followed by grade seven (16.96 percent) while standard eight recorded the lowest repetition rate (4.14 percent).

According to International Bureau of Education – IBE (1971), factors such as inappropriate curriculum and examination, badly trained teachers and lack of textbooks were some of the major determinants of repetition. In addition, Haddad (1979) indicated that overcrowded classes, lack of preparatory year, absence from school (for 14 days to 2 months), too may changes of teachers from one school to another, all contributed to repetition.

Husen, Sana, and Noonan, (1978) in a study on the relationship between the quality and training of teachers, indicated that the teachers' qualification, experience and amount of education and knowledge are positively related to student achievement. This argument is supported by Pal and Pant (1995) who carried out a study in rural India (Tamil Nadu and Bihar). They indicated that Tamil Nadu, with a higher percentage of "trained matriculate and above" teachers (51 percent) had a less repetition rate than that of Bihar with only 31 percent of "trained matriculate and

ɔove" teachers. But Thias and Carnoy (1972) contrasted this finding by indicating at in the primary schools, formal qualifications of the teaching force and the teacher ɹpil ratio respectively, had no impact on examination performance.

Even though repeaters do account for bigger class Sizes, Warren and Stocks 985) argue that achievement does not necessarily drop unless the size of a class is ıcreased to a point of overcrowding. That is to say that a smaller class does not ecessarily improve educational ability. Madden (1968) and Flinker (1972) also ıdicated that the decrease or increase in class size does not signify a change in the ɛvel of academic achievement. The recommended TPR in a class though, should be 0:1 (Abagi and Odipo, 1997). Sometimes the cost of small class sizes is inescapable ecause of an area's low population of school goers. When there is an increase in lass size (pupil-teacher ratio) say from 35 to 40, there will be a saving enabling the chool spend an amount equal to the saving on learning materials (Vandermoortele 997). A decrease in class size therefore implies additional cost in terms of classroom eachers, equipment, materials and administrative services (Wadi, 1978)

As compared to variables such as class size and teaching qualifications, there s a more consistent relationship between pupil achievement and the availability of ɔooks (Heyneman, Joseph, and Manuel 1978). If low achievement levels cause ɛepetition, it's therefore to be expected that textbooks will enhance achievement and therefore reduce repetition. Heyneman (1978) indicated that those children whose parents had no education had a two-thirds chance of receiving a passing grade if they owned two books but only a one fourth chance if they owned no book. Furthermore, those children whose parents had finished primary school had a 72 percent chance with two books but only 60 percent chance of passing with no book. According to Wolff (1970) the effectiveness of books is stronger if a pupil's parent had no

schooling. Heyneman (1971) stated that the cost effective ratio of 1:3 for lower classes primary and 1:2 for the upper class primary is the ideal.

Schiefelbin (1975) observed that repetition rates imply extra matching rate of expenditure. The high rates of repetition mean that the average number of years required to produce one primary school completer is not eight years as in the normal primary cycle but nine or ten years. As a result the final costs saved from reduced repetition and dropout depend on the cost of remedial measures taken to reduce wastage.

2.4 Individual Factors Influencing Internal Efficiency

Leigh (1970) assigned a vector of initial or innate endowment of the student as an input that affects a pupil's educational achievement. Rowe and Rowe (2002) in their study of what matters most in the educational experiences and outcomes for girls and boys throughout primary school indicated that boys are more likely to drop out of schooling prematurely. They are also significantly more 'disengaged' with schooling and more likely to be at 'risk' of academic underachievement. According to Buckingham (2000) and Toppin (1999), boys are subject to more disciplinary actions during schooling (including bullying behaviours and expulsions). They are also more likely to participate in subsequent delinquent behaviours, alcohol and substance abuse.

Late enrollment means children would be completing their primary education at an age when constraints on school participation become stronger than during childhood. More opportunities or pressure to work or get married and more limitations on girls' mobility may reduce the probability of completing primary

school. Moreover, late mastery of basic cognitive skills provides weaker foundation for further learning (EFA, Global Monitoring Report, 2005)

According to Bwonda and Njeru (2005) and Wanjohi (2002), pregnancy is a major cause of school dropout and repetition. They point out that teenage pregnancy by school going girls are on the increase and attribute this to ignorance about their body maturation and fertility. Mbulwa (1991) stated that, pupils who had not yet decided as to what they wanted to do probably imply low aspirations or lack of confidence in them. This could be due to pupils' poor academic performance, which translates into multiple repetitions.

2.5 Summary of the Literature Review

The effectiveness of education in helping to reduce poverty depends on the poor obtaining sufficient levels of quality education to compete in labour or product markets. Obtaining such education depends both on the availability of adequate educational facilities and on the will and financial ability of families to lend their children to school.

Informed policy making requires information about the effect on educational outcomes of adding (or subtracting) every possible educational input (that is, knowing the internal effectiveness of all resources). These informational requirements are obviously very large and such information can come from many sources. The literature review has expounded on some of the research and observations so as to provide a complete picture of the influences on internal efficiency. It has analyzed the three broad categories of inputs that influence internal efficiency of primary schools: school based factors, home and community based factors and individual factors (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994). It has also identified the variables associated with

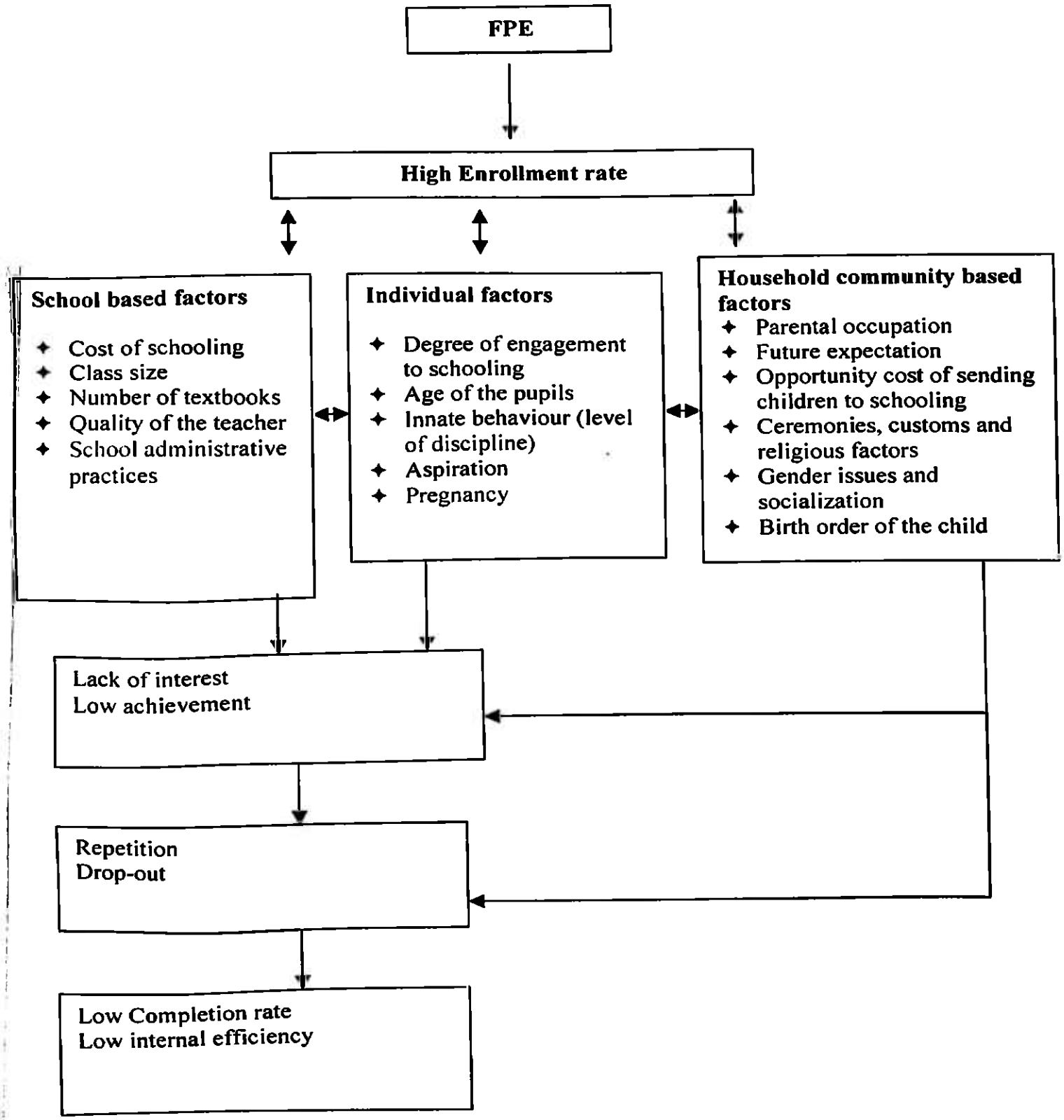
these factors and how they benefit, impose costs and relive constraints on schooling decisions. In summary the literature review fills the gap in the knowledge of factors influencing internal efficiency of primary schools under FPE policy.

