

THE ROLE OF YOUTH POLYTECHNICS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT:
THE CASE OF BUNGOMA DISTRICT

BY

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A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the Degree
of Master of Arts in Government in the University of Nairobi.

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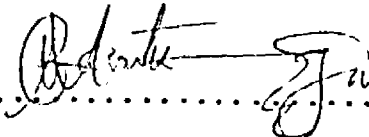


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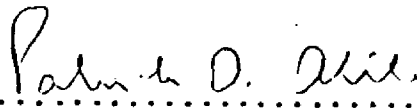
DECLARATION

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


.....

Frank Khachina Matanga

This Thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as University Supervisor.


.....

Dr. P. O. Alila,
University Supervisor

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ABBREVIATIONS

BNA	-	Basic Needs Approach
DANIDA	-	Danish International Development Agency
DDC	-	District Development Committee
EEC	-	European Economic Community
NCKK	-	National Council of Churches of Kenya
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organization
NORAD	-	Norwegian Agency for International Development
RD	-	Rural Development
YP	-	Youth Polytechnic

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ABSTRACT

Youth Polytechnics, as institutions located mainly in the rural areas, are to enhance and accelerate the process of rural development through the provision of practical entrepreneurial skills to the rural youth. These skills are to enable the youth engage in mainly self-employment that can assure them of a reasonable income and also facilitate the provision of basic goods and/or services to the rural communities. However, there is increasing evidence that most YPs in the rural areas to date, have not been meeting these objectives adequately, especially in terms of employment generation for the rural youth. This study was an attempt to identify and examine factors and conditions that influence the effectiveness of the YPs in the development of the rural sector.

The study was conducted in Bungoma district, Kenya. Eight Government-supported YPs formed our study sample. Each of the six administrative divisions in the district were represented in the sample by at least one YP. The study had a total of 103 respondents comprising of 53 YP graduates, 25 current students/trainees, and 25 other respondents consisting of the project managers, members of the management committees, Government officials and parents/guardians to YP graduates. Each of the above figures represent the number of respondents who gave us a feedback from the various categories of the sampled study population. The key sampling techniques used were the simple random and systematic random.

The study examined the nature and influence of the implementation of national rural development policies at the local levels. This examination of national rural

development policies was on three aspects, that is, the access to loan/credit facilities; the acquisition of the relevant business licences; and the allocation of public tenders to YP graduates in the rural areas.

The implementation of these rural development policies at the local level was found to be unsatisfactory. Most of the YP graduates interviewed said that they had no access to the loan/credit schemes and consequently had a poor capital base. The acquisition of business/trade licences was also found to be hampered by various obstacles. Most YP graduates also said that they had not been allocated any form of public tender by the relevant authorities. These inadequacies have had negative influences on the ability and capacity of some YP graduates to enter into productive self-employment.

The study also examined the prevailing levels and influence of YP programme human and material resource base on YP contribution to rural development. Human resources consisted of project managers, members of the management committees and the instructors. YP material resources referred to tools/equipments, workshops and training materials at the disposal of the YPs. An analysis of the YP managers revealed that most of them were poorly qualified. This had negatively affected their performance of particular YP duties and functions and consequently the attainment of certain YP goals and objectives. The level of instructors, especially in terms of adequacy in

numbers, was found to be unsatisfactory. Most YPs lack adequate instructors to sufficiently handle their trainees in the various trades offered.

Lack of adequate tools/equipments, workshops and training materials was found to be a common phenomenon in most of the YPs. This situation has, in many ways, hindered the ability and capacity of these YPs to produce high quality skilled artisans. This has in turn, hampered the employment scope and opportunities of some of the YP graduates.

The study found out that the more prosperous a rural economy, the higher the employment opportunities for the local YP graduates. Inhabitants in relatively advanced rural economies tend to have higher income savings and thus create an effective demand for goods and/or services offered by YP graduates. In such a situation there are clearly better prospects for the employment of YP graduates.

The major conclusion of this study, was that, YPs are playing a significant role in rural development. They provide entrepreneurial skills that enable youths to secure gainfull employment. The study specifically revealed that 69.8% of the graduates were in employment. YPs, through their graduates also enable the rural communities to have an easy access to basic goods and/or services at affordable prices. However, for YPs to adequately meet their stated goals and objectives and thus fully justify their establishment and existence, it is recommended that certain essential factors and conditions need to be addressed. The

Government in collaboration with the local district authorities should show a serious commitment towards the successful implementation of the various rural development policies at the local levels. Increased efforts should also be directed towards the improvement of YP programme human and material resources in terms of both their quality and quantity. The growth and development of the local rural economies should also in practice become a major priority.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter covers the statement of the problem, the justification for selecting the research problem, the objectives, the hypotheses, theoretical framework and the study methods.

The Youth Polytechnic programme was set up in the late 1960's to train the Youth in entrepreneurial skills that can both, enable them as individuals, to acquire self-employment and to benefit their local communities in the rural areas with the supply of basic goods and services. However, it has been argued that some of these objectives are not being met adequately as expected. Various factors are suggested as a basis for explanation. It is around these factors that our hypotheses are constructed. The hypotheses were examined and tested in Bungoma District.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The issue of providing the youth with relevant education to make them self-reliant continues to dominate education policies in Kenya. The fundamental concern is to provide practical education and training and to give relevant entrepreneurial skills to school leavers to enable them engage in productive work, mainly through self-employment, for a livelihood in the rural sector.

In Kenya, practical education and training is currently offered in a wide range of institutions which include the 545 Youth Polytechnics (YPs), 19 Technical Training Institutes, the National Youth Service, and other non-governmental institutes (Republic of Kenya, 1989:221).

YP training and education is the subject of this study. The key objectives of YP training include the need to alleviate unemployment; the need to overcome shortages of artisans and craftsmen needed mainly for rural sector jobs like building nursery and primary schools; the need to curtail rural-urban migration of youths by enabling them acquire self-employment opportunities within their home areas; and, better exploitation of local resources (Waithaka, 1987).

YPs, as institutions located mainly in the rural areas, have generally been viewed as agents of rural development. They are seen to be a means towards uplifting the living standards of the rural people through provision of entrepreneurial skills necessary for engaging in productive ventures in the rural areas. The provision of such skills through the YPs, are meant to help the graduates acquire self-employment. The acquisition of self-employment by these young people in the rural areas, is in turn viewed to be a sound solution to the problem of rural-urban migration. It is also hoped that YP graduates will be able to produce basic goods and services which can satisfy the needs of the rural communities. Such goods and services are seen as not only cheap in terms of sale price but are also within easy reach of the rural communities.

Thus, the major role that YPs are expected to play is to enhance and promote the process of rural development. In Uma Lele's (1974:17) words, rural development is:-

"Improving the living standards of the mass of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining."

However, inspite of both governmental and non-governmental efforts to assist YPs achieve their major goals and objectives, it has been observed that most of them have and continue to contribute minimally to the process of rural development, especially in relation to self-employment generation (Kipkorir 1974,:29; Kinyanjui 1979: 10-11; Caplen, 1981:7; Yambo, 1986:205).

Various explanations have been given as to why the YPs may not be adequately meeting their set goals and objective. However, to what extent are these explanations adequate, and in view of changing conditions and circumstances do they still hold?

In responding to the above question(s), this study will examine a number of factors to try and establish their influence on the YP Programme's contribution to rural development. These factors include, the role of the national rural development policies; the quality of YP management; the level of economic prosperity of the local rural areas; and the adequacy in quality of YP training.

Thus, various questions are raised in relation to the above-mentioned factors. For instance, what influence do the relevant national rural development policies have on the employment opportunities of YP graduates in the rural Sector?; What is the relationship between the quality of management in a YP and the effective attainment of YP set goals? To what extent does the level of economic prosperity of an

area influence the opportunities of YP graduates in rural employment?; What is the relationship between the available different levels of equipments, training materials, workshops and instructors, on the one hand, and the training expertise (skill acquisition) obtained by YP graduates, on the other?

1.2 Justification of the Study:

The YP Programme is crucial in Kenya's educational system. This is evident from the increased Government attention and support for the programme. Government support for the Government-aided YPs, which were 320 in number by 1986, comes in form of salaries for teachers who teach subjects approved by the Government, equipment in some areas, small grants for developing training materials, and small grants to support capital development (Okumu and Alila, 1988:16).

However, the effective role the programme could play in the country's economy was something that was brought to the Government and general public's attention as early as 1966 during the formative years of this type of training. The YPs, began in 1966 as an experimental measure to meet the problem of training young people to play constructive roles in the task of rural development.

Indeed, the establishment of YPs as training institutions was crucial to the socio-political and economic interests of the Government since it seemed to promise to avert the ever-increasing crisis of unemployed school leavers who could neither proceed on with formal education nor acquire wage employment immediately.

With the establishment of the YP programme, the key theme of "education for self-employment" emerged..

This followed the recognition that, wage-earning employment is strictly limited in Kenya, and consequently there is a need to counteract the widely held belief that a completed formal education should necessarily lead to a wage-earning position, and that if rural areas are to be developed effectively by local effort, then a spirit of initiative and invention in which people are prepared to look for new approaches to creating amenities, and new methods of making a living must be inculcated (Anderson, 1970).

The significance of the YP Programme to the rural sector, and indeed, the national economy at large, becomes apparent when its link to the informal sector is drawn. The YPs are supposed to be a major contributing factor to the mushrooming of the informal sector through their graduates. The informal sector, in turn, has become more or less a backbone of the Kenyan economy. This fact is clearly alluded to by the Government in its various public documents (see the 1979/83 and 1989/93 National Development Plans plus Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986).

The YP Programme is also significant from the standpoint that, it has several common points of linkage with the new 8-4-4 System of education. Both approaches emphasize on practical education and training. Thus, for those primary pupils who do not qualify for secondary education for various reasons, should still find the YP Programme a suitable and viable alternative.

Seeing the intimate relationship between the YP Programme, the 8-4-4 System of education and the informal sector, its (the YP programmes) significance to the nation at large, becomes quite evident. In this connection, further research on the programme is vital. This, in many ways, will enable the interested general public, the policymakers and scholars to be aware of the programme's performance, problems and prospects.

Various studies and Evaluation Missions (Court, 1972; Evaluation Mission, 1974; Ferguson and Barker, 1979; Migot-Adholla and Owiro, 1981; Caplen, 1981; Orwa, 1982; Ongolo, 1983; Yambo, 1986; Nzioka, 1986) have already investigated on several aspects of the YP Programme. They have come up with differing reasons as to why the programme is performing the way it is in rural development. These factors range from the quality of YP training, the quality of YP Management, the role of the national rural development policies, to the influence of the level of the economic prosperity of the local areas.

In revisiting some of these issues, this study will not only examine the extent of the adequacy of these explanations but also determine whether they still hold in view of the ever-changing conditions and circumstances. This, will of course be done in respect to assessing the contribution of YPs to rural development.

1.3 The Study Objectives

The principal focus of this study is to identify and examine factors and conditions that may improve the effectiveness of the YP Programme in rural development. The main objectives of the research are, thus:

- (a) To explore the nature of relationship(s) between national rural development policies and the actual role of YPs in the rural sector;
- (b) To establish the relationship between YP Capacity, particularly management, and the effective achievement of the programme's set goals and objectives;
- (c) To establish the relationship between the level of economic prosperity of an area and YP graduates role in local-level development, and;
- (d) To examine the link between quality of YP training and the effective acquisition of entrepreneurial skills by YP graduates.

1.4 Hypotheses

- (a) National Rural Development policies influence the scope of rural employment opportunities for YP graduates.
- (b) The higher the quality of management in the YP, the more effective the YP is in the achievement of its goals and objectives.
- (c) The level of prosperity of a local rural economy influences availability of rural employment opportunities for YP graduates.
- (d) The quality of Youth Polytechnic Training influences YP graduates' expertise and entrepreneurship in their work.