2.6 Conceptual Framework Of The Study

This study is driven by the need to find out the factors that have continued to influence the quantitative outcomes (outputs) derived from the quantitative inputs of the Kenya education system under the FPE policy. Quantitative inputs refer to the number of students enrolling in primary schools. These inputs undergo a process and at the end the output (the number of primary graduates) is produced. Those who dropout and repeat classes therefore denote internal inefficiency and they are an indication of the level of output. Dropouts would denote the direct loss of inputs, while repetition is a signal of greater costs to the system (also qualitative efficiency). It has been argued in the literature review that the internal qualitative efficiency (repetition) strongly and positively correlates to quantitative efficiency (drop-out). Quite too often, there are factors that will determine whether pupils complete primary schooling or not. These factors were quite prevalent before 2002. The government therefore decided to commit itself to the provision of FPE. It was believed that this would improve or even eliminate the problem of dropout and repetition. Much of the expenditure was geared towards improving the quality of the primary schools (supply side expenditure). But the literature review reveals that demand side factors have a stronger influence in the decision to participate in school or not by children and their households. Inchauste (2000) argues that government spending on education has to be accompanied by other programmes that address non-monetary constraints individuals face in the decision to attend school.

Despite the provision of FPE, Migori District still exhibits high rates of drop-out and repetition. Lockhead and Hanushek (1994) argued that insufficient information upon which to base policies may result in very large inefficiency. The rationale of the study is therefore to study the factors that have continued to influence the levels of internal efficiency (as revealed by drop-out and repetition rates) under the free primary education policy. This explanation is summarized in figure 1, that is, the conceptual framework for the study.

Fig 1: Conceptual framework on the relationship between variables



Adapted from Abagi and Odipo (1997)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.

3.0 Introduction

This chapter details the research methodology and areas where the data was collected under the following headings: Research design, target population, sample size and sampling techniques, research instruments, instrument validity, instrument reliability, data collection procedures and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The appropriate design for this study on factors influencing the internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba East Division under the FPE policy was the descriptive survey design. According to Best (1970) and Cohen and Manion (1980), surveys can be defined as systematic descriptions of the facts and characteristics of a given population accurately and objectively. A survey can be extensive and cross-sectional, dealing with a relatively large number of cases at a particular time (Best 1970). It can be used to:

a) Describe the nature of existing conditions
b) Determine the relationship that exists between a specific event that has influenced or affected a present condition.

Therefore, the rationale of choosing this design for this study was;

(i) It can be carried out within a short time frame, as it is cross- sectional.

(ii) It does not manipulate the behavior of the participants that can lead to ethical questions.

(iii) It can be made to vary in complexity and scope.

(iv) It can allow for a variety of data gathering techniques.

3.2 Target Population

The study targeted all primary school pupils in Suba-East Division who repeat grades and dropout of school in 2005 and 2006. The accessible population were those pupils who had repeated grade four and above and those pupils who dropped from grade four and above. Suba-East had a total of 55 primary schools. It had a total of 27, 630 pupils of whom 13,055 were boys and 14,375 were girls. The total number of teachers was 599 of whom 304 were men and 295 were females. The division is divided into three zones: Migori, Anjego and God-Jope zones. With 55 schools the division had 723 streams.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

Stratified sampling was used to separate the division into two: The municipality region and rural region. By convenient sampling, two schools out of the five in the Municipal region were chosen to participate in the study by taking into consideration the relevant but unique characteristics of their population.

This therefore left a total of 50 primary schools in the rural zones. A cluster random sample was used to select 25 schools out of the possible 50 primary schools. This was approximately 50 percent of the population was deemed to be fairly representative of the target and accessible population. It would also decrease the sampling error (Standard Error of Mean) given by:

$$SE_m = SD_{pp} / N$$

Where SD_{pp} - Standard deviation of the population.

N - the number in the sample.

The SE_m depends upon variability [i.e. heterogeneity] in the population as measured by SD_{pp} and sample size (N). The larger the N, the smaller the sampling error. Cluster sampling was used because it eased administrative restrictions and other restrictions such as. time and effort that may have been met in carrying out random sampling to a very large population of individuals. The cluster schools were selected from a table of random numbers using the following procedure adapted from Fraenkel and Wallen (2000): -

a) The schools in the division were arranged alphabetically and then assigned numbers
b) Using a table of random numbers, the first two digits on the left with a lesser sum than 50 was used to select the first 25 schools.
c) The picking begun from the first number in the first column going downward.

(For the table of random numbers see appendix E)

After selecting the participating primary schools, individual boys and girls who are repeaters were conveniently sampled from the participating schools. They were identified by their headteachers. The pupils were in or above grade four – an age when they were considered able to effectively participate in a group discussion. Also, all the head teachers of the selected primary schools participated in the study. Due to the difficulty of tracing school dropouts, a convenient sample of primary school dropouts was selected from the three zones. They were identified through the administrative chiefs in each zone. The sample targeted a minimum of twelve dropouts in each zone. This will gave a total of thirty-six dropout participants.

In summary one hundred and eleven individuals were targeted to participate in the survey.

3.4 Research Instruments

The following instruments were used in the research

a) Questionnaire

b) Focus group discussion.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used to elicit responses from the head teachers. It sought to find out the school-based variables that influence internal efficiency. The questionnaire included multiple choice, true false matching questions, essay questions and items on likert scale. The closed items of the questionnaire were pre-coded while the open items were post coded. The questionnaire contained questions on the background of the headteachers, the pedagogical qualification of teachers in the participating schools, the school's population, school resources, cost of schooling in the participating school and the participating schools' administrative practices. (See appendix B for a detailed questionnaire.)

Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

According to Anderson and Arsenault (1998), a focus group is a carefully planned and moderated informal discussion where one person's ideas bounce off another's creating a chain reaction of informative dialogue. It is used to address a specific topic, in-depth, in a comfortable environment to illicit a wide range of opinions, attitudes, feelings or perceptions from a group of individuals who share some common experience relative to the dimension under study. The moderator introduced relevant questions, provided probes, pauses and involved people in discussion without expressing any value on the answers received. There were two

categories of group discussions. Those that involved dropouts and those that involved repeaters. The repeaters were divided by gender to encourage candid discussion. (For details of Focus Group Discussion Protocols, See appendix C and D)

3.4.1 Validity of the Instruments

The content validity of the instruments was ascertained by construct validity as follows: -

(i) Definition of what was to be measured was written on a separate sheet of paper and given along with the questionnaire and the guides plus a description of the intended sample population to the supervisor.

(ii) The supervisor looked at the research questions, read over the items in the instruments, then placed a check mark in front of each item that did not measure one or more of the objectives.

(iii) The supervisor also placed a mark on each of the objective not assessed by any of the item.

(iv) In addition, the supervisor also evaluated the appropriateness of the questionnaire format.

Any item so checked was to be rewritten and resubmitted to the expert until it was indicated that the total number of items was an adequate representation of the total domain of content covered by the variable being researched (Adapted from Fraenkel and Wallen, 2000).

3.4.2 Instruments Reliability

By random sampling, five of the head teachers participating in the study were given parallel forms (questionnaires) with different specific questions on the same

content to ascertain the reliability of their answers. Probing the focus groups participants and asking the same question in different ways confirmed reliability of the discussion.

3.5 Data Collection

Authority to conduct the study in primary schools and zones was obtained from the MOEST. The researcher reported to the District Commissioner and District Education Officer, Migori District for clearance. A pilot study preceded the main one. The researcher then visited the selected schools and distributed the questionnaires to the head teachers personally. Direct contact with the head teachers allowed the researcher to give instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and assure the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses. Permission to hold focus group discussion with the dropout was sought from the Division officer and done at the chief's camp. While that with the repeaters was sought from the Assistant Education officer in charge of the zone and done at the zonal (headquarters) offices. A tape recorder was used to record the discussion for later analysis.

As the discussions were going on, the investigator (moderator) took copious notes of the discussion and documented any relevant observations, which could enhance or contribute to the analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

The data received from the questionnaire was edited for completeness and accuracy. The open-ended items on the questionnaire were post coded. Data was then descriptively analyzed thematically along the research questions. For the FGD, there was a preliminary data analysis as soon as possible after the group session concluded.

A post session analysis was done to merge, consolidate, organize and interpret data from the multiple focus group discussions. Data processing was done using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) programme. A thick description of the data was given. Data was then presented using histograms, tables and pie charts.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to analyze data and present the results of the study. The chapter has been discussed under two sections and answers the research questions thematically. The first section presents the demographic information of the head-teachers and teachers from the sampled primary schools in Suba- East division.

The second section indepthly discusses the various research questions and further finds out if there is a correlation between some of the variables under study by use of statistical tests.

4.1 Questionnaire Return Rate

Only one main questionnaire was used to collect data. This was administered to 30 schools though five of which were for piloting. So in the actual study 25 schools were used where 25 headteachers filled and returned the questionnaires. This translated to 100 percent questionnaire return rate.

4.2 Focus Group Discussion Participation rate

The other instrument that was used to collect data was the focus group discussion protocol. The focus group discussion initially targeted at least 36 school repeaters and 36 school dropouts. In the actual study 70 repeaters held a discussion in six groups of 12 individuals each while 36 dropouts held a discussion in three groups also composed of twelve individuals. Thus the study surpassed its target of 72

participants in the focus group discussions by 34 individuals, translating to 47 percent above the targeted number.

4.3 Challenges of the Study

In some cases the randomly selected schools were extremely remote and the researcher could not access them due to bad roads, poor weather conditions at the time of carrying out the research and high expenditure. These schools were therefore left out of the study and replaced by a conveniently selected sample of schools that the researcher could administratively and logistically access easily. Consequently, the sample size was still maintained.

4.4 Demographic Information

This contains a summary of information concerning gender and years of experience of both the head-teachers and teachers in the selected sample schools in the division. It also included information concerning the teacher's qualification and grades. This was important, as the variables would later on be statistically analyzed for correlation with other variables.

The table below shows the distribution of head-teachers in the selected schools in Suba-East division by their gender.

Table 5: Gender of primary school headteachers in selected primary schools in Suba- East division.

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	24	94
Female	1	06
Total	25	100

The data revealed a very high significant difference in the gender of the male head-teachers to female head-teachers. Male head-teachers translated to 94 percent while female head-teachers were only 6 percent, a difference of 88 percent.

Table 6: Gender of primary school teachers in selected schools in Suba-East division

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	89	45.9
Female	105	54.1
Total	194	100

Majority of the teachers were females whose frequency was 54.1 percent while males were 45.9 percent.

Table 7: Headteachers years of administrative experience in selected primary schools in Suba-East division

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	8	32
6-10	11	44
11-15	3	12
16-20	3	12
Total	25	100

The study found out that those head-teachers with between 6-10 years of experience were of the highest percentage at 44 percent followed by those with 1-5 years of

experiences at 32 percent. Only a few had over ten years of experience. Those with 11-15 years had a frequency of 3 translating to 12 percent and those with 16-20 years also formed 12 percent. None had over 20 years of experience as a headteacher.

The next table (8) shows the distribution of the teachers in Suba-East division by years of experience.

Table 8: Distribution of teachers by years of experience in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	27	13-9
6-10	19	9.8
11-15	58	29.9
16-20	48	24.7
20 and above	42	21.7
Total	194	100

The study revealed that the highest frequency of years of experience is 58 that correspond to the age group of 11-15 years translating to a percentage of 29.9. The 16-20 years age group follows this with a frequency of 48 forming 24.7 percent. Those teachers who have 20 years and above experience are 21.7 percent, while those with between 1-5 years of experience form 13.9 percent. The least population of teachers are the ones with 6-10 years of experience who are 9.8 percent. Probably this is because of the freeze on employment of teachers by the government some years back.

Table 9: Teachers grades in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Grade	Frequency	Percentage
U.T	8	4.1
P2	11	5.7
P1	124	63.9
ATS 4	39	20.1
ATS 3	1	0.5
ATS 2	-	-
ATS 1	7	3.6
S1	2	1.0
B.ED	2	1.1
Total	194	100

The study found out that the majority of the teachers in the division are P1's who are 63.9 percent. Together with the ATS 4 who forms 20.1 percent, they make 84 percent of the teaching force. This means that the remaining 16 percent of the teachers with the other grades have almost insignificant frequencies with UT's forming 4.1 percent, P2's 5.7 percent, ATS1 3.6 percent S.1 and B.Ed at 1.0 and 1.1 percent respectively and ATS 3 only 0.5 percent. The significant majority are therefore PI and ATS 4.

Of the 194 teachers in the selected schools, only 28 percent had any form of additional training. The indicated training attended included.

i. Special needs education

ii. Guidance and counseling courses

iii. Primary school management

iv. Key resource teacher

v. In service

vi. School based teacher development

vii. HIV/AIDS related courses

viii. Financial management

ix. CFBT

x. Primary training for better health.

4.5 Data Analysis

4.5.1 Question 1: What are the levels of dropout and repetition rates of primary schools in Suba-East division?

Table 10 shows the enrollment by grade in the year 2006 and 2005 of selected primary schools in Suba-East division. It also has the number of pupils repeating by grade in the year 2006 that is important for the computation of dropout rate for the year 2006 in the selected primary schools.

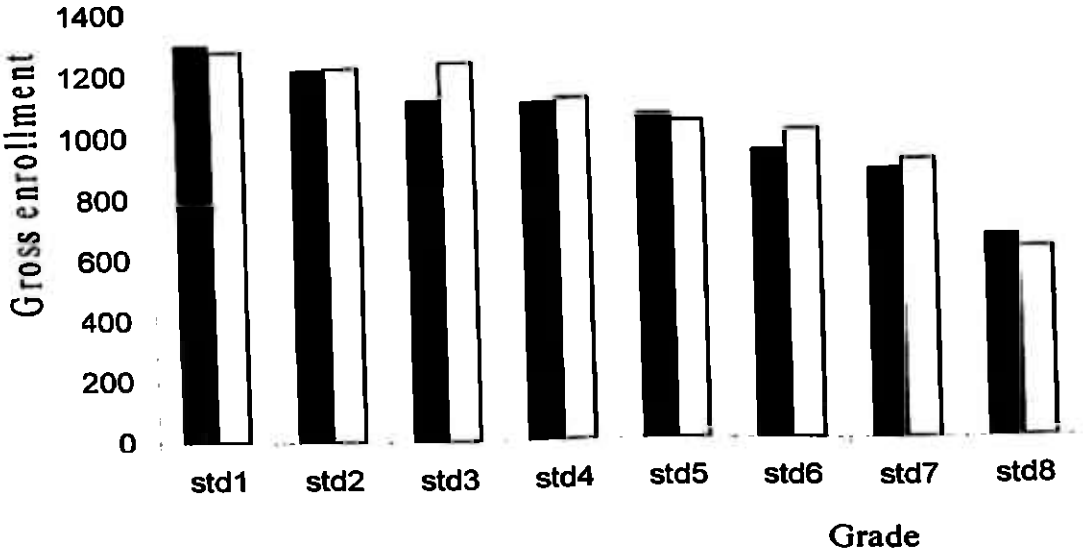
Table 10: Pupil gross enrollment in 2005 and 2006 and pupil repetition in 2006 by grade in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
Year 2005 Total enrollment	1300	1212	1109	1104	1070	945	873	657
Year 2006 Total enrollment	1279	1222	1235	1121	1046	1009	905	613
Year 2006 No of repeaters	121	96	105	126	107	111	147	75

The above table reveals a high enrollment of 1300 and 1279 in standard one in both 2005 and 2006 respectively. This enrollment reduces across the grades to 657 and 613 respectively in standard 8. It also reveals that whereas repetition in the year 2006 was highest in standard 7 and 6 with 147 and 126 pupils repeating respectively, it was lowest in standard 8 with only 75 pupils repeating followed by standard 2 with 96 pupils repeating.

The gross enrollment in the two years is represented in figure 2:

Figure 2: Gross enrollment by grade in 2005 and 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba - East division.



Key: ■ **2005**

□ **2006**

Table 11 shows the dropout rate by grade of selected primary schools in Suba – East division

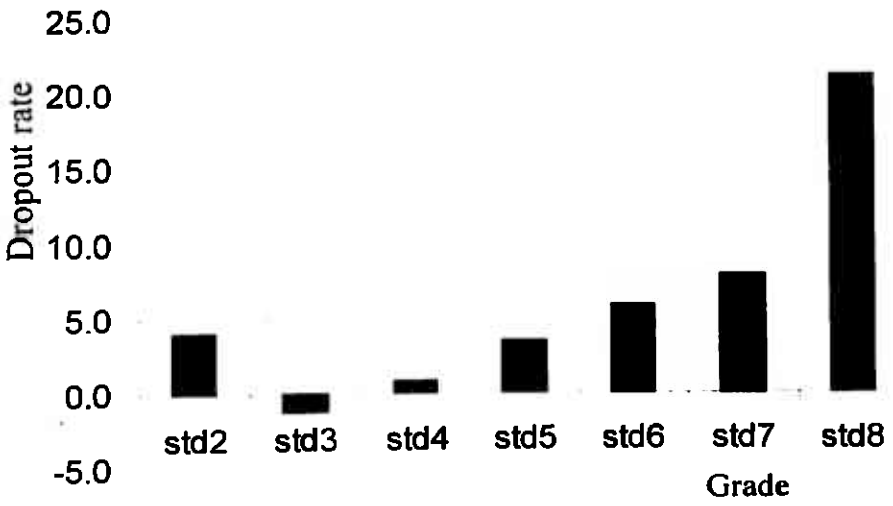
Table 11: Dropout rates by grade of selected primary schools in Suba-East division in 2006

	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
Drop-out rate	4.0	-1.2	0.8	3.5	6.0	8.0	21.5

The overall dropout rate translates to an average of 6.08 percent.

Figure 3 shows the dropout rate by grade of selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Figure 3: Dropout rates by grade of selected primary schools in Suba – East division.