1.5 Theoretical Framework

The meaning of development, and indeed the forces and factors that bring or hinder development in the developing nations is a matter of serious continuing public and academic debate.

One of the most widely used theories for development is the modernization theory. The origins of modernization theory run back to those years of post World War II when American policymakers and intellectuals became interested in the process of socio-economic development, pertaining to the new nations of the Third World (Asia, Africa and Latin America). As argued by Tipps, (1973:208-210), American Society tended to be viewed as fundamentally consensual, combining an

unmatched economic prosperity and political stability within a democratic framework. Social scientists thus assumed that 'modernity' was indeed an unmixed blessing and that the institutions and values of American society at least as they existed in the more idealized manifestations, represented an appropriate model to be emulated by other, less fortunate societies.

Moore (1963:89) has defined 'Modernization' as:

"..... being a total transformation of a traditional or pre-modern society into the types of technology and associated social organization that characterizes the 'advanced', economically prosperous, and relatively politically stable nations of the Western World."

Lerner (1969: 387) defined 'Modernization' as:

"the process of social change whereby the less developed societies acquire characteristics common to the more developed societies".

The use of modernization theory as a development tool has come under severe criticism. The argument by Tipps (1973: 199) that, "the popularity of the notion of modernization must be sought not in its clarity and precision as a vehicle of scholarly communication, but rather in its ability to evoke vague and generalized images which serve to summarise all the various

transformations of social life attendant upon the rise of industrialization and the nation-state in the late 18th and 19th centuries", represents a view shared by many scholars.

Modernization theories are seen as a product of an essentially ethnocentric world-view. Though the terminology of contemporary modernization theory has been cleaned up to give a more neutral impression - it speaks of 'modernity' rather than 'civilization', 'tradition' rather than 'barbarism' - it continues to evaluate the progress of nations, like its 19th century forbears by their proximity to the institutions and values of Western and particularly Anglo-American societies. Tipps (1973: 210-211) in his comment argues that:

"Modernization theory tends to involve its theorists in a subtle form of 'cultural imperialism', an imperialism of values which super-impose American or, more broadly, Western cultural choices upon other societies Far from being a universally applicable schema for the study of the historical development of human societies, the nature of Modernization theory reflects a particular phase in the development of a single society, that of the U.S."

Hyden (1985:xiii), lamenting on the cultural imperialism associated with modernization theories, argues:

"..... the debate about the prospects and problems of progress in Africa has so far lacked a historical perspective. Some have simply ignored it because they have had a strong belief in the magic of money and science What

is needed for a re-definition of the development problematic is a closer look at the historical realities intrinsic to Africa".

By focussing largely upon variables relating to indigenous aspects of social structure and culture, modernization theorists have either underestimated or ignored many important external sources of or influences upon social change. Tipps (1973: 212), dwelling on this line of thought, argues:

"Any theoretical framework which fails to incorporate such significant variables as the impact of war, conquest, colonial domination, international political and military relationships, or of international trade and cross-national flow of capital cannot hope to explain either the origins of these societies or the nature of their struggles for political and economic autonomy - struggles, it should be added, which all societies face, though perhaps in varying degrees and contexts at different historical moments"

Modernization theory has also been criticized on the grounds that it is primarily concerned with characterizing the overall patterns and processes occurring at the more global level of the nation and may therefore, be somewhat inappropriate as a conceptual framework for analyzing micro-processes at the local level (Long, 1977: 26-28). Arguing on the same lines, Tipps (1973:201-202) has noted that:

"though studies of modernization have focussed upon many different levels it is the national territorial state which is of critical theoretical significance components of

modernization process are viewed as representing a source of change operative at the national level. Thus, theories of Modernization are fundamentally theories of the transformation of national states"

Chinapah and Fagerlind (1979:24) have also criticised modernization theory from the point of view that it ignores the potential of internal forces and values within developing nations as vehicles of development. The tendency by modernization theorists to ignore what they call "traditional" as opposed to "modern" as crucial for contributing to development of developing areas has also been pointed out by Tipps (1973:214) as a fallacy:

"Modernization should not be equated simply with the destruction of tradition, for the latter is not a prerequisite of modernization - since in many instances 'traditional' institutions and values may facilitate rather than impede the social changes usually associated with modernization - nor is it in itself a sufficient condition of modernization - since destruction of 'tradition' as, for example, by colonial domination, may lead in directions other than 'modernity'".

The theory of modernization has also been criticized on the grounds that the "tradition-modernity" contrast focusses only upon the presumed similarities of traditional societies thus failing to allow for a multiplicity of traditions in a spatial as well as a temporal sense. Social structures of the most diverse sort are thrown together in the same category, sharing

little more than the label 'traditional' and the fact that they are not modern industrial societies. By ignoring the diversity of traditional societies, the dichotomous approach to modernization ignores precisely those differences between societies which contribute to the determination of the specific character of their development (Tipps, 1973:213).

Last but not least, the theory of modernization has been criticized on the basis that: "in their (modernization theorists) effort to achieve descriptive inclusiveness, modernization theorists have relied upon conceptualizations of modernization which are both unparsimonious and vague. Rather than specifying the minimum conditions necessary for the appropriate application of the term, modernization theorists have attempted to encompass within a single concept virtually every progressive social change since the 17th century. Moreover, to obtain this end, they have defined modernization in terms which are so open-ended that it is almost impossible to identify precisely the range of phenomena to which the concept is intended to apply. (Tipps, 1973:218).

Applied to Education, modernization theorists view education as the development of knowledge, skills and capacities of the population in the society. Education per se, is seen as the engine for development. Education is thought to create national unity and universal values. These values are seen as necessary in creating a 'modern' nation. The attempt by African

nations after independence to expand the 'imported western education system without examining its relevance to local conditions, was clearly a result of this type of thinking, leading to the common aftermath of the unemployment crisis amongst school leavers (Kinyanjui, 1980).

Emerging in the 1960's, dependency theory was a reaction to the unsatisfactory nature of the theory of modernization as an explanation of the development process. Advanced by scholars such as Gunder Frank (1969), Stein and Stein (1970), Rodney (1974), among others, it is strongly argued that the prevailing poverty among Third World Countries is not a result of their backward norms and values but due to the excessive exploitation by the Western industrialized nations. Consequently, dependency theory takes as its central premise that it is impossible to comprehend the process and problems of development in the Third World without treating this within the wider socio-historical context of the expansion of Western Mercantile and industrial capitalism and the colonization of the Third World by these 'advanced' economies (Long, 1977:71).

Despite, the acknowledged contribution to our understanding of the mechanisms of poverty and under-development, the dependency school has its drawbacks. Like the theory of modernization, the dependency theory places heavy emphasis on relations and patterns occurring at the global level. Little attention is given to occurrences at the local level within the nation (Long, 1977:103; Kinyanjui, 1980:22).

The emphasis by dependency theorists on colonial and imperial factors as the chief causes of under-development in developing countries, is also a drawback in the sense that it ignores or gives little attention to other factors originating in developing countries themselves that may also be contributing to the condition of under-development.

Dependency theorists view western education as part and parcel of the developmental and social process in a dependency situation. Educational services and goods are thought to be organized to fit international and national hierarchies serving those in power at the expense of the majority which is in absolute poverty. The school system is thought to serve as a control mechanism (which) helps keep the poor and the rich in their 'proper' places during the process of economic growth. It does this by using the whole schooling process as a selection process, by making schooling an important allocator of socio-economic roles and by using the classroom as an environment in which to inculcate the establishment ideals of order and discipline (Chinapah and Fagerlind, 1979:34).

As a solution to the western type of education, the dependency theorists argue for the introduction of an educational structure that would preserve the state of self-reliance or collective self-reliance and hence eliminate the factors leading to a dependency situation. By making self-reliance a major theme in the type of

education that they consider 'proper', the theorists reflect the arguments for participatory decision-making and localization of educational personnel and other resources (Chinapah and Fagerlind, 1979:35).

The Basic Needs Approach (B.N.A.) arose as a reaction to various inadequacies inherent in the earlier development models. Unlike modernization and dependency theories, the B.N.A. is a synthesizing model to development taking into consideration the strong points while discarding the weak ones from other developmental theories. While encompassing the idea of widespread participation and self-reliance, as dependency theory does, it goes further into the intricacies of local level patterns and processes in the developing countries. The B.N.A. thus, has some of the salient features of a development paradigm that are relevant to planning for even small communities in the rural sector.

The concern for meeting "basic needs" arose from a concern with problems of mass poverty, unemployment and under-development coupled with low productivity which have persisted in many Third World countries (Hopkins and Hoeven, 1983:2)

"Basic needs" are defined by Galtung (1980:3)

as:

"Something human beings cannot do without, in their own judgement, without suffering basic degradation as human beings".

Galtung's definition implies that what constitutes 'basic needs', differ from individual to individual, from society to society, from nation to nation depending on their priorities and levels of development.

Rutjes (1979: 3), divides basic needs into five groups:

- (a) the need for personal consumer goods such as food, clothing, housing etc;
- (b) the need for universal access to services such as primary education, adult education, health care, communication etc;
- (c) the need for a physical, human and technological infrastructure with the capacity to produce the capital and intermediate goods necessary to provide consumer goods and services;
- (d) the need for productive employment yielding sufficient output and equitable enough remuneration so that individuals and families can earn a descent living and have an effective access to consumer goods;
- (e) the need for mass participation in decision-making in formulating strategies and in exerting influence on the implementation of projects and the leadership.

According to Chai and Lisk (1979:92), a programme may be defined as a basic needs activity if it incorporates some or all of the following features:

- (a) raises incomes of the target groups through employment creation, asset redistribution and productivity - enhancing measures to reach basic needs targets levels over a specified period;
- (b) makes a direct contribution to the achievement of the targets established in respect of core basic needs such as nutrition, health, education, housing and water;
- (c) increases production of other basic goods and services purchased by low-income groups from their disposable incomes and by public sector and communal agencies;
- (d) enhances decentralization, participation and self-reliance.

Education, in the basic human needs strategy is thought to improve and to satisfy the other basic needs as well as other development conditions of life. Education, in the B.N.A. is seen to satisfy the other basic needs for food, shelter, clothing, housing, health, through incomes arising from employment opportunities.

Education can be subdivided into three types, that is, Formal education, Informal Education and Non-formal Education. Formal Education is defined as (Ahmed & Coombs, 1975: xxviii):

"the hierarchically - structured and chronologically graded modern 'educational system' that stretches from primary school through the university."

As for, informal Education; Ahmed and Coombs (1975:xxviii) define it as:

"Education acquired through daily experiences and interactions with that particular person's social and economic environment"

And Non-formal Education; which covers the YP programme, is defined by Ahmed and Coombs (1975:xxix) as:

"Motley assortment of organized and semi-organized educational activities operating outside the regular structure and routines of the formal system, aimed at serving a great variety of learning needs of different subgroups in the population, both young and old."

The decision of the Government of Kenya, in collaboration with other non-governmental organizations to start an alternative non-formal education system for self-reliance that offers practical education and training, may be viewed under the B.N.A., as a strategy aimed at bringing about rural development through the promotion of self-employment and the production of cheap basic goods and service needed in the rural areas.

As a basic needs activity, the YP programme, like the other programmes, is likely to encounter several problems in the various stages of operation. Such problems are likely to hinder the programme's ability and capacity to adequately meet its set goals and objectives. To reverse such a situation, it is imperative that such inadequacies are identified and explained and the relevant solutions suggested for implementation.

In conclusion we have thus adopted the BNA as our theoretical framework following from the various analytical advantages over the earlier discussed theories.