Key: ■ Dropout rate

Table 11 and figure 3 reveals that the highest dropout rate is experienced in standard 8 and the other upper classes, standard 7, 6 and 5 respectively. Probably this could be because of the rising opportunity costs of attending school and the other social pressures e.g early marriages and pear pressure that is attendant with age. In standard 3 there is a negative dropout rate, which is significant as it shows successful intervention measures that attract out of school children into school.

According to Kingdon (1999), the low interest in acquiring education may be explained by the collapse of the rate of return to primary education, overtime, in many countries. If the high repetition rate at 13.18 percent in the division is factored, then the finding is consistent with levy's (1974) demonstration that the higher the repetition rates the higher the drop out rates.

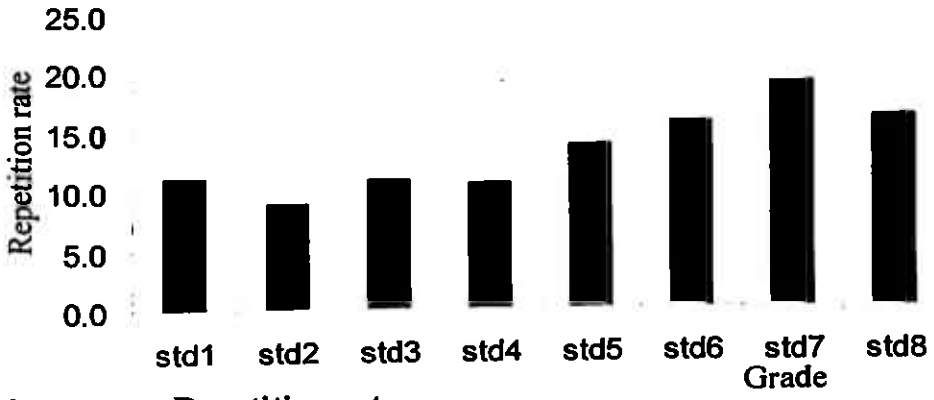
Table 12: Repetition rate by grade of selected primary schools in Suba-East division in 2006.

	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
Percentage repetition rates	11.0	8.7	10.7	10.4	13.7	15.6	19.1	16.2

The study revealed an overall average repetition rate of 13.18 percent

Figure 4 shows repetition rates by grade of selected primary schools in Suba – East division.

Figure 4: Repetition rates by grade of selected primary schools in Suba-East division.



Key: ■ Repetition rate

Table 12 and figure 4 reveal a very high rate of repetition, 19.1 percent in standard seven. The upper classes all have this trend of high rates of repetition with standard 8 following closely with 16.2 percent, standard six 15.6 percent and standard 5 with 13.7 percent. It is notable that standard 1 also has a high repetition rate of 11.0 percent. This is probably because many children begin schooling at an early age than recommended because of free primary education.

According to EFA, Global Monitoring Report (2005), high rates of repetition may denote that children are completing their primary education at an age when constraints on school participation become stronger than during childhood. Moreover, the late mastery of basic cognitive skills provides a weaker foundation for further learning.

4.5.2 Question 2: What are the factors that contribute to pupils repeating classes?

When asked this question on the open-ended item of the questionnaire the head-teachers cited the following reasons why pupils repeat classes;

- Absenteeism.
- Child labour hence lack of time to do work.
- Low quality of learning in the foundational classes.
- Failure to achieve the school's promotional mark.
- Inadequate staffing.
- Truancy and indiscipline.
- Poverty that causes lack of food hence poor concentration.
- Poor parental attitude towards learning.
- Lack of resources.
- Low age of beginning school.
- Transfer of pupils from one school to another.

4.5.2.1 School based factors

Below are tables showing the perception of the headteachers on the closed items of the questionnaire on some of the factors that cause repetition. The questions

were on a five point likert scale ranging from absolutely true (1) to absolutely false (5).

Table 13: Headteachers perception on whether repeaters are careless and indifferent to work.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Absolutely true	6	8.0
Probably true	6	24.0
In doubt	2	8.0
Partly false	12	48
Absolutely false	3	12
Total	25	100

The study found out that majority of the head-teachers, 48 percent did not think that repeaters are careless and indifferent to work while 24 percent considered this to be probably true. On the whole, those who answered on the lower end of the likert scale were the majority with 60 percent disagreeing while on the upper end it was 32 percent agreeing that repeaters are careless and indifferent to their work.

Table 14: Headteachers perception on whether repeaters have poor school study habits than the rest of the pupils in selected primaries in Suba – East division.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Absolutely true	6	24
Probably true	7	28
In doubt	2	8
Partly false	8	32
Absolutely false	2	8
Total	25	100

The study revealed the head-teachers perception to be almost equally divided on whether repeaters have poor school study habits than the rest of the pupils. 40 percent were on the lower end of the likert, saying this is false while 52 percent agreed. It is significant that 8 percent were in doubt.

Table 15: Headteachers perception on whether primary schools have too high standards of promotion in selected schools in Suba – East division.

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Absolutely true	7	28.0
Probably true	12	8.0
In doubt	2	8.0
Partly false	12	28.0
Absolutely	7	28.0
Total	25	100

The study found out that 56 percent of the head-teachers did not think that schools have high standards of promotion. On the other hand 36 percent perceived the standards of promotion to be too high. This is probably because they are the policy makers who set the standards by which pupils are promoted to the next class.

The table (16) below indicates the responses of the repeaters as to why they are repeating.

Table 16: Repeaters responses to why they are repeating in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Not achieving the required grade of promotion	59	84.3
Unable to raise examination fee	9	12.9
Decision by family to let an older sibling in the same class to proceed	1	1.4
No money to proceed to secondary school	1	1.4

The study revealed that majority of the students, 84.3 percent repeat because they are unable to attain the school's promotional mark. The rest do repeat because of reasons with financial implications as indicated by 12.9 percent who can't raise examination fee; 1.4 percent who repeat to allow an elder sibling proceed to the next class so as not to burden the family with future fee in secondary schools; and 1.4 percent who repeat because they could not pay secondary school fee.

This is consistent with the observation made by Warren and Stocks (1985) that overly rigid or poorly designed promotion policies may be keeping children in a grade for too long.

Table 17 indicates the reasons given by repeaters why they could not attain the Promotion mark.

Table 17: Reasons why repeaters cannot attain the pass mark in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of effort	30	50.9
Initial endowment	20	33.9
Domestic problems	6	10.1
Domestic work at home	3	5.1
Total	59	100

The above frequencies reveal why repeaters fail to attain the pass mark. They are supportive of the head-teachers perception on whether schools have too high standards of promotion but contradicts the headteachers perception on whether repeaters have poor school study habits than the rest of the pupils. 50.9 percent of the repeaters indicates they do not attain promotion mark became they lack effort. This suggests that the promotion standards are not so high. This is also indicative of poor school study habits than the rest of the pupils. 33.9 percent reveal a low individual endowment, together this make 64.8 percent of the reason attributable to the schools. Domestic contribution therefore is insignificant as a factor that caused repetition translating only to 15.2 percent.

During the focus group discussions, the above reasons were captured by phrases indicating lack of effort such as, "I do not work hard", "I like playing a lot"; Initial endowment, "I work hard but I just find myself failing", "I do not know how to read"; Domestic problems, "Mom was sick during examination", "Dad passed away before examination and I missed school for one week".

The findings are supported by Leigh (1970) who assigned a vector of initial or innate endowment of the student as an input that affects pupils' educational achievement

Table 18: Repeaters distance from selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Distance	Frequency	Percentage
Near	43	61.4
Average	17	24.3
Far	10	14.3
Total	70	100

The study revealed that 61.4 percent of the repeaters are from near the schools as opposed to 14.3 percent who come from far. Those who came from far are therefore an insignificant group. Distance from the school may be disregarded therefore as a factor that contributes to repetition.

A study by Gichuhi (1995) that revealed an insignificant association of distance to school and the quality of learning supports the findings.

In table 19, Pearson's production movement correlation lest was done on the variable of years of experience, highest level of education attained by teachers, teachers – pupil ration and textbooks availability (textbook – pupil ratio) to repetition.

Table 19: Pearson's correlation between the variables of years of experience, highest level of education attained by teachers, teacher – pupil ratio and textbook availability to repetition in selected primary schools on Suba – East division

Variables		Correlation with Repetition Rate
Years of experience	Pearson correlation	0.054
	N	168
Highest level of education	Pearson correlation	0.025
Attained by teachers	N	189
Teachers pupil ratio	Pearson correlation	0.890**
	N	189
Textbook availability	Pearson correlation	0.147*
	N	189

Key: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 – tailed).

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 – tailed).**

The study found out that there is a strong positive correlation between teacher pupil ratio and repetition rate, at 0.890. It also found out that there is a significant negative correlation between textbooks availability and repetition rate, at –0.147. Between them, these two variables may explain the high rates of repetition in Suba – East

division. In Suba – East division the teacher pupil ratio is averagely 1:45 and the textbook pupil ratio is 1:2.5. The findings therefore mean that the class sizes in Suba – East Division should be reduced and more textbooks should be made available. The other variable such as years of experience and highest level of education attained by the teachers had an insignificantly weak but positive correlation with repetition rates.