1.6.0 Methodology

Under this Section, we examine the study area (Bungoma District) in all its relevant aspects, methods used to conduct the study, sampling of the various study components, the data analysis techniques, and the problems encountered in the course of the study:-

1.6.1 Study Area

The research was conducted in Bungoma District. Bungoma is one of the three districts in Western Province, the others being Kakamega and Busia. The district is situated on the Southern Slopes of Mount Elgon, forming the most northerly part of the district. It borders the Republic of Uganda to the northwest, Trans Nzoia district to the north, Kakamega district to the East and South-east, and Busia district to the West and South-West (Republic of Kenya, ² 1989:1).

The district is within the Lake Victoria Basin, rising from 1,200 metres above sea level in the West and South-West to over 4,000 metres above sea level to the north. There are two distinct land forms. Mt. Elgon slopes and the lowlands. The district is mainly drained by the Nzoia, Kibisi, Kuywa, Kimilili, and Iwakhakha rivers (Republic of Kenya, ² 1989:1).

The relief and land forms affect the climate and the general development potential of the district. The gently sloping terrain in most parts of the district accompanied by fair rainfall and generally good soils, provide a very productive arable area.

Bungoma is generally regarded as a district with high agricultural potential. It experiences two rainy seasons, the long and short rains. The long rains season normally starts in March and continues into June or July, while short rains season starts in August and continues into October. Most of the rain falls during the long rains season and is usually heaviest in April and May. It is also during the long rains that most farming activities take place, such as cultivation, planting, weeding and fertilizer application (Republic of Kenya, 1989:2).

The north, north-western and southern parts of the district tend to get the heaviest amount of rain while the amount received in the central and eastern parts is less. Rainfall normally ranges between 1,250mm to over 1,800mm per annum (Republic of Kenya, 1989:2).

The district has a wide range of soil types which are suited to growing of various agricultural crops. The only poor soils (Stony and rocky) occur in the centre of the district and are a minor type (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 2-5).

Administratively, the district is divided into seven divisions, Mt. Elgon division having been recently split into two, that is Kapsakwony and Cheptais divisions (Republic of Kenya, 1989:8). However, when carrying out this study, we had relied on the 1984/88 Bungoma District Development

Plan which, by then, indicated that the district had six divisions, that is, Sirisia, Kanduyi, Webuye, Mt. Elgon, Kimilili and Tongaren (Republic of Kenya, 1984:1). Thus in this study, the newly created Kapsakwony and Cheptais divisions are treated under the former Mt. Elgon division.

The district, apart from the divisions, has 23 locations and 73 sub-locations (Republic of Kenya, 1989:11)² Sirisia division has the largest number of locations while both Sirisia and Kanduyi divisions have the largest number of sublocations.

Apart from the Mt. Elgon area, Bungoma district is well covered by service centres. In total, there are 63 Service Centres which include 3 Urban Centres, 5 Rural Centres, 17 Market Centres and 38 local centres (Republic of Kenya, 1989:19)².

Communicationwise, a part from the upper part of the mountain area (Mt. Elgon), all places are quite accessible with reasonable communication coverage. The road network comprises 1,369.4Km of classified roads. These include 114.2Km of tarmac roads, 736.6Km of gravel roads and 518.6Km of earth roads (Republic of Kenya, 1989:22)².

As for the population density and distribution, in 1969 the district population was 345,226, rising to 503,935 in 1979. This gave an intercensal annual growth rate of 3.85%. Between 1979 and 1988 the population was expected to increase with an estimated average growth rate of 4.2% per year, reaching about 731,411 people in 1988. The structure of the population is pyramidal, with most of the population

being found in the lower part of the pyramid and much fewer people at the top and middle. About 64% of the 1979 population was young people between the ages of 0-19 years. Only 36% accounted for the population over 20 years (Republic of Kenya, 1989²: 14ff).

Social-economic profile: Agriculture is the mainstay of the district economy. The majority of the inhabitants are engaged in small-scale farming. Cotton, sunflower, pyrethrum, wheat, maize, tobacco and sugarcane are grown.

Livestock is also reared, albeit on a small scale. The livestock reared include cattle, sheep and goats. These livestock provide meat, milk and skins both for sale and domestic consumption.

The district has three factories, that is, papermill at Webuye, sugar factory at Nzoiá, and a cotton ginnery at Malakisi. In addition, there is a tobacco leaf-centre at Malakisi (Republic of Kenya, 1984: 9-10).

With one of the highest birth rates (3.8%) in the country and a rapidly growing labour force, Bungoma district faces a problem in terms of sufficient job creation, increased incomes and the provision of basic needs. The informal sector represents an important source of non-farm employment creation supplementing employment opportunities being generated in the agricultural sector.

One hundred seventy seven thousand, three hundred forty eight (66%) people out of an estimated labour force of 265,962 are engaged in farming activities. The public sector employs approximately 13,300 persons which is

5.2% of the total labour force. The commercial sector/business sector had a total number of 46,082 persons engaged, which is about 17.07% of the total labour force with the informal sector share of about 16.5% (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 31).

The current (by 1988) labour force is estimated at 266,293 persons. Comparing the labour force in 1988 with employment generation in the same year in all sectors within the district approximately 22,795 persons or 8.56% of the labour force were unemployed (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 32).

Income: during the last plan period, total earnings from wage employment were only 1.43% of the total district earnings which was approximately 8,234 million. Most earnings were derived from small-holders in the agricultural sector where the majority are engaged (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 34).

Education and Training: The district has 469 primary schools with a population of 215,029 pupils. There are 115 secondary schools (Government, Private and Harambee) with a total student population of 21,981, (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 195). As for YPs, there are 11 non-government assisted ones and 11 that are Government assisted. The distribution of the Government assisted YPs is as follows: Kanduyi division (3 YPs), Sirisia (1 YP), Webuye (1 YP), Kimilili (3 YPs), Mt. Elgon (1 YP) and Tongaren (2 YPs).

1.6.2. Method of Study

In the collection of our data, we used Library, Survey and observation research techniques.

Under Library research, we made use of the various works on the YP programme and its perceived relationship to rural development. These works included theses, evaluation reports by individuals and groups under government, or non-governmental organizations, research publications of the Institute of Development Studies as well as published government documents such as the National and District Development Plans and Sessional Papers.

The use of the survey technique involved both self administered interviews through prepared questionnaires and direct interviews by the author with some of the respondents. Two types of questionnaires were prepared. Both questionnaires consisted of open and closed-ended questions..

Questionnaire type 1 was answered by current students and leavers of the YP. This questionnaire had 54 questions in total.

Section A of questionnaire 1 was answered by current students only. The questions asked in this section were to help us acquire information pertaining to various aspects of the YP programme, that is, the role of the national rural development policies, the quality of the managers as perceived by the students, and their views on the quality of YP training.

Section B of questionnaire 1 was answered by YP graduates only. The questions asked were meant to give us information on the quality of YP training, the employment rates and patterns, the role of national

rural development policies in relation to employment, and the quality of management.

Questionnaire type II was divided into several sections, that is, section A(1) for both YP Project Managers and members of the management committees; section A(2), for YP Project Managers only; section A(3) for members of the management committee only; section B for Government officials in charge of the programme; section C, for parents or guardians to YP graduates.

Section A(1) of questionnaire II was to be answered by both project managers and members of the management committee. This section was to give us information on various issues such as: background information on the YP, the YP goals and objectives, areas (rural or urban) where most graduates work, the economic activities practised in an area and their link to employment creation, issues relating to the relevant national rural development policies, the quality and quantity of YP instructors, the management of YP finances among others.

Section A (2) was to give us information on the levels of technical and administrative qualifications of the project managers and their perception of the roles of the management committees.

Section A(3) gave us the views of the members of the management committee on the qualifications and performance of the project managers.

Section B, which was administered to Government officials was to give us views on the qualifications of YP project managers, the quality of YP training, the role of

the relevant national rural development policies in the rural areas, the quality of YP goods and services, and in general, whether YPs were meeting their set goals or not.

Section C, was for parents/guardians of YP graduates to gives us information on their views on the role of YPs in the rural areas, the quality of YP management, the quality of YP goods and services among others.

Apart from the respondents filling information in the questionnaires, where possible, direct interviews by the author were made. These took place when we visited the various selected YPs and the divisional headquarters housing the offices of Divisional Social Development Assistants.

In sending out the questionnaires to the respondents we relied on both the methods of mailing and distribution by hand. The return of the questionnaires, once again, was through mail and hand collection.

Apart from library and the survey techniques, we also used the observational techniques in the collection of data. This was useful when it came to visiting the various YPs. During such visits, we were able to see for ourselves the quantity of tools, equipments, working materials and workshops in the YPs. When interviewing some of the YP leavers, we did so at their small business premises. This gave us an opportunity to see for ourselves the type and quality of goods and services rendered, for instance, furniture making and house construction.

1.6.3 Sampling

The respondents comprised various categories of our study population. These ranged from Government officials directly in charge of the YP programme at the district and divisional levels; YP project managers and some members of the management committees; YP current students/trainees; YP leavers/graduates; and some of the parents/guardians to the YP graduates.

The technique of Systematic Random Sampling was used to pick out our samples from the study population. In this technique, the estimated number of elements in the larger population was divided by the desired sample size, yielding a sampling interval (let us call it "X"), and the sample was drawn by listing the population elements in an arbitrary order and selecting every Xth case, starting with a randomly selected number between one and "X". This technique of sampling was specifically applied to the categories of current students and leavers.

However, in cases where the technique of systematic random sampling was not possible, due to various reasons that shall be outlined later in Section 1.5.5., non-probability sampling technique was applied. Under non-probability sampling, the respondents were selected depending on their availability.

(a) Sampling of the Youth Polytechnics

The YPs selected for this study were all Government-assisted ones. This was so for reasons outlined in Section 1.5.5.

According to the Bungoma District Development Plan (Republic of Kenya, 1984: 35), the district has a total of 11 Government-assisted YPs. However, our field work findings revealed the actual existence of only 10 of them. Tongaren YP which would have been the eleventh one had by then collapsed and gone out of existence. The ten existing YPs were Sirisia (Sirisia division), Sinoko (Webuye division), Kisongo (Mt. Elgon division), Naitiri (Tongaren division), Khasoko, Kisiwa and Mufula (Kanduyi division), Matili, ~~Chebukwabi~~ and Sosio (Kimilili division).

To make sure that all areas in the district were represented in the YP sample, we decided to pick YPs on a divisional (administratively) basis. Consequently, each of the six divisions in the district contributed at least one YP for our sample. Kanduyi and Kimilili divisions which happened to have more than one government-assisted YP, led us to use the technique of simple random sampling to pick out the desired two YPs from each of these two divisions. The decision to have two YPs each from Kanduyi and Kimilili divisions instead of one like in the case of the other four divisions were reached on the basis that each of these two divisions had three Government-assisted YPs. The selection of two YPs from each of them will ensure a fair and representative sample. Thus in the final analysis, we ended up with a total of 8 YPs in our sample, that is, Sirisia, Sinoko, Kisongo, Naitiri, Khasoko, Kisiwa, Matili and Chebukwabi.

(b) Sampling of graduates and current students

From each YP selected, ten graduates were given questionnaires to fill. The decision to limit our number to ten graduates from each YP was reached basing on the fact that it would at least give us a representative sample of graduates from each YP and it would be within our research means in terms of both financial resources and time period. Thus in all 80 questionnaires were distributed to YP graduates from the various YPs. The graduates were picked from the years ranging from 1985 to 1989. The main reason for interviewing graduates from these various years was to enable us acquire data that is comparative in nature. The assumption was that, the problems and fortunes of the graduates may be influenced differently depending on the time lapse between particular year of graduation and the length of time on the labour market. While in the field, we decided to include a few more leavers from 1982, 1983, and 1984 to increase the total number of graduates in our sample. This became necessary when we realised that the turn-out rate of graduates from the 1985-1989 period would not be satisfactory.

All in all, out of the questionnaires we gave out both through mail and hand, only 53 responded by either mailing or giving them in person. This represented a response rate of 66.3%. This was considered a satisfactory percentage for this study.

As for the current students, a total of 32 questionnaires were dispatched through hand delivery. Hand delivery method was used since most of the current students to be interviewed could easily be traced through the current YP records. Most of the current students interviewed were within the YP surrounding areas. Out of the 32 questionnaires given out, we received back 25 of them. This represented a response rate of 78.1%.

(c) Sampling of Project Managers and members of the Management Committees

All the eight project managers of the 8 YPs were interviewed. Questionnaires were given to them in person. The response rate was thus 100%.

Eight members of the management committees, that is, at least one from each YP were given questionnaires to fill. However, only four of them returned the filled questionnaires. This was a response rate of 50%.

(d) Sampling of Government Officials and Parents/guardians to YP graduates

In sampling the Government officials, we concentrated on the District Social Development Officer plus her six Divisional Social Development Assistants. These are the officers directly in charge of the YP programme at the district level. At the end of the day, we were able to interview five of them representing a response rate of 71.4%.

A total of 20 questionnaires were either mailed or given to the parents/guardians by hand. However, only 8 of them responded. This was a response rate of only 40%.

Overall, out of a total of 155 respondents we expected to interview in this study, we managed to do so to 103 of them. This represented a response rate of 66.5% which is considered adequate for the study.

1.6.4 Data Analysis Techniques

Data was analysed manually. Raw information was transformed for tabulation and analysis after the preparation of data coding instructions for open-ended questions.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied in the analysis of the data. The main descriptive statistic used is the percentage.

Where possible, we used inferential statistics to help in falsifying or supporting a hypothesis. This was revealed through the indication of the direction and strength of a relationship. Both Spearman Rank Order and Kendall Coefficient of Concordance statistics were used (see, Prewitt, 1980: 99-108).

Youth Polytechnics were rank-ordered in terms of the various variables being measured to determine the direction and strength between/among them.

In using the Spearman Rank-Order Statistic, the following formular was utilised:

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

whereby, r_s , stand for Spearman Rank-Order symbol,

\sum stands for Sum,
 d^2 , stands for differences squared,

N , stands for number of things being ranked.

The spearman rank-order statistic was used in cases where only two variables were being ranked. It takes a value from -1.00 through 0 to $+1.00$, the minus one indicating a perfect negative relationship between the two rankings and the plus one indicating a perfect positive relationship between the two rankings .

Where Kendall Coefficient of Concordance ("W") statistic has been used, was when we were looking for associations across more than two rankings of variables. This statistics takes values between 0 and $+1.00$. That is, if there is perfect agreement among the rankings, the association will be $+1.00$. If there is no agreement at all, the association will be 0 . The formular for this statistic is as follows:

$$W = \frac{S}{\left(\frac{1}{12}\right) \times (N^3 - N)}$$

Whereby S = sum of the squares of the observed deviations from the mean,

K = number of sets of rankings

N = number of things being ranked.

1.6.5 Problems encountered in the course of the study

Whereas our original intention was to include non-government aided YPs in our sample of the YPs, this could not be possible. Out of the 11 non-government aided

YPs in the district, only a few (such as Machakha YP) have been in existence for long. Due to the fact that a large number of the non-Government aided YPs were established in recent years, we could not get the particular graduates intended for our study. While for a YP like Machakha, although it has been in existence for quite a number of years, drawing out adequate respondents was a problem due to its severe under enrollment of trainees. Consequently, even a YP like Machakha had to be excluded from our sample.

Thus, following the above inadequacies in the non-Government aided YPs, the study had no alternative but to concentrate on Government-aided YPs only. Most, if not all, of the Government-aided YPs seemed to meet our study requirements. However, we still realize that, the ideal situation would have been a comparative analysis between Government and non-Government assisted YPs on various aspects of the programme, only that this was not possible.

While trying to use Systematic random sampling technique to sample the graduates, we encountered several problems: First, most project managers failed to provide us with the necessary files from which we could accurately draw out the sampling frame for the graduates. The files happened to be either misplaced or simply lost. The situation was made worse by the fact that, at the time of conducting this research, a total reshuffling of the project managers was going on. This

meant that, in some of the YPs, we were meeting new managers who were by then not well-informed on the administrative aspects of their new YPs they had been posted to. Under such difficulties, it was sometimes impossible to draw out the sampling frame for the graduates thus making us rely on non-probability techniques. Second, even in YPs where files were available, and thus enabling us to accurately draw out the sampling frame for the graduates, the sample of graduates selected was difficult to locate within the local areas. Some of the graduates had moved far away from the local area of the YPs and their contacts were unavailable. In such circumstances, we were made to do with those graduates we could just locate within the local area.

As for the current students, we had at the outset planned to interview only those who were in their final year of training. This was based on the assumption such finalists would be well-versed in matters concerning the various aspects of YP training. However, while in the field, we discovered that most of the finalists were on practicals, this being their final year of training.

The practicals were at times being carried out far away from their YPs. Thus, we had no alternative but to also interview a few current students who were not finalists as a replacement.

Last but not least, we experienced difficulties in getting access to computer services for data analysis. This was due to the fact that the computer services

were not easily available because of being very expensive and thus beyond our means. The alternative for us was to rely on manual techniques for data analysis.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN KENYA AND THE EMERGENCE OF
THE YOUTH POLYTECHNIC PROGRAMME

This chapter gives an insight into the question of vocational education in Kenya. Vocation education in colonial Kenya is examined with the objectives of establishing the origins and development of Vocational Education Policy in Kenya. Although, colonial Vocational Education was much of a failure, it laid much of the foundation upon which the YP programme was subsequently based in independent Kenya.

The YP programme, coming into existence soon after independence, was supported by both the Government and non-governmental organizations. The significance of the YP programme, lay in the fact that, it seemed to be a viable solution to the unemployment crisis among school leavers and other related problems of rural underdevelopment.

However, as experience has shown, the YP programme has not been entirely successful in meeting its set goals and objectives. Various studies have been carried out and revealed several problems that may be accounting for prevailing YP programme performance. These studies are discussed systematically in our literature review whereupon various suggestions are made which have acted partly as the basis of our study rationale.

2.1 The Evolution of Vocational Education Policy

The British colonial authorities - government officials, the settlers and even the missionaries - in formulating education policies and practices in colonial Kenya, were much influenced by the staunch belief that the African, by nature, was inferior to the whiteman. Consequently, emerging from such racist thoughts, the African was only suited to menial and tedious occupation such as farming and unskilled labour. As Sifuna (1976 : 67) argues:

"the general assumption of the anthropologist and ethnologists was that the African was neither skilful nor capable of delicate manipulation. Certainly the African would not comprehend and hence he could not be taught any type of bookish education; for, while his perceptive faculties were strong, his 'reflective' and 'imaginative' faculties were sorely underdeveloped."

-Following the official view that the assistance Africans could render towards the economic development of the country was in development of the reserves and co-operation as labourers in European enterprises, emphasis was put on industrial and practical education. The colonial government, by 1911, had founded the department of education, which emphasized on industrial

training in basic skills such as smithing, carpentry, agriculture for Africans. By the end of the first World War (1918), industrial education had become the connerstone of African education.

As the years went by, African education, industrial and vocational in nature, was codified as a policy. October 1947, a Mission (1948:4) was appointed by the Crown Agents for the Colonies to examine and make recommendations to the governments of Kenya, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar on:

- (a) the short term needs of vocational training and technical education in the light of Government and non-Government requirements in the territories and of the territorial development plans and plans for the general economic development of the four territories;
- (b) the long term requirements of general and technical education in the four territories in the light of facilities already in existence and plans drawn up or in process of formulation for the training of technicians, artisans and clerks.

The Mission (1948: 5) came up with the report that there exists in the territories a strong desire for development in technical education and vocational training. It was realised that the territories were faced with two major needs:

- (a) to meet an existing and widespread deficiency of skilled artisans, which was holding up not only normal development but also interfering seriously with the larger development plans of Government, mines and the groundnut scheme;
- (b) to provide for a normal flow of entrants from the educational system into industry and commerce. It was envisaged that the educational system would provide a general educational preparation for entry into apprenticeships or other forms of training schemes within industry and commerce.

Although, the colonial government was operating training schemes for ex-Askaris in trades such as carpentry, joinery, masonry, brickwork, shoemaking and repairing, tinsmithing, motor vehicle mechanics, tailoring, electric wiring, fitting machine tool work, and blacksmiths, the Mission urged for the start and expansion of formal trade schools as well as teacher training colleges. The Government adopted most of the report recommendations and accordingly various teacher-training colleges such as Kagumo and Siriba started emphasising on agriculture, animal husbandry and handicraft courses.

On vocational training schemes, the Mission (1948: 6-7) suggested that:

- (a) the principals in charge should have had industrial experience, possess technical qualifications and experience in teaching or instructing;
- (b) the instructors should be first class craftsmen with a higher educational background that is usual with craftsmen, and with some experience in teaching or instructing;
- (c) where existing principals or instructors are lacking in teaching experience or ability, they be given a short course in the territory concerned by specially selected teachers;
- (d) an essential point of each training scheme should be that the trainees should carry out production work under actual working conditions, provided it fits into the progressive scheme of training and trainees are not kept on one job too long.

With the above efforts, industrial education and practical training for the Africans took shape in the country. Despite the drive and enthusiasm shown by the colonial government in favour of industrial and practical education, the African recipients, to a large extent, were unhappy and disillusioned with it. Consequently, industrial education in schools remained very unpopular. This was for various reasons: The effort to teach practical and traditional values was suspected by Africans as an attempt to ensure cultural

divisions with Africans relegated to a position of subjugation. Africans grew suspicious of this type of education for they noticed the slow rate of development in the reserves and realised that the government policy was designed to keep them labourers in perpetuity. As for the industrial training given by the missionaries, it proved of little value to the Africans in seeking employment as it lacked cohesion and consistency and guaranteed no recognized standards (Sifuna, 1979; 142-147).

The failure of industrial education during the colonial period can also be attributed to the shortage of staff, lack of equipment which restricted practical education to clearing of school compound, planting, weeding and harvesting. It was difficult for schools to obtain grants for buying the necessary tools to carry out technical programmes (Mutua, 1975: 7).

Industrial and practical education during the colonial period received little success also because of the fact that the syllabus lacked flexibility, making little allowance for regional variations, with the result that some recommended programmes failed completely (Sifuna, 1976: 142-147). Examples of inflexibility in the syllabus for industrial and practical education was when agricultural institutions were established in areas where they were either unsuitable or not required - crop farming was being promoted in parts of Ukambani and yet the local inhabitants were neither agriculturalists by nature nor did the climate favour the enterprise.

Thus, the history of vocational education and training in colonial Kenya was to a large extent a failure. Its failure lay mainly in the very reasons for its establishment. It was based more on racist and segregative lines than genuine reasons to help the Africans become independent and self-reliant in the socio-economic sphere. Following this policy trend it is hardly surprising that the independent Kenya African Government started with a strong bias against practical education and training, while heavily favouring the formal type of western education on the other hand.

2.2 The Post-colonial Era: The Youth Polytechnic Programme and Rural Development

Despite the failure of vocational education in colonial Kenya, it was still significant since it provided most of the curriculum upon which the YP programme was to be based in independent Kenya.