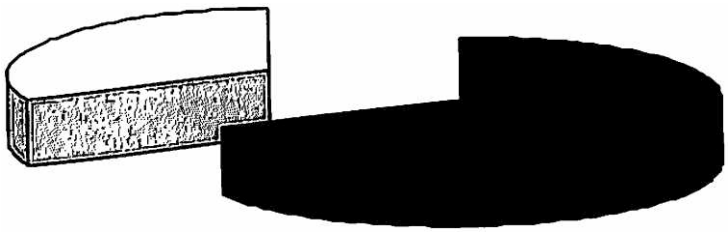
The findings contradicts that of Thias and Carnoy (1972) who indicated that in the primary schools, formal qualifications of the teaching force and the teacher pupil ratio respectively, had no impact on examination performance. But it seems to agree with Husen, Saha, and Noonan, (1978) and Pal and Pant (1995) that there is a positive relationship between the variables of quality and training of teachers indicated by teacher's qualification, experience, amount of education and knowledge and the variable of repetition. The findings are further strongly supported by Haddad (1979) who observed that overcrowded classes lead to repetition.

On textbook availability, the findings are consistent with those of Heyneman, Joseph and Manvel. (1978) that there is a positive relationship between pupils' achievement and the availability of textbooks.

4.5.2.2 Home and Community Based Factors

Of the 70 repeaters who participated in the focus group discussion, 48 were from nucleus family translating to 68.6 percent, while 22 or 31.4 percent were from polygamous families.

Figure 5: The different types of families of repeaters in selected primary schools in Suba –East division.



Key: ■ **Nucleus family**
□ **Polygamous family**

This is probably because of a nucleus family close parental involvement and demand for achievement in their children's education.

Table 20: The number of parents in the families of repeaters in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Type of parents	Frequency	Percentage
Both parents	35	50.0
Single parents	24	34.3
Total orphans	11	15.7
Total	70	100

Compared to the number of single parent and total orphaned families, the study revealed a high incidence of a child repeating if he/she is from a single parent family or one with no parent. Combined this group shows a frequency of 53 percent. This

could be due to poverty, truancy and other domestic problems such as child labour that are prevalent in such kinds of families.

According to Mason and Rozelle (1998) the cost of education greatly influences the attractiveness of investing and participating in schooling. A nucleus family and that with both parents generally command more disposable income than a polygamous family or single parent family. As such they are persistent in seeking quality education for their children and better grades so that they can proceed to secondary schools.

Table 21: Size of the families of the repeaters in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

No of children	Frequency	Percentage
1-3	17	24.3
4-6	37	52.9
7-10	16	22.8
Total	70	100

The study revealed that 52.9 percent of the repeaters came from families with 4-6 children, 24.3 percent from families with 1-3 children and 22.8 percent from those with 7-10 children. Probably other than families with 4 – 6 children being the majority, they could also be more willing to allow their children more time to access quality education.

Table 22: The birth order of repeaters in selected primary schools in Suba – East division.

Birth order	Frequency	Percentage
1st – 3rd	41	58.6
4th – 6th	25	34.2
7th and above	4	7.2
Total	70	100

The study found out that most repeaters are the elder ones in their families, 58.6 percent. This indicates that first-born children are likely to repeat a class than the other children.

These findings are in line with the empirical literatures on human capital that indicate parents favoritism of first born over later born children when investing in education (king and Lillard, 1983; Alba, 1992). Because of this reason, parents may require more academic achievement from first born than the later born children consequently forcing the latter to repeat grades.

Table 23: Occupation of the fathers of repeaters in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Civil servants	3	8.6
Jua kali and small scale business	15	35.7
Unemployed	24	55.7
Total	43	100

The study found out that majority of the repeaters, 55.7 percent have unemployed fathers, while 35.7 percent have father's who work in the juakali sector or have small-scale business. Only 8.6 percent have parents who are civil servants. The unemployed, juakali and small-scale business sectors are not well paying in the rural areas. Thus the study reveals a connection between poverty and repetition.

The findings of the study are consistent with the argument of Chernichovsky and Oey (1985) that the occupation of the father and level of household per capita consumption expenditure influence their children's academic attainment. With less income, parents cannot afford quality education for their children.

4.5.3 Question 3: What are the factors that contribute to pupils dropping out of school?

Table 24 analyses factors that contribute to pupils dropping out of school

Table 24: Factors contributing to pupils dropping out in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Peer group influence and drug taking	12	23.1
Poverty	10	19.2
Disinterest in schooling	6	11.5
Early marriage and teenage pregnancy	6	11.5
Low aspiration from the family	4	7.7
Orphans	4	7.7
Truancy and absenteeism	3	5.7
A wide age-gap between the drop-out and other pupils	2	3.9
Multiple repetition	2	4.0
HIV positive	1	1.9
Lack of good toilets in the school	1	1.9
Bullying	1	1.9
Total	52	100

23.1 percent of pupils in the study cited peer group influence that also led them into taking drugs as the major factor that caused them to drop-out of school, 19.2 percent dropped out because of poverty, 11.5 percent due to disinterest in schooling. Another 11.5 percent dropped out due to early marriage and pregnancy while 7.7 percent

because of low aspiration from their families. 7.7 percent were orphaned and had to fend for their siblings. 5.7 percent dropped out due to truancy and absenteeism. 3.9 percent dropped out because they were older than other pupils in the class while 4.0 percent dropped out due to multiple repetitions. H.I.V, Lack of good sanitation and bullying translated to 1.9 percent each.

The findings are consistent with the reasons given by Mbulwa (1991), Toppin (1999), Buckingham (2000), Wanjohi (2002) Rowe and Rowe (2002), Bwonda and Njeru (2005). They separately mentioned in their various studies the factors of peer group influence and drug taking, disinterest in schooling, early marriage and teenage pregnancy, low aspiration from the family, truancy and absenteeism, multiple repetition and bullying as contributing to dropout.

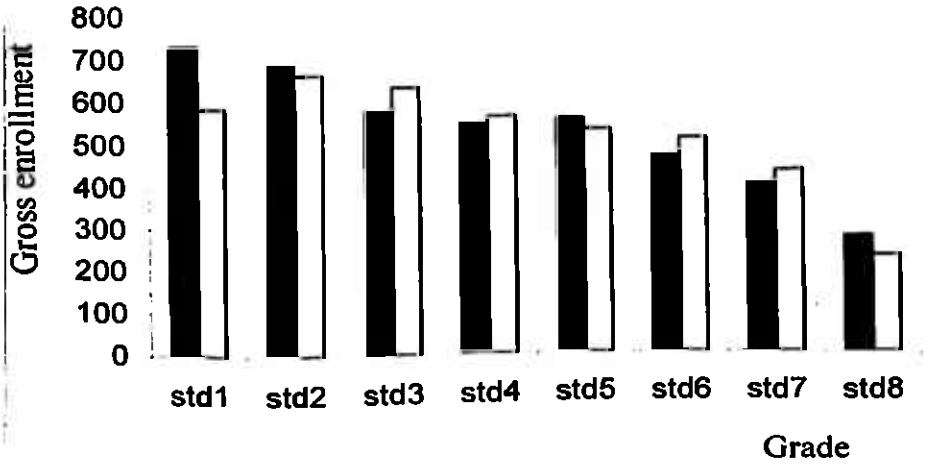
4.5.4 Question 4: What is the gender disparity in primary schools in Suba – East division?

Table 25: Gross enrollment of girls by grade in 2005 and gross enrollment and repetition of girls by grade in 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Year	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
2005 enrollment	731	679	571	543	557	468	406	274
2006 enrollment	581	655	628	561	531	510	432	227
2006 Repetition	53	52	55	59	59	56	70	33

Figure 6 compares gross enrollment of girls by grade in 2005 and 2006.

Figure 6: A comparison of gross enrollment of girls by grade in 2005 and 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba – East division.



Key: ■ **2005 gross enrollment**
□ **2006 gross enrollment**

Table 26: Gross enrollment of boys by grade in 2005 and 2006 and repetition of boys by grade in 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba-East division.

Year	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
2005 enrollment	569	533	538	561	513	477	467	383
2006 enrollment	698	567	607	560	515	499	473	386
2006 Repetition	66	42	50	55	48	55	77	42

Figure 7 compares the gross enrollment of boys by grade in 2005 and 2006.

Figure 7: A comparison of gross enrollment of boys by grade in 2005 and 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba – East division.