On gaining independence in 1963, one of the first things the Kenyan Government did was to expand educational opportunities. The British colonial authorities had provided few facilities because they feared that education of the indigenous population might spark off widespread opposition to their rule. The policy chosen by Kenya, after independence, to rapidly expand its formal school system as the path to social and economic development, had far-reaching effects particularly on the primary school system culminating in what has been referred to as "the School Leaver Problem". The teaching

of practical subjects at the primary school level was made difficult by the requirements of the certificate of primary school examination which did not examine the knowledge of pupils in these fields. The school curriculum, had essentially become elitist and geared to training its graduates for white-collar jobs.

Expanded primary school education led to rapid enrollment in schools. The number of pupils attending primary school rose from 900,000 (1963) to 1,400,000 in 1970 (Sifuna, 1976). As for the leavers of the primary school, whereas in the colonial period we had only approximately 15,000, by 1973 we had 208,000 and 1978, 357,000 (see table No. 1). Whereas, only a few of these leavers managed to join secondary school to advance their formal education, the majority remained unemployed. This led the Kenya Government, in collaboration with other non-Governmental organizations, to look for solutions outside the conventional school system. These endeavours to solve the school leaver problem led to the emergence of the Youth Polytechnic Programme as an attempt to solve the unemployment crisis amongst the rising numbers of primary school leavers.

The National Council of Churches of Kenya (NCCK) was among the earliest organizations in Kenya to conceive the idea of the YP as an institution offering practical education to primary school leavers. The whole idea was based on the need to solve the primary-school leaver

problem which was fast becoming a national crisis in form of large scale unemployment. The NCKK in putting its concern into action, organized a workshop in 1966 to look into the problem of the school leavers. The deliberations of the workshop were published in a bookform entitled "After School What?" (NCKK Report, 1966).

Year (Period)	Colonial Period	1963	1968	1973	1978
Number of Primary School Leavers	15,000	140,000	147,000	208,000	357,000
Secondary School intake	-	-	15,000	20,400	24,500
Percentage of Primary School leavers who get to Secondary School	-	-	10.2%	9.8%	6.9%

Table No. 1: Shows rises in provision of primary school places (Caplen, 1981: 5).

To solve the school-leaver unemployment crisis, amongst the rural youth in particular, the NCKK Report (1966:60) suggested that a large number of training institutions should be established. The name 'polytechnic' rather than 'youth centre' was adopted by the Report because it was thought to have the practical and 'all-around' associations which were to be characteristic of these institutions.

The NCKK Report (1966:61), further suggested that the 'YP', otherwise referred to as Village Polytechnic by then, should be run by a local committee and should offer 2 year training courses. It was further suggested that it would be advisable to set up the first 'YP' in those areas where the agricultural revolution has already begun to move the population towards modern farming methods, where there would be both a 'surplus' to pay towards the costs of the 'YP' and also a capacity to absorb the new skills within the local community.

The NCKK Report (1966: 64) was very optimistic of the advantages of such a new enterprise. It envisaged that:

"Such a scheme would bring considerable benefits to the nation. The energies of about half each annual group of unemployed rural primary school leavers would be mobilized for two years and oriented towards profitable activity in their own localities The process of economic development and nation-building would be speeded up, and the tide of the rural exodus would be significantly reduced"

Reflected in the NCKK Report, is the argument encompassing the theory that, unemployment is due to an educational system which turns out inappropriately trained labour. The solution, thus, is to reform the education system by promoting non-formal, practically-oriented training like the YP Programme which imparts the skills necessary for gaining local craft employment.

The pioneering work of the NCKK was closely followed by a Government sponsored conference at Kericho in 1966. Guided by more or less similar arguments of the NCKK Report, the Kericho Conference, whose main agenda was, "Education, Employment and Rural Development", made two major recommendations that were to be included in what it termed as the "National Plan for Youth" (Fordham and Sheffield, 1967: 377-378):

- (a) to divert the drive for academic education to a more practical type of training reflected to children's probable future in rural areas;
- (b) to ensure that education and training opportunities at every level relate to each other and to the formal education system.

The primary school leaver, being its immediate topic of discussion, the conference urged that the plan to be drawn to deal with the school leaver problem should call for the provision of education/training which is directly oriented towards self-employment in the rural areas. It further urged that, the primary school leaver should be absorbed by an institution like the 'village polytechnic'

Appreciating the seriousness of the unemployment crisis amongst its youth, the Government of Kenya adopted the Youth Polytechnic Programme in 1969 and emphasized on giving school leavers technical skills which could enable them to engage in gainful employment and at the same time use these skills to develop mainly rural communities in which they live.

David Court (1972:2), one of the earliest scholars to undertake investigations on the YP Programme, defined a 'YP' as,:

"..... a low-cost training centre in a rural area. It aims at giving the primary school leavers from that area skills, understanding and values which will make them able to look for money-making opportunities where they live, and to contribute to rural development by building up the economic strength of their own community".

Three years earlier, Winans (1969:7) had described a 'YP' as:

"a very simple low-cost training centre for school-leavers to provide them with opportunities for developing their characters and changing their out-look on life; also to provide them with skills the exercise of which will fill a need in their home. The aim of the training is to be for self-employment and rural development."

Later, the Evaluation Mission (1974:34) helped in the definitional efforts by drawing out the main YP characteristics as follows:

- (1) Objectives of training: local self-employment and family advancement.
- (2) Catchment and service area: local area
- (3) Recruitment criteria: interest
- (4) Capital facilities: low-cost and minimal in size
- (5) Curriculum: unbounded
- (6) Medium of instruction: Vernacular, Swahili and English
- (7) Standards: local demand and self to YP.

- (8) Leadership: Participatory or communal
- (9) Organization: Flexible
- (10) Time necessary: Two years
- (11) Administration: Local autonomy
- (12) Responsibility of leavers: Specific to community

From the above definitions and characteristics of YPs, their main objectives and goals can be said to be: the provision of new ideas for rural development to mainly primary school leavers; provision of basic products and services that local people need and want; acting as centre for community activity; and provision of local entrepreneurs (YP graduates) who will help develop the community.

Thus, YPs, as institutions located mainly in the rural areas, are expected to enhance and accelerate rural development. The emphasis on rural development by developing nations, is well-attested to by the vast attention that has been given to the subject matter by policy makers, scholars, among others (Lele, 1974; Todaro 1977; Eicher and Baker, 1982; Johnston and Clark, 1982; Ngumbu Mussa-Nda, 1988). The discussion of the concept and phenomenon of rural development has paid great attention to its objectives and goals.

Todaro (1977:258) argued that the goals of rural development cannot simply be restricted to agricultural and economic growth. Rather, they must be viewed in terms of a 'balanced' economic and social development with emphasis on the equitable distribution as well as the rapid generation of the benefits of higher

living standards. Among these broader goals, therefore, are the creation of more employment opportunities both on and off the farm; more equitable distribution of rural incomes; more widely distributed improvements in health, nutrition and housing; and finally, a broadened access to the kind of formal and non-formal education for the rural populace that will have direct relevance to the needs and aspirations of rural dwellers.

Ngumbu Mussa-Nda (1988:6) in re-emphasising the goals of rural development, has argued that, the key objectives of rural development are:

".....promotion of people's participation in development; increasing productivity in rural regions; food self-sufficiency; promotion and diversification of employment in rural areas; increasing income and its equitable distribution; elimination of rural poverty; and reduction of the differences between urban areas and the country-side."

However, to successfully bring about rural development, rural communities need to be mobilized into organizations that will streamline and co-ordinate their efforts. These type of organizations may be founded around what has become known in development literature as, "Local-level development" strategy. According to Alila (1988:143), the emphasis in this strategy is on mobilizing and improving local knowledge, entrepreneurship, and human capital. Alila, further argues that, such a strategy should enable local communities to mobilize local resources more efficiently and overcome locational, structural or physical disadvantages.

The establishment of YPs, mainly in the rural areas may be viewed as an attempt to found local-level rural organizations for purposes of speeding up rural development in its various aspects. However, the success of such organizations in initiating and sustaining the process of rural development, seems to be limited by various obstacles. Such obstacles relate to lack of adequate supportive national rural development policies, poor institutional management, limited rural resource base and generally underdeveloped rural economies.

2.3 Literature review on the influence of National rural development policies, the rural economy and Human and Material resource base on the contribution of the YP Programme to rural development.

In reviewing works on YPs and their perceived link to rural development, we realize that such works are still scanty. As noted by Nzioka (1986:25), this may be so from the fact that, first, YPs are a recent phenomenon in Kenya having been initiated only in 1967, and second, being small-scale rural-oriented institutions, they have attracted little attention. However, past studies and Evaluations include Court, 1972; Evaluation Mission, 1974; Ferguson and Barker, 1979; Migot-Adholla and Owiro, 1981; Caplen, 1981; Orwa, 1982; Ongolo, 1983; Yambo, 1986; and Nzioka, 1986.

In this section, we concentrate on some specific aspects that are related to the main focus of this study, namely, the role of national rural development policies in determining the impact of YPs in the development of the rural sector; the relationship between the level of prosperity of the local rural economy and the subsequent YP contribution to the development of the rural areas; and the influence of the YP Programme human and material resource base on the achievement of the YP goals and objectives.

2.3.1 Role of National Rural Development Policies

National rural development policies can be viewed as relevant state decisions, pronouncements and actions meant to organize and streamline the efforts by the rural communities in meeting certain set goals and objectives. Such State moves and deliberations can be found in various public documents, for instance, the Development Plans, Sessional Papers, among others.

Friedmann (1981) has argued that the involvement of the state in organizing rural people for rural development is a significant process. What is involved, he argues, is a means for empowering people to act on their own behalf. However, since the people cannot do this alone, the state's agency is needed to give support and direction to the effort. In the case of rural mobilization, which in part involves the organization of the peasantry around their own interests, the role of the state should be to inspire, empower, guide, facilitate, promote, assist and support.

Rondinelli (1986:426), on his part, has asserted that national rural development policies play an important role in project design by providing parameters for the definition of goals and purposes, and for the selection of inputs and outputs. They reflect, and in some cases, help shape the environment in which the projects are carried out, and the amount of support host governments give them.

The principal objective of rural development, which is to be reflected in rapid socio-economic growth and development in the rural areas has led to the formulation of various national policies which are meant to enhance and promote this process. Such elaborate national policies include: The concentration of scarce resources for urban infrastructure in selected small towns, designated Rural Trade and Production Centres (RTPCs) designed to provide a range of basic physical infrastructure and facilities to support agriculture, and other production, employment generating activities; the strengthening of local authorities to enable them to provide competent administration and management of growing rural centres; and the promotion in the growth of non-farm employment opportunities in rural centres, primarily in small-scale manufacturing and commercial activities, the bulk of which will be in the informal sector (Republic of Kenya, 1986:42).

The responsibility for planning and implementing rural development policies has been shifted from the headquarters of ministries to the districts. This

strategy known as the District Focus for Rural Development (D.F.R.D.) is based on the principle of a complementary relationship between the ministries with their sectoral approach to development and the districts with their integrated approach to addressing local needs.

Responsibility for the operational aspects of district-specific rural development projects has been delegated to the districts. The objective of this strategy of shifting increased responsibility to the districts is to broaden the base of rural development and encourage local initiative in order to improve problem identification, resource mobilization and project design and implementation (Republic of Kenya, 1987:1).

The general policy to promote the informal sector in the rural areas is aimed at creating rural non-farm job opportunities to reduce the problem of unemployment which is in turn associated with the rural-urban migration. Promotion of the informal sector has meant increased dedication by the Government towards this sector. Accordingly, the Government has promised to assist the sector by examining the laws, regulations and procedures which have frustrated small-scale enterprises from competing on an equal footing with the more established firms as well as speeding up the review of local authority by-laws and regulations that have proved restrictive to the development of small-scale enterprises. This is to include the suspension of certain categories of licences, recommending an appropriate scale of licence fees and

charges, protecting street hawkers and other self-employed people from over-zealous policing, appropriate revision of building codes and ease of allocation of land to these enterprises (Republic of Kenya, 1986:58 and Republic of Kenya, 1989: 164-167).