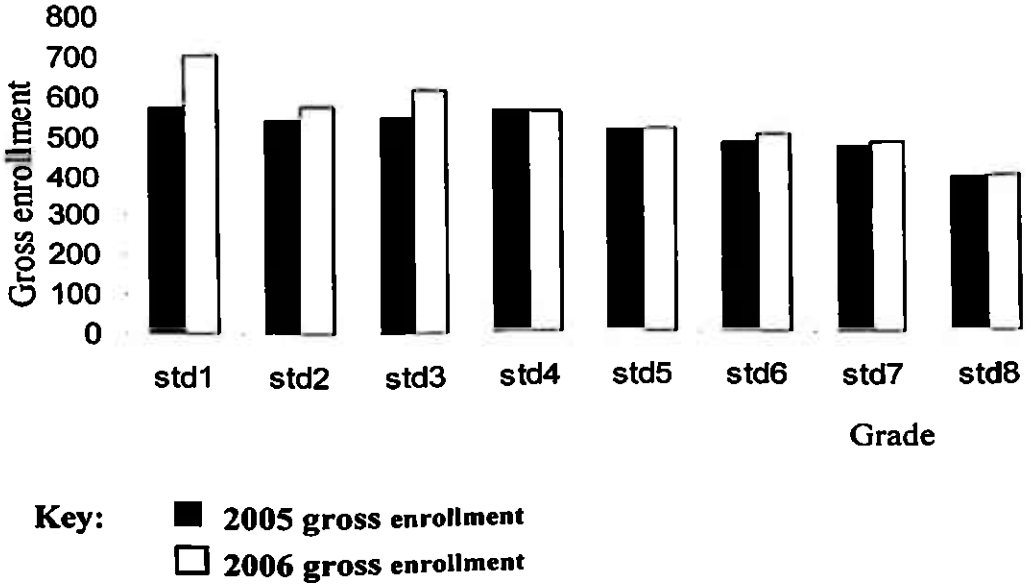
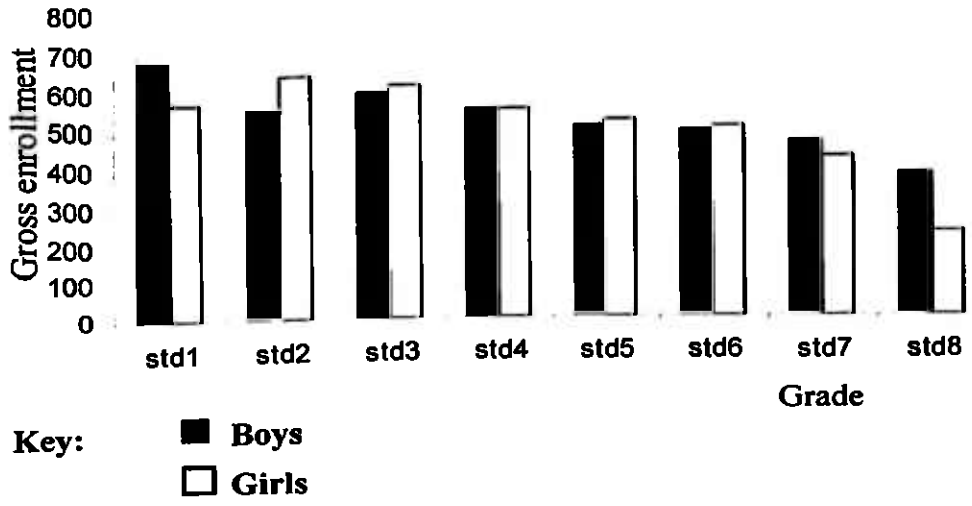


Figure 8 compares the gross enrollment of boys and girls by grade in 2006.

Figure 8: A comparison of gross enrollment of boys and girls by grade in 2006 in selected primary schools in Suba – East division



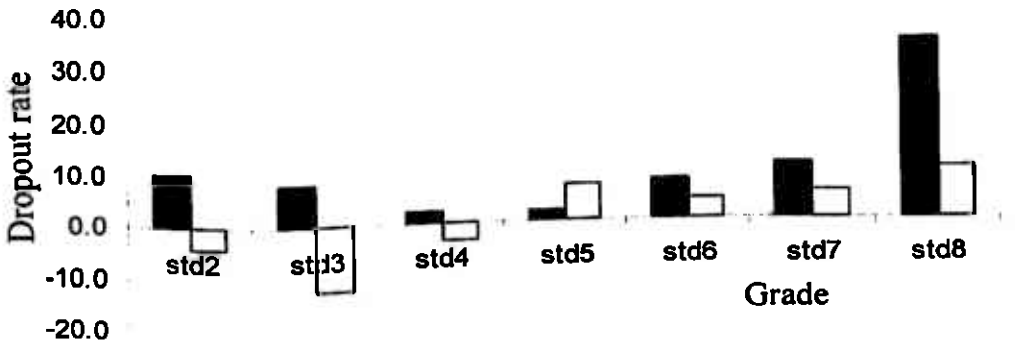
The table 27 compares the dropout rate by gender and by grade in 2006.

Table 27: A comparison of dropout rates by gender and by grade in 2006

Gender	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
Girls	—	10.3	8.0	2.5	2.2	7.9	10.7	35.0
Boys	—	-3.9	-12.4	-3.2	7.0	4.1	5.5	9.9

Figure 9 compares the dropout rates by gender and by grade in 2006.

Figure 9: A comparison of dropout rate by gender and by grade in 2006 in selected primary schools Suba-East division.



Key: ■ **Girls**
□ **Boys**

The study revealed a very wide and significant gender disparity. In lower classes the FPE policy in place seems to attract more boys than girls to school and thus boys register a negative dropout rate. In the extreme this could be because of immigration of boys into two division. Whereas girls exhibit a low dropout rate in standard 4 and standard 5, that is, 2.5 and 2.2 respectively, they again surpass the boys in the upper classes in dropout rate. According to Bwonda and Njeru (2005) and Wanjohi (2005) this is probably because of teenage pregnancies and early marriages especially in standard eight when the dropout rate is 35.0 percent. This could further be escalated

by poverty that make girls lose hope of proceeding with education beyond primary schools due to gender bias by their families. Without the hope of proceeding to secondary school, pupils will drop out of school. Boys probably dropout because of rising opportunity cost of staying in school as one repeater revealed during the focus group discussion, "My brother came to get me from home to go fish as I would make more money there anyway."

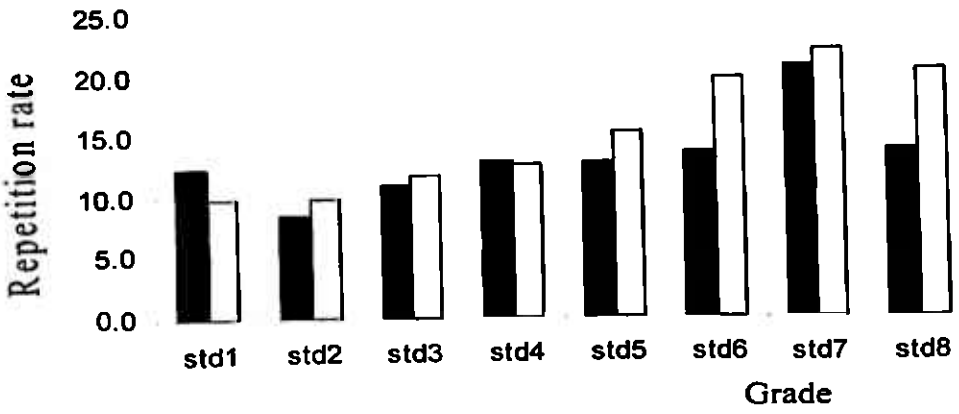
High rates of repetition also make children become older while still in primary school and therefore increase the pressure to dropout of school. The findings further contrasts with Rowe and Rowe (2002) findings that boys are likely to dropout of school prematurely than girls and that they are also significantly more 'disengaged' with schooling and more likely to be at 'risk' of academic under achievement. According to EFA, Global Monitoring Report (2005) more opportunities or pressure to work or get married and more limitations on girls' mobility may reduce their probability of completing primary school.

Table 28: A comparison of repetition rates by gender and grade in selected primary schools in Suba-East division in 2006.

Gender	Std 1	Std 2	Std 3	Std 4	Std 5	Std 6	Std 7	Std 8
Boys	12.4	8.6	11.0	12.9	12.8	13.6	20.7	13.7
Girls	9.8	9.9	11.9	12.7	15.4	19.7	22.0	20.2

Figure 10 compares the repetition rates by gender and grade in 2006.

Figure 10: A comparison of repetition rate by gender and grade in selected primary schools in Suba – East division in 2006



Key: ■ **Boys**
□ **Girls**

The study revealed a high rate of repetition for both the boys and girls as they progress through the grades. For boys from 12.4 percent in standard one to 20.7 percent in standard seven and for girls from 9.8 percent in standard one to 22.0 percent in standard seven. This high rate of repetition is probably because more parents are willing to let their children repeat the classes because of the free primary education.

According to Wanjohi (2002), the disparity in repetition rate in the upper grades is because of teenage pregnancy by school going girls, which is on the increase and can be attributed to ignorance about their body maturation and fertility.

4.5.5 Question 5 what other policies can be implemented to improve the internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba-East division?