Apart from the above policies over laws and regulations the Government promised to promote schemes that can provide graduates of YPs and other institutions as well as non-graduate members of the informal sector with the tools of their trade and with small infusions of working capital (in form of credit and loan facilities) to start up their own businesses. (see both Republic of Kenya, 1986:56 and Republic of Kenya, 1989: 164-167).

Last but not least, the Government promised the informal sector that it will issue new regulations on tendering that require central ministries and district authorities to favour small-scale producers (Republic of Kenya, 1986: 56).

However, several works on the YPs, whose graduates form a significant part of the informal sector have revealed that the extent of the implementation of these policies (credit/loan facilities, licencing and tendering) has been minimal. YP graduates experience severe problems in attempting to establish themselves as self-employed entrepreneurs due to lack of adequate tools, equipment, materials and initial starting capital (Court, 1972; Caplen, 1981; Nzioka, 1986; Yambo, 1986). The graduates have been known also to experience major

frustrations in their attempts to acquire business licences and permits from the relevant authorities (Caplen, 1981). The allocation of public tenders to YP graduates has also been found out by some scholars to be unsatisfactory. (Caplen, 1981:73-74). The aftermath of such unsatisfactory implementation of development policies has been the reduction of the self-employment scope for the YP graduates.

Thus, in examining this aspect of the study, our investigations shall endeavour to answer two related questions, that is, to what extent has the implementation of such national rural development pronouncements at the local level improved? and secondly, what impact has this had on the contribution of the YPs, through the graduates, to the development of the rural sector?

2.3.2 YP Human and Material Resource Base

Human resource in the YPs refers to the staff that is directly concerned with the internal running and functioning of the YP. The staff includes the project managers who head the institutions; the members of the management committees, who play an advisory and co-ordinatory role between the YP and the local community; and the instructors who are involved in the actual teaching/instruction of trainees.

Material resources refer to equipments/tools, training materials, workshops and funds available to the YP. These material resources are also crucial in the training programme of the YP.

In assessing the state of the human and material resource base in YPs, our main contention is that, their particular levels - excellent, good, satisfactory or poor - in all aspects, will have an influence on the achievement of the YP set goals. Various scholars and Evaluation Missions have examined this issue before and come up with several recommendations.

In 1974, the Government of Kenya, in collaboration with the Norwegian Agency for International Development, appointed an Evaluation Mission to investigate on the standing and role of YPs in rural development since their inception. The Evaluation Mission (1974:52) came up with the findings that the YP programme contributes significantly to employment and rural development. It thus justified the efforts undertaken by Kenyan authorities and the external support lent to it.

However, despite the glowing tribute to the YP Programme, the Mission cautioned the Government on various issues concerning the programme, which if left unattended to, would ultimately hamper the achievement of the programme goals. The Mission (1974:55) was worried that the YP Programme was first adopting an inflexible organization, which may be detrimental to goal achievement. It urged that steps should be taken to ensure the programme remains flexible in terms of adaptation of courses to local needs, proper utilisation of personnel and application of the qualification criteria relevant to the aims of the programme. The main point of contention

in this argument was that the YP programme was recruiting staff that was not quite relevant to its functioning which was reflected in the decisions to offer courses that were unsuitable to the local environments of the YPs. To further drive the point home on the YP staffing, the Mission argued that advisers and supervisors at district levels should have experience of work within YPs and that the level of instructors attracted, not merely in their technical skills but also in their attitudes to the wider problems of rural life, must also be raised if the ideal of providing suitable, as opposed to basic stereotyped instruction is to be successfully followed.

The Evaluation Mission advice on recruitment of relevant and qualified staff for the YPs, seems not to have been quite taken. This was to come out clearly in the study of Ferguson and Barker dealing with YPs in Central Kenya. While having a positive view of the YPs in rural development, for they argued that they (YPs) were immensely contributing to local community development through the provision of goods and services (Ferguson and Barker, 1979:9), they were wary that while managers and members of the management committees have the necessary grassroot knowledge of their local areas, they do not generally have the time, the skill, or the information to predict what adjustments are necessary to their programme to cater for likely changes in the patterns of demand for manpower (Ferguson and Barker, 1979:10).

Fergusson and Barker (1979:7) also argued that YPs face serious problems in terms of having adequate training tools, materials and accomodation.

Following the study of Ferguson and Barker, many other studies have continued to confirm the unastisfactory situation of the Human and Material resource base in YPs. Migot-Adholla and Owiro (1981), in the light of inadequate human and material resources in the YPs, called for a more active participation from the Government to alleviate the situation.

Orwa (1982) who set out to investigate the programme's curriculum, teaching methods, personnel management, success and constraints, found these to be unsatisfactory, although of course, it had in many ways contributed to rural development. In his conclusion, he recommended that the Government should not only clarify its position in terms of YP financial assistance but also help in the recruitment of better trained teachers from the National Polytechnics (Orwa, 1982:409-428).

However, as shown in the studies that followed, Orwa's recommendations were once again, not fully taken since YPs continued to experience a severe shortage of qualified personnel as well as inadequate equipments and training materials. The studies by Ongolo (1983) on Western Kenya and Yambo (1986), a national tracer, confirmed the below-average state of human and material resources in YPs.

Looking at the literature reviewed on YP human and material resource base, we note that, most if not all of the studies have pinpointed the inaequacies of

YP internal personnel in terms of both quality and quantity as well as lack of adequate training materials and tools. These, have negatively affected the achievement of certain goals by the YPs, for instance, the production of high quality graduates who can effectively compete on the labour market in the sale of their goods and services. Due to low quality management (arising from poor academic, technical and professional qualifications), both the project managers and the members of the management committees are depicted as having failed to perform their planning, co-ordinating and organizing functions satisfactorily.

Although most of these studies have dealt with the YP human and material resource aspect, this has not been their main focus in that none of them set out from the beginning with the sole objective of examining this aspect of the YP programme per se. In this study, by making this aspect of the programme one of our main themes, we hope to come up with a more clear and current report on the YP human and material resource base today. In comparing our findings with those of other scholars, it will be interesting to find out whether the situation has improved or continued to deteriorate, and if so, what impact it has had or is having on the achievement of YP set goals, especially in relation to preparing the graduates adequately for employment and other related enterprises.

2.3.3 The level of advancement of the rural economy vis-a-vis YP contribution to rural development

For some time, a debate has been going on among scholars on how best to integrate YPs within the wider context of rural development so that employment opportunities and other crucial incentives can be generated. At the heart of the matter, has been the question of the exact relationship between the level of prosperity of the local rural economy on the one hand, and YP contribution to rural development on the other.

The economic prosperity of an area is, to a large extent, influenced by the agro-ecological conditions of the region, and indeed, to the extent that the local inhabitants are willing to exploit this potential. Areas with adequate well-distributed rainfall and fairly fertile soils have the potential of being agriculturally productive. In such areas, the local inhabitants may resort to commercial farming, which, with the sale of the farm products, may bring in high incomes and thus encourage high savings. Such savings, in turn, may enable the local inhabitants to purchase the goods and services offered by YP graduates on a large scale. This is seen to promote employment, especially the potential for self-employment by the graduates. In some cases, rich agricultural areas may be able to set up agricultural-processing factories which may also enlarge the self and wage employment opportunities for YP graduates.

The Evaluation Mission (1974:22) was convinced that the YP programme should not be viewed in isolation of the wider problem of rural development. Rather, it should be viewed in the wider context of rural development. It argued:

"..... problems of poverty, unemployment, and excessive internal migration can only be effectively met through an increase in the quality of life in the rural areas as compared to urban ones. Such an increase involves much more than raising the level of cash incomes. It involves housing, health, nutrition, family life, education, etc - all areas in which YPs may have contributions to make. In particular, it involves an upgrading of what in the foreseeable future will be the main occupation of rural society, that of agriculture. Any major effort towards rural development neglecting this fundamental aspect of rural life appears doomed to relative insignificance"

In stressing on the common point of linkage between the YP Programme and the other rural development programmes, especially, on the employment generation aspect, the Mission (1974:27) argued:

"..... Better agriculture as shown by improved and increased yields and crops, providing marketing services and prices are adequate, will bring greater wealth to a rural area. This can create demands for housing, furniture and other products of YP training..... increased wealth within the household can result in better clothing, improved footwear, increased hygiene and better water supplies and the general upgrading of the family home through improved bedding, furniture and even new buildings The YP leaver can meet most of these demands through present training and with a diversification of the courses".

In essence, the Evaluation Mission was for the idea that a relatively well-developed rural economy can provide the much needed support to the YP programme activities. For instance, an enlarged market for YP goods and services would increase and solidify the self-employment base for YP graduates in the rural areas.

Kinyanjui (1979) in his work on "Education for Rural Development", was convinced that education alone, even if it is practical education, is not enough to eradicate the problem of underdevelopment with its related indicators of poverty and unemployment. The eradication of poverty and unemployment needs not only changes in the education system but also socio-economic changes in the country's economy. His argument was that:

"Rapid transformation of the rural sector, and in particular, an increase in the real incomes of the rural population, will be critical to the functioning of the YPs Training as such, cannot provide employment, and investment in education and training alone can not alleviate the unemployment problem facing the country"
(Kinyanjui, 1979: 10-11).

The argument that for YPs to contribute significantly to employment generation in the rural areas, the areas should be economically prosperous has been widely supported by other scholars (Ferguson and Barker, 1979; Caplen, 1981; and Nzioka, 1986).

However, the question of the empirical link between the level of economic prosperity of an area, and the consequent contribution of YPs to the development of those areas, especially in relation to employment

generation, remains far from being clearly understood. The study by Ferguson and Barker made its conclusion without relying on statistical evidence. As for Caplen, he only compared two YPs - Kenyena (Kisii) and Othaya (Central Province) - before arriving at his conclusion. Nzioka's conclusion was not supported by the Chi-Square statistical evidence to show that the findings were statistically significant.

In re-examining this whole question of the relationship between the level of economic prosperity of an area and the YP contribution to rural employment, we hope to empirically test the arguments and conclusions of the earlier works. In so doing, it is our hope that we shall be contributing useful data on the debate.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 NATIONAL RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICIES: IMPLEMENTATION
AND INFLUENCE ON YP GRADUATES' EMPLOYMENT IN THE
RURAL INFORMAL SECTOR

The promotion of rapid economic growth and development in the rural areas has been and remains a major objective of the Government of Kenya (see, Republic of Kenya, 1970; Republic of Kenya, 1973; Republic of Kenya, 1979; Republic of Kenya, 1986, and Republic of Kenya, 1989). A central component of the larger effort towards renewed economic growth in Kenya is a strategy for the balanced development of rural and urban areas. The primary aim of this strategy is to promote the development of an urban system that supports the growth of agriculture and the development of rural areas, and that generates productive employment opportunities in non-farm activities for rural workers close to where they already live.

The main objectives of enhanced rural development are (Republic of Kenya, 1986:42):

- (a) To avoid the excessive concentration of population in Kenya's largest cities;
- (b) To promote vigorous growth of secondary towns and smaller urban settlements through the development of agriculture;
- (c) To foster productive linkages between agriculture and other sectors of the economy, between rural areas and local service centres, market towns, gateway towns, and secondary cities; and

- (d) To bring renewed economic growth to all regions of the country, so that even the least developed regions can share in the general growth of the economy.

To achieve some of the above objectives, one of the strategies adopted by the Government has been the support for the growth and development of the rural informal sector. The significance of the rural informal sector to rural development was brought out clearly in the ILO Report (1972:5) which argued that, vigorous action must be taken to facilitate employment and raise incomes in the informal sector, a sector that, far from being only marginally productive, is economically efficient, and profit-making, though small in scale and limited by simple technologies, little capital, and lack of links with the formal sector. The ILO Report (1972:226) argued that, given a framework within which to function, informal economic activity on a small scale can strongly influence the structure of Kenya's economy and can aid in the process of expanding the range of income-producing activities needed for the rapidly growing population.