Some of the recommendations that emanated from the FGD's on how to ensure high levels of internal efficiency included: -

- Bursary awards should be efficiently implemented so as to satisfy the equity criteria.
- Schools should desist from summative evaluation and mechanical fixing of promotional marks.
- Poverty alleviation measures should be established in the society so as to enable more families to earn higher income and therefore allow them to send their children to school for the entire schooling period.
- Legislation should be put to ensure that all children are in school and those who are not in school should be arrested.
- More orphanages should be set up so that young pupils do not end up fending for their sibling when they are still in school.
- The school environment should be made friendlier with teachers desisting from heavy punishment.
- Teachers should pay keen attention to the weak students in their classes.
- The youth should be sensitized more on the dangers of drug abuse and premarital sex.
- School feeding programme should be fully integrated into the school system.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations. The findings are summarized in three areas that collectively correspond to the main questions. These are: research findings, conclusions and recommendations.

5.1 Summary of Research Findings

One of the key reasons for the introduction of free primary education was to improve the internal efficiency of school. Through improved provision of school resources it was argued that more children would participate in schooling and the gender gap would be eliminated. The study sought to find out, the rate of dropouts and repetition as measures of internal efficiency, factors that still cause them under the free primary education policy, the existence of gender gap under the policy and finally to draw policy recommendations toward improving the internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba-East division. The research identified and categorized factors that cause dropout and repetition into: -

a. Home and community based factors
b. School based factors
c. Individual factors.

A cluster sampling of 25 schools in Suba- East division was randomly done and the questionnaire return rate was 100 percent. Focus group discussions were held to find out the factors that influence repetition and dropout rate. The participation in

the FGD's exceeded the anticipated number by 47%. The research questions that were used to direct the study were answered by the collected data being analyzed descriptively (percentage and frequencies). This was accompanied by detailed discussion and explanations where necessary. From the gathered data the study found out the following: -

5.1.1 Dropout And Repetition Rates

The rate of dropout was 6.08 percent as indicated in page 49. Standard eight had the highest dropout rate of 21.5 percent while standard three had a negative 1.2 percent dropout rate which was the lowest as indicated in table 11.

Repetition rate was 13.18 percent as indicated in page 51. Standard seven had the highest rate at 19.1 percent and standard two had the lowest at 8.7 percent as shown in table 12.

5.1.2 Factors That Contribute To Repetition

Amongst the school-based factors, failure to achieve the promotional mark was cited as a major contributory factor to repetition at 84.3 percent as indicated in table 15. This is a major problem, as majority of the principals, 56 percent, do not perceive it to be a problem as shown in table 15. When tested for correlation, a strong positive correlation was found between teacher pupil ratio and repetition. In contrast, a significant negative correlation was found between textbook ratio and repetition.

On the home and community based factors, poverty was found to be a major factor as 55.7 percent of the repeating students came from poor families as shown in table 23. Other proxies of poverty such as the type of family in figure 5 and family's parental type in table 20 confirmed the same. The study also found out that the

numbers of children in a family and birth order are likely to contribute to repetition as indicated in table 21 and 22 respectively.

Amongst the students who do not achieve the required grade, individual factors were the main reasons given as indicated in page 56.

5.1.3 Factors That Contribute To Dropout

During the discussion, individual factors were found to contribute the most to dropout translating to 23.1 percent as indicated in table 24. Other individual factors included early marriage and teenage pregnancy, truancy and absenteeism and bullying. Home and community based factors included poverty at 19.2 percent as indicated in table 24. Participants expressed poverty as a factor in different ways such as,

Participant A: " I lacked basic necessities such as food and text books"

Participant B: "I foresaw there was no money to proceed to secondary school"

Poverty makes the opportunity cost of staying in school high and also, school based factors led to the disinterest with schooling. This included reasons such as, harsh teachers, fear of examinations and multiple repetitions.

5.1.4 Gender Disparities In Repetition And Dropout Rate.

The study revealed wide gender disparities in dropout rates in the lower grades with boys increasing enrollment and girls dropping out as indicated in table 27 and figure 9. Even in the upper grades the disparities still exist as more girls continue to dropout more than boys.

The study revealed an even rate of repetition between the genders as indicated in table 28

5.2 Conclusion Of The Study

Besides the stated purposes, the study sought to draw policy recommendation for consideration towards ensuring high levels of internal efficiency of primary schools in Suba-East division. Therefore, the following conclusions were arrived at.

5.2.1 Dropout And Repetition Rates

It was noted that despite the implementation of free primary education, the rates of dropout and repetition still remained very high in Suba-East division and thus there has been no improvement on internal efficiency.

5.2.2 Factors Contributing To Repetition

The administrative practice of setting promotional standards is a major contributing factor to repetition. The high gross enrollment experienced during the FPE programme led to a high teacher pupil ratio and hence high rates of repetition. Consequently enough textbooks have not been provided aggravating the situation. Poverty is also contributing a factor as revealed by the proxy measures of poverty in the study. This is so especially when children have to engage in domestic labour so as to support their families.

5.2.3 Factors Contributing To Dropout

The study revealed that individual based factors and poverty expressed in many ways in the study are the major factors that contribute to pupils dropping out of school. School based factors only contribute minimally to dropout.

5.2.4 Disparities In Dropout And Repetition Rates

The study found a wide gender disparity in dropout rate from school. Of significance is that free primary education policy has managed to attract more boys than girls to the lower grades of primary school. But in the upper grades the dropout rate generally increases. The girls have a low dropout rate in the lower grades but a very high dropout rate in the upper grades of schooling.

5.3 Recommendations of The Study

The following recommendations based on the findings of the study were made.

- Schools should desist from setting a certain mark that pupils must achieve in order to be promoted. This made a lot of children to repeat who otherwise may go ahead to perform better in the upper classes or in secondary schools. This is because there are various underlying reasons for repetition.
- The study recommends that poverty alleviation measures should be put in place in Suba-East division. Through this, fewer pupils will opt to dropout. Currently a majority still dropout because as they continue staying in school, the opportunity cost keep on rising as they become old enough to start earning a living in the lowly paying jobs.
- More opportunity for secondary education should be made available to pupils to motivate them to stay in primary school without this many will continue feeling disillusioned about their future hence drop-out as there exist few opportunities after standard eight.
- Close supervision and inspection of primary schools should be put in place in order to ensure that pupils, especially those in standard six, seven and eight do

not repeat classes. Most of these pupils repeat classes because the school would want to have few candidates in standard eight that can enable them to be ranked highly in K.C.P.E.

- Intervention measures such as school feeding programmes and efficient management of bursaries should be implemented with the aim that allocations meet the equity criteria. In line with this, the private sector and NGO's should be encouraged to set up orphanages with the support of the government to take care of orphaned children. Amongst the intervention measures, the government should enact laws makes it illegal for children of school going age to be out of school.

5.4 Suggestion For Further Research

The study recommends the following areas for further research: -

- Whether identified inputs into the education system have consistent relationship with the education outcomes.
- To separate the influences of different inputs to the educational process in order to judge their effectiveness.
- To find out the cost of separate inputs into the education process. If there were several inputs known to be beneficial to education, the efficiency criterion would dictate allocating resources in a way that also considers costs.
- A study into standardized tests to repot and interpret in a consistent fashion for the measurement of individual differences in as unambiguous ways as possible.

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APPENDICES.

Appendix A: Letter of Introduction to Respondents.

King'wara Abala Emmanuel,

University of Nairobi,

P.O. Box 92,

KIKUYU.

Date. June 20th, 2006

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: STUDY OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS UNDER FPE POLICY IN SUBA – EAST DIVISION.

I am Emmanuel Abala King'wara, a masters in Education Administration and planning student at the University of Nairobi. As part of my degree requirement, I am undertaking a research on the factors that continue to influence the levels of internal efficiency of primary schools under the free primary Education policy in Suba – East division. The enclosed questionnaire will greatly help me in collecting data for the above research and I therefore kindly ask you to complete and return it within two weeks.

Your school was selected to participate in this program through a cluster random sampling. Please let me have as complete a response as possible as we endeavor to improve educational policies in our country.

If you have any specific question about the survey, do not hesitate to contact me on telephone number 0720801559 or 05920052.

The responses shall be kept strictly confidential and after analysis, it will be my pleasure to share the findings with you if you wish.

Thanks for your Co-operation,

Emmanuel Abala King'wara,

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire on Level of Internal Efficiency, and Factors Causing Repetition.

I am interested in finding out the levels of internal efficiency and factors that lead to repetition in primary schools in Suba-East Division. Please help me by completing and returning this questionnaire in two weeks time. Be open and honest as I want to get what is true and not what you think I want to hear. Do not sign your name as all the information shall be kept strictly confidential.

Instructions:

(i) Please complete the questionnaire by ticking, filling or witting accurate responses appropriately.

(ii) Information to be completed by the head teacher.

BACKGROUND

1) Which zone is your school? _____

2) What is your age? _____ Years _____ months.

3) Which is your gender? Male ☐

Female ☐

4) Is the school in the municipality? Yes ☐ No ☐

PEDAGOGICAL QUALIFICATION OF TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOL

5) How many years have you taught_____ Years

a) How many years have you been a headteacher? _____

b) What teaching grade are you? _____

e.g (P1, P2, ATSI etc)

6) Please fill in your school's teachers profile in the table below.