In line with the noted significance of the informal sector to the economy, the ILO Report (1972:228-230) suggested various policies to the Government for informal sector promotion. These were that:

- (a) The system of trade and commercial licensing should be drastically altered. In cases in which a reasonable and direct influence on health

cannot be established, licences should be eliminated. This would reduce the number of licences by 75%. For the remainder, health standards should be maintained by inspection of operation, not by restriction in issuing licences. The only criterion for issuing a licence should be payment of the licensing fee;

- (b) In its own consumption and investment expenditure, the Government should increase its purchases from the informal sector, either directly or by making government purchases from the formal sector conditional upon subcontracting The Government Tender Board should be directed to conduct an enquiry into which products and services purchased by the authorities that could be obtained from enterprises in the informal sector;
- (c) The Government should give loans to small-scale entrepreneurs for part of the capital costs of setting up in business.

In its response to the ILO Report (1972), the Government (Republic of Kenya, 1973) too, acknowledged the importance of the informal sector and promised to implement most of the ILO Report recommendations.

To establish a firm foundation for the informal sector, The Government of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 221) has emphasised on the provision of education and training that is geared towards making its beneficiaries

self-reliant in terms of being self-employed in the rural areas. Training opportunities are available in the 545 YPs, 19 Technical Training Institutes, the National Youth Service and several NGO-supported institutes.

Apart from the emphasis on the provision of education and training relevant to informal sector activities in the rural areas, the Government has suggested various policies for implementation to promote the informal sector (see Republic of Kenya 1979:339; Republic of Kenya, 1989:165-168; and Republic of Kenya, 1986:55-58). These policies include: the provision of some capital in form of loan/credit facilities to graduate and non-graduate members of the informal sector; issuing new regulations on tendering to require central ministries and district authorities to favour small-scale producers and revising of building codes to encourage the use of materials that can be supplied locally by small firms and to expand the activities of informal sector builders, especially builders of low-cost housing; and the review of current local authority by-laws and other regulations governing informal sector activities so as to create a healthy legal and regulatory climate for informal sector activities by eliminating unnecessary constraints, recommending an appropriate scale of licence fees and charges.

The Government's interest and support for the informal sector is appreciated when the various benefits deriving from this sector are analysed. As noted in the various Government documents (see Republic of Kenya, 1986:54; Republic of Kenya, 1989:167), the rural informal sector, consisting of service activities of auto repair, food kiosks, retailing shops, metal goods manufacture, furniture-making, tailoring, shoe-making, among others, conserves scarce foreign exchange, requires very little capital to create jobs, relies primarily on family savings, often provides its own skill training at no cost to the Government, and is a prime training ground for future African entrepreneurs. Above all, the informal sector offers an unmatched potential as a source of new jobs for the expanding labour force, while the self-employed and small-scale enterprises represent the major part of business activity in market towns and smaller urban centres. They (informal sector activities) fulfill key functions in support of agriculture and other local production by marketing inputs such as fertilizer, making and selling small tools, maintaining vehicles and equipment, marketing produce, and providing local inhabitants with a wide range of inexpensive basic consumer goods and services for everyday life.

The national rural development policies, such as those meant to promote the informal sector, are to be implemented at the local levels through the District Development Committees (D.D.Cs). The D.D.Cs which

spearhead the implementation of these policies at the district level, have the responsibility of identifying and analysing local development potential and development needs and the establishment of district development priorities (Republic of Kenya, 1987:1-9). Thus, it can be seen that, the extent of success in the implementation of these national rural development policies in the rural areas will depend much on the technological and material support from the Government ministries concerned in collaboration with the local district authorities.

This section of our study, consequently, attempts to determine not only the extent of the successful implementation of such national rural development policies at the district level, but also the impact on the contribution of YP graduates to rural development, especially in terms of employment generation.

3.1. The Loan/Credit Scheme(s) and its influence on rural employment

The loan/credit facilities refer to mostly money, lent to an individual or group of people to be returned with or without interest. Such facilities may be provided through several different schemes channelled through institutions such as commercial banks, co-operatives or direct Government aid through the relevant ministries (Republic of Kenya, 1986:56).

The availability of adequate capital, emanating from such loan/credit facilities, is thought to advance and consolidate the self employment ability of members of the informal sector. This is especially so since, availability of adequate capital, in form of funds will also mean that the small-scale entrepreneurs have the ability to own sufficient tools/equipments and the necessary raw-materials for their businesses.

In assessing the loan/credit situation, we asked YP graduates various questions. YP graduates, for instance, were asked if they had received any credit facilities to help them establish their small-scale businesses. Of the 29 self-employed graduates, only 2 (7%) of them accepted that they had while 27 (93%) argued that they had never benefited from a credit/loan scheme. The two graduates who claimed to have received some credit facilities pointed to either private friends or relatives as their sources.

Asked to explain why they have never benefited from a loan/credit scheme, the 27 graduates gave several reasons. The most commonly cited reason was that they were not aware of any arrangements that can help guide them to such loan/credit facilities. This reason was cited by 16 (59.3%) of the YP graduates. Fourteen others (51.8%) also argued that it is because they lack security to guarantee any form of loan/credit facilities, while 4 (14.8%) mentioned that they had not approached any financial institution (see table No. 2).

The above responses by the YP graduates clearly point to the fact that major difficulties exist in relation to the acquisition of loan/credit facilities. Most of the graduates are unaware of any operational loan/credit scheme in their areas. Apart from this, some graduates have confirmed lack of adequate security on their part, to guarantee such loan/credit facilities - if they may be in existence at all.

Table No. 2: Reasons as to why YP graduates have not benefited from loan/credit facilities

Response	Had own private source of capital	Lack of security to guarantee loan/credit facilities	Unaware of any arrangements in form of credit/loan facilities
Yes	4 (14.8%)	14 (51.8%)	16 (59.3%)
No	23 (85.2%)	13 (48.2%)	11 (40.7%)
Column Totals	27 (100%)	27 (100%)	27 (100%)

Project managers when asked questions pertaining to loan/credit facilities for YP graduates, gave the following responses: Six out of eight admitted that they were unaware of any official activities that facilitate the

acquisition of loan/credit by YP graduates. The same point of view was supported by the members of the management committees who argued that their graduates had not benefited from such schemes.

Government officers were divided on the question of loan/credit schemes to graduates. While three of them argued that they were not aware of any policy/scheme to assist YP graduates to acquire loan/credit facilities, the remaining two claimed YP graduates were benefiting from such a scheme. However, when probed further to explain their positive response, the two officers failed to pinpoint to any practical evidence of such a scheme.

Our findings on whether loan/credit facilities have been made available to YP graduates, generally seem to suggest that such schemes are yet to be actively implemented in the district. This, for most YP graduates, has meant lack of or inadequate capital to initiate and expand their business activities. Lack of adequate capital has also meant inadequate tools and materials for running their businesses. Out of the 16 unemployed graduates, 11 (68.8%) attributed their unemployment situation to lack of working tools and materials, while 9 (56.3%), to lack of initial capital to take off the ground. Twelve of the self-employed graduates, argued that they could not expand and consolidate their small-scale businesses due to lack of adequate tools and working materials, while 15 (51.7%) attributed their non-expansion to lack of adequate capital.

Our findings, as compiled from the responses of YP managers, members of the management committees, Government officials, also indicated that due to lack of responsive loan/credit schemes, YP graduates' have been, in the most, unable to own adequate tools/equipments, working materials and capital necessary for not only their initial self-employment but also the expansion of such small-scale businesses.

Our findings seem to confirm those of other scholars. In a case study of Maseno YP, Court (1972:6) found out that out of the graduates interviewed, 20% mentioned lack of tools; 22%, the lack of loans for initial capital. While there were 22% who said that they needed tools and were unable to obtain them, 48% needed them but managed to obtain them mostly on the pledge of profits from the product or service for which they were needed.

Brian Caplen (1981:69), in his study, argued that the leavers/graduates were not exploiting to the full the demand in the rural areas due to lack of tools, raw materials, premises, power and means of transport. To 'jump' what he called the "scale barrier", Caplen argued for increased government support for YP leavers in terms of economic aid. This aid, he argued, could be in the form of loan/credit facilities.

The ILO Report (1981:31-33) carried out as a follow-up study on the 1972 ILO project on Employment, Incomes and Equality in Kenya, found out that capital was the chief constraint on the development of small-scale enterprises, which are frequently under-capitalized. Capital shortage extended to lack of tools. The report further noted that, the main source of capital for small-scale and rural enterprises was personal savings. Industrial Commercial and Development Corporation and Kenya National Trading Corporation did not yet play a significant role in the supply of capital, while commercial banks and private money lenders were also not important suppliers to informal enterprises.

As a recommendation, the 1981 ILO Report stated that attempts should be made to overcome the problem of undercapitalization of informal enterprises through renting of low-cost premises and tool loans in kind. The Report also suggested that the range of activities in which enterprises are recognized as potentially eligible for loans should be broadened to include any other useful informal sector activities.

This study, plus those carried out earlier, have thus clearly revealed that lack of access to loan/credit facilities by most YP graduates in the rural areas, has negatively affected their self-employment potential.

To reverse this situation, it is imperative that the Government and the other relevant authorities streamline the loan/credit schemes for YP graduates, who form a significant proportion of the informal sector, in the rural sector.

3.2. Small-Scale business licensing and its impact on YP graduates' efforts in self-employment

The question of small-scale business/trade licensing is significant considering the fact that for any type of business to operate legally, it has to be licenced. The type and cost of various licences required varies with the nature of the particular business.

YP graduates, as members of the informal sector, operate or are meant to operate small-scale businesses that also require licensing. The ability of the YP graduates to acquire such licences may, to a large extent determine their self-employment opportunities.

In this study, respondents were asked various questions to ascertain the prevailing state of affairs in relation to the the acquisition of trade/business licences by the YP graduates. When asked whether they experience problems in the acquisition of business licences and permits from the authorities concerned, 20 (69%) of the 29 self-employed graduates pointed out that they were having several problems, while only 9 (31%)

said that they had had no problems at all. Several reasons were given to justify the stand of those graduates who claimed that they were experiencing obstacles in the acquisition of licences. Eleven (55%) of the graduates, argued that due to unnecessarily long procedures they were unable to obtain such licences in good time. Such procedures include the demand that the graduates must first have well-built business premises. The premises in other words, should be more or less of a permanent nature and well-painted. Seventeen (85%) others, argued that the authorities demanded for more than one type of licence before they could start their businesses such as municipal and county council licences, The purchase of all these licences, for most of the graduates, was very expensive and beyond their immediate means (see table No. 3). The lack of proper business premises and the expensive licences, has meant that most of the YP graduates are unable to possess business licences as required. This situation, more often than not, has led to frequent police harassment and thus destabilization of the YP graduates' work as self-employed artisans.

Table No. 3: Difficulties in the acquisition of business licences by YP graduates

Response	Authorities demand for well-built business premises before issuing of licences	Authorities demand for more than one type of licence which is costly
Yes	11 (55%)	17 (85%)
No.	9 (45%)	3 (15%)
Column Totals	20 (100%)	20 (100%)

From the above table (No. 3), it appears that inability of YP graduates to purchase business licences due to the authorities demand for more than one type of licence, and thus, their prohibitive cost, is a far more serious problem than the demand for well-built business premises before issuing of licences. However, both the problems are still significant since their combination may mean denying the graduate the chances to exploit his skills through self-employment ventures in the market centers.