Number	Age	Gender	Highest level of education	Years of experience	Grade e.g. (P1)	Employer TSC or PTA
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						

7) Other than the formal education attained, has your staff undergone any other relevant training? (e.g. In-service, guidance and counseling etc).

Number	Type of training	Duration
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		
8		
9		
10		

8) How many of the staff members are of the following religions?

Moslems ☐

Christians ☐

Specify others (e.g. Legio Maria) _____

SCHOOL POPULATION

9) How many streams does the school have in each grade?

Grade	**Class 1**	**Class 2**	**Class 3**	**Class 4**	**Class 5**	**Class 6**	**Class 7**	**Class 8**
No. of Streams								

10) What was the school's enrollment by grade and gender, for each of the following years?

	Class 1		**Class 2**		**Class 3**		**Class 4**		**Class**		**Class 6**		**Class 7**		**Class 8**	
Year	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
2002																
2003																
2004																
2005																
2006																

11) How many pupils repeated grades in the following years?

Year	Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Class 4		Class 5		Class 6		Class 7		Class 8	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
2002																
2003																
2004																
2005																
2006																

12) How many of the repeaters this year are of the following ages in the classes indicated below?

Class	4	5	6	7	8
Age	10	11	12	13	14
Male					
Female					

13) How many pupils are of the following ages in the given classes?

Class	4	5	6	7	8
Age	10	11	12	13	14
Male					
Female					

14) How many repeaters have repeated the same grade more than once?

Grade	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8
Pupils repeating more than once								

SCHOOL RESOURCES

15) What is the number of textbooks available for each subject in the following classes?

Subject	CLASS				
	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8
Maths					
Kiswahili					
English					
Science					
Social Studies					

16) In your opinion are the textbooks

(A) Very Sufficient?

(B) Somewhat more sufficient?

(C) Sufficient?

(D) Somewhat less sufficient?

(E) Not sufficient at all?

17) How many physical classrooms are their in the school? _____

18) How many desks is their in school?

Grade	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Class 6	Class 7	Class 8
No. of desks								

b. If the desks are shared, how many pupils should sit on one desk? .

_____

19) What kind of toilet facilities are available in the school (Please tick approximately).

	Pupils			
	Male		Female	
Type of toilet	**Working**	**Not working**	**Working**	**Not working**
Ventilated pit latrines				
Unventilated pit latrines				
None				

Others (specify) _____

COST OF SCHOOLING

20) Does the school charge the parents any levy?

Yes ☐ No ☐

b) If yes, please indicate the amount charged and the specific purpose?

Purpose	**Amount**

21) What is the school's policy concerning uniform?

All pupils must put on school uniform ☐

School uniform is optional for the pupils ☐

b. Please fill in the approximate cost of each item of the uniform required by the school.

Item	**Quantity needed by each pupil**	**Approximate total amount**
Pair of shorts		
Shirt		
Blouse		
Pullovers		
Skirts		
Dress		
Tie		
Badge		
Socks		
Shoes		
Other (Specify		

SCHOOL'S ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES

22) Please rate the following administrative practices in your school by circling the number that indicates how much you agree with each statement below.

1 = Absolutely true	2 = Probably true	3 = in doubt
4 = Partly true	5 = Absolutely true	

- Repeaters are careless and indifferent to work	1	2	3	4	5
- Repeaters have poor school study habits that the rest of the pupils	1	2	3	4	5
- The school has too high standards of promotion	1	2	3	4	5
- There is satisfactory provision of textbooks in the pupils	1	2	3	4	5
- Transfer of teachers is frequent	1	2	3	4	5

In your opinion, how would you rate your staff's motivation?

Very motivated ☐ Just above average ☐ Average ☐

Just below ☐ Not motivated ☐

23) Does the school have a guidance and counseling programme?

Yes ☐ No ☐

OTHER COMMENTS

By your experience, please share any comment you have as a school administrator on the reasons why pupils still repeat classes.

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

Repeaters Focus Group Leaders Guide

Introduction

Good morning and thank you for agreeing to meet with me and share your views on factors causing repetition in schools. My name is Emmanuel Abala Kingw'ara from University of Nairobi. I have invited repeaters from different schools in an attempt to find out why pupils repeat classes.

Before we begin, let me review the ground rules. I am recording the discussion, but will keep all individual comments confidential. Keep in mind that I am interested with everyone's major and minor comments. We will adjourn sharply at 12.00noon.

First, could you introduce yourselves, and tell me when you repeated?

(Self-Introductions one-by-one)

Which class are you repeating?

How many times have you repeated?

1) Did you repeat voluntarily?

Probes: Was it the school that advised/forced you to repeat?

Was it your parents who advised/forced you to repeat?

2) Why did you repeat?

Probe: Was it the school's policy that you had to attain a certain mark?

3) How regular is your attendance to school?

Probe: Have you ever missed going to the school at any time during the past year?

How long did you miss school?

Why did you miss school?

4) Approximately, how far is your school from home?

Probe: Are you comfortable traveling that distance?

5) Do you have every school requirement?

Probe: Do you have the full school uniform?

How many textbooks do you have?

Have you completed paying all the school levies?

6) At school, do you have your own desk?

Probe: Is there anything the school provides other students that you are not provided with?

7) Do you like your school's toilet? are they enough?

8) What is your socio-economic background?

Probes: How many children are you in your family?

What is your birth order?

How old are your parents (guardians)?

What is your guardian's highest level of education?

What is your guardian's occupation?

Does your guardian find it easy financially sending you to school?

9) How healthy are you?

Probe: How many meals do you take in a day?

Have you ever missed school because of sickness?

10) How much do you like your school?

Probe: Do you like the subjects taught?

Do you like examinations?

Do you like teachers?

Do you like your peers?

11) How much do you like the school's administrative practices?

Probe: Are you overworked in school?

How often do you do for homework?

12) Do you foresee yourself benefiting because of attending school?

13) Is there anything you would like to add?

Thanks for your co-operation.

APPENDIX D

Dropouts Focus Group Leaders Guide

Introduction

Good morning and thank you for agreeing to meet with me and share your views on factors causing dropouts in schools. My name is Emmanuel Abala Kingw'ara from University of Nairobi. I have invited repeaters from different schools in an attempt to find out why pupils dropout of school.

Before we begin, let me review the ground rules. I am recording the discussion, but will keep all individual comments confidential. Keep in mind that I am interested with everyone's major and minor comments. We will adjourn sharply at 12.00noon.

(Self – Introduction one-by-one)

Which class did you drop out from?

When did you dropout?

1) What is your socio-economic background?

Probes: What was your age when you dropped out?

How many siblings are you at home?

What is your birth order?

How many of your siblings are in school?

Are both your parents alive?

If so, how old are they?

Do you like your parents?

What is your guardian's highest level of education?

What is your guardian's occupation?

2) How was your performance in school?

Probes: Did you ever repeat a class?

Were you in the upper half or lower half of the class (in terms of position)?

3) How frequent were you punished in school?

4) How much did you like your school?

Probe: Did you like you teachers?

Did you like your peers?

5) Did you have sufficient textbooks, exercise books, school uniform and any other school requirements?

6) Did you attend school regularly?

Probe: When not in school, what were you doing?

What are you currently doing?

7) What can you say actually made you drop out of school?

Probe: Did the school suspend you?

Did the school expel you?

Was it your parent's decision?

8) Given the opportunity, would you go back to school?

Probe: Is there anything you miss for not being in school?

Is there a particular teacher you really liked at school?

What would you want the government to do for you to go back to school?

According to your family (guardian), is education beneficial?

9) Is there anything you would like to add?

Thanks for you co-operation.

APPENDIX E

Table of randomly selected five digit numbers

19105	67990	04371	56233	58563
93818	83682	05919	44750	56223
44222	06488	84638	49632	65538
11208	76360	75277	68570	68045
17457	93603	05055	07487	80581
87288	99426	06586	71351	46494
10485	79068	48767	89812	76682
19634	08102	36736	74601	73164
37677	83056	06954	08974	43432
34212	40357	78832	09789	14545
13162	37486	87563	59668	47242
84194	42645	28165	90708	75582
67928	84376	06935	27069	98595
73000	33671	85492	00921	76701
49519	68975	79289	84222	88118
35492	18213	69697	98389	80805
40393	14813	37233	75134	72284
61915	27046	71328	57023	88488
98365	17148	17606	68523	59490

39473	19908	69375	84539	80400
23433	61062	25962	91609	76451
22365	83559	51425	09984	06481
66890	02790	88946	01989	
49340	42573	82514	16462	
54433	43997	89278	28781	
46923	10617	99620	36046	
84313	95883	84001	06374	
06447	88506	70881	79266	
40732	20200	71085	44807	
55369	84115	71126	23965	
33225	07118	54551	40727	
29030	11104	71647	02366	
28424	49748	78730	90764	
76960	29504	55484	39897	
87148	38029	68667	33986	
16841	81888	64261	82760	
41152	74706	08521	70584	
76688	02632	40163	93437	
80574	82058	03490	70768	
72646	92880	02403	68826	
43216	02840	86022	78206	
99709	44423	38841	90280	