Y. Six of the eight project managers and half (2 out of 4) the members of the management committees interviewed also argued that the YP graduates were experiencing major problems in the acquisition of

trade/business licences. The explanations given, once again, concerned inadequacies in funds by the graduates to purchase in good time all the required licences and the construction of the "proper" business premises.

The difficulties that YP graduates are experiencing in their endeavours to be self-employed should not be downplayed considering the fact that it is the possession of such business licences that will determine whether these graduates can operate beneficial small-scale business ventures in rural centres. The reasons advanced by some of the graduates to explain why the acquisition of business licences is problematic calls for a major redefinition, by the authorities concerned, of the basic requirements needed before licence acquisition. Central to such a revision of procedures, should be questions pertaining to whether YP graduates, with such limited business funds at their disposal, really need to possess more than one type of business licence and operate in the type of business premises that are being required. However, if the authorities stick to such requirements, then other ways and means must be devised to assist the YP graduates in meeting them. Otherwise, as the situation stands, most YP graduates will be unable to exploit their skills fully through self-employment ventures in the rural centres.

3.3 Allocation of Public tenders to YP graduates in the rural areas

A public tender may be viewed as a contract issued by a Government institution, through central ministries and district authorities, to an individual or group of individuals to supply goods and/or services at certain prices. Public institutions include Government and semi-Government assisted projects such as schools, hospitals among others.

To promote the growth and development of the small-scale producers, the Government may deliberately favour the services and/or goods produced by such small-scale businessmen. This is done with the realization in mind that, at the initial stages, the small-scale producers may be incapable of competing effectively with well established large-scale producers. Thus to deliberately favour the goods and/or services produced by small-scale producers is a way of protecting them from the competition offered by large-scale producers and thus helping ~~them~~ start-off in business until that time they will be able to stand on their own feet.

It is with the above reasons in mind, that the Government of Kenya has promised to institute policies that require central ministries and district authorities to favour small-scale producers and revise building-codes that encourage the use of materials that can be supplied locally by small firms (Republic of Kenya, 1986:56).

This study, in assessing the extent of the implementation of such a policy at the local level in the rural areas, asked various YP programme respondents several pertinent questions. YP graduates, for instance, were asked if they supply goods and/or services to public institutions. Out of the 29 self-employed graduates, only 8 (27.6%) of them accepted that they supply goods and services to public institutions. However, a larger number, that is 21 (72.4%) of the graduates confirmed that they do not, in any way, render their goods and services to public institutions. In explaining their negative response, 9 (42.9%) of the 21 graduates argued that they had not, since they became self-employed, received any public tender from the relevant Government authorities. Eleven others (52.4%), argued that their goods and/or services were simply inadequate to supply such public institutions (see table No. 4).

Table No. 4: YP graduates' response to the allocation of Public tenders

Response	We have not received such public tenders	Our goods and/or services are inadequate in quantity	No Response
Yes	9 (42.9%)	11 (52.4%)	1 (4.7%)
No	12 (57.1%)	10 (47.6%)	20 (95.2%)
Column Totals	21 (100%)	21 (100%)	21 (100%)

The various responses received from some of the YP graduates indicate that they do not receive public tenders from the authorities concerned mostly because of the fact that their goods and/or services are inadequate in terms of quantity. However, a few of them, still argued that they were in a way not aware of the existence of such tenders since the authorities concerned had never offered them to them.

Those graduates, 8 in number, who argued that they supply goods and/or services to public institutions, pointed out the institutions to be village dispensaries and harambee schools. Services provided include construction of buildings and making of school uniforms while goods provided include furniture.

The Government officials in charge of the programme seemed to suggest strongly that YP graduates have access to public tenders. They argued that YP graduates are occasionally asked by local public authorities to supply public institutions with goods and/or services. The relatively strong and positive argument by the Government officers in terms of YP graduates being offered public tenders was only supported by the little evidence of some of the graduates being involved in selling goods and services to small-scale village-like institutions such as dispensaries and schools.

Caplen (1981:73-74) in his study had also found out that the allocation of tenders to YP graduates was unsatisfactory. It was in line with this findings that Caplen argued that the Government officers responsible for allocating government contracts for building works should positively discriminate in favour of rural artisans, if we hope for an active participation by these graduates in the competitive market.

Although our study has also revealed that most YP graduates have never received public tenders to boost their small-scale business ventures, the factors accounting for this situation suggest that even if such tenders were to be available, most of the YP graduates may still not qualify for them basing on the fact that their goods and/or services are inadequate in terms of quantity. To reverse such a situation, it will require that, we first look into ways and means of expanding and strengthening the business ventures of these graduates to make them viable in terms of supplying public institutions.

Conclusion

Our study findings have clearly indicated that, whereas the Government recognizes the significance of the informal sector, and has consequently formulated various policies and pronouncements to promote the sector in the rural areas, most of these statements have either

been poorly implemented or not implemented at all at the local level in the rural areas. YP graduates, who form a significant section of the informal sector, continue to suffer from lack of adequate tools, materials and initial working capital - a problem that could have been alleviated to a great extent, with the introduction and expansion of loan/credit schemes for YP graduates in the rural areas. Most YP graduates' efforts to enter into active self-employment ventures have also been frustrated, to some degree, by absence of genuine efforts to assist them in the acquisition of the relevant trade/business licences and permits in the shortest time possible and at an affordable price. The allocation of tenders by central ministries and district authorities to YP graduates does not seem to be happening as expected, with most of the YP graduates arguing that they have never been offered public tenders.

The poor implementation of these policies at the local level in the rural areas, has generally hampered the self-employment opportunities of YP graduates in the rural sector.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 YP PROGRAMME HUMAN AND MATERIAL RESOURCE BASE:
PREVAILING LEVELS AND INFLUENCE ON YP
CONTRIBUTION TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

As noted in chapter two, section 2.3.2, human resource in the YPs refers to the staff that is directly concerned with the internal running and functioning of the YP. Material resources refer to equipments/ tools, training materials, workshops and funds available to the YP.

Various studies (Evaluation Mission , 1974; Ferguson and Barker, 1979; Orwa, 1982; and Ongolo, 1983) have investigated the human and material aspect of the YP programme, albeit in contrasting styles and depths, and made conclusions. In essence these boil down to the fact that, YP performance in rural development will, to some degree, depend on the existing levels of human and material resources amongst other factors. These resources are viewed in terms of both quality and quantity.

In our analysis, we pay attention to the YP management, relating to personnel qualifications and performance. We also examine the quality of YP training as influenced by the current levels of instructors, equipments, training materials and workshops, and its ultimate impact on the expertise acquired by YP graduates.

4.1 YP Management: qualifications and performance levels

Youth Polytechnic Management refers to that group of people responsible for the running of the YP and synthesizing the various strategies aimed at achieving the set goals and objectives. The members include the project managers and members of the management committees.

Project managers are heads of the YPs and therefore in charge of the organization's day to day administration.

The quality of the managers is one of the most important single determining factors for the continuing success of any organization (Koontz, et al, 1948:395). The quality of a manager, is based not only on his experience, but more important, on his academic, technical and professional qualifications.

Technical skills may be considered as knowledge of and proficiency in activities involving methods, processes, and procedures (Koontz, et al, 1984:402). Professional qualifications can be viewed as that knowledge

that not only covers the possession of technical skills, but also conceptual and design skills. Koontz, et al (1984:402), define conceptual skills as the ability to see the "big picture"; to recognize significant elements in a situation; to understand the relationships among the elements. Design skills connote the ability to solve problems in ways that will benefit an organization. It involves managers having that valuable skill of being able to design a workable solution to the problem in the light of the realities they face (Koontz, et al, 1984:402).

In this study, the analysis of the qualifications of the YP managers has been undertaken with the ultimate objective of establishing their professional quality, which, may have a determining influence on the YP performance in meeting its set goals and objectives.

Our direct interviews with the project managers revealed that the majority of them had no more than fourth form secondary education. The academic qualifications were even far much lower for those project managers who were advanced in age. At least in two YPs, communication (in English) and understanding between us and the project managers was almost impossible. Organizational representation being one of the functions of managers in any form of institution, we can almost be certain that it will be poorly performed with managers of such low academic standards.

Most project managers had ascended to this position in the YPs on the basis of many years of experience and not on the strength of any academic or vast professional skills. This was confirmed to us by at least three project managers. Whereas experience has an important role to play in organizational management, for the successes and failures a manager has had in the past, are indeed a significant guide to future plans, it is not always realistic to rely on experience alone. As Koontz (1984:190) cautions:

"Relying on our past experience as a guide for future action can be dangerous, however. In the first place, most of us do not recognize the underlying reasons for our mistakes or failures. In the second place, the lessons of experience may be entirely inapplicable to new problems. Good decisions must be evaluated against future events, while experience belongs to the past".

In assessing their administrative capabilities, project managers were asked whether in their lifetime they had attended any managerial/administrative courses. Out of the 8 Project Managers interviewed, only 4 of them indicated that they had attended such courses. The most common courses that the four claim to have attended include planning and budgeting. When asked to explain the content of these two courses, the project managers argued that planning involved deciding what objectives to accomplish and what steps to be taken to achieve them,

while budgeting involved the plans on how to allocate the scarce funds to particular projects within the YP. However, the four project managers still argued that the courses had been too brief and far-in-between.

Members of the Management Committee were asked to rate their particular project managers in terms of professional qualifications. All the four argued that they were fairly qualified. However, when asked to explain their positive response, none of them could elaborate on the particular professional qualifications of the project managers. This non-elaboration on the particular qualifications of the project managers may have meant that the members of the management committee were not well-versed on this issue.

Members of the management committee were also asked to rate their project managers in terms of YP management efficiency. 'Efficiency' here referred to the competence to perform their management functions relating to planning, organizing, co-ordinating, among others. None of the members rated them as good. They instead rated them as satisfactory in the sense that not all of the YP objectives had been met as expected, this was especially in relation to preparing trainees fully for self-employment.

Government officers in charge of the YP programme were asked if they were aware of the professional qualifications of the project managers. All the five officers who responded to this question indicated that

they were aware of the project managers' professional qualifications. In rating the project managers in terms of professional qualifications, one said they were highly qualified while the remaining three said they were fairly qualified. However, once again, none of the Government officers was able to pinpoint the particular professional qualifications of the project managers.

This study was also interested in knowing whether the Government, through the concerned ministry, helps to organize initial or refresher courses for the project managers. Three of the Government officials told us the Government does so, while the remaining two indicated that the Government does not do so. Asked to explain what type of refresher courses the Government helps to organize for the project managers, of the three Government officials who had told us the Government does so, one talked of pedagogical courses while the remaining two talked of managerial courses.

Questions relating to the performance of specific duties within the YPs, such as keeping of programme guides, records of work opportunity guide, and keeping track of graduates' work-places were put to the project managers. On whether they keep program guides, 7 of the project managers insisted they did so. All the 8 project managers argued that they keep records of work opportunity guide. Seven out of the 8 project managers also indicated that they keep track of their students after they graduate.

However, although, most of the project managers had argued they have records of work opportunity guide, no real evidence of such a document was produced to support this claim. Whatever records that were produced, to show evidence that the project managers keep track of their students after graduation, were not well prepared and thus inconclusive. This fact probably explains the reason why, in the first place, we were not able to trace some of the graduates in our sample for the interviews. This may be a pointer to the fact that, in reality, most of the project managers perform poorly these specific YP duties.

This study, also inquired into the roles of members of management committees in the YPs and how effective they were in the performance of these roles. The investigations revealed that the members were drawn from the local community and consisted of local traders, church officials, farmers and administration officials such as Sub-Chiefs. The members of the management committee in each YP, include the Chairman, Secretary and Treasurer. The management committee is to advise the project manager mainly on policy issues pertaining to the running of the YP and to mobilize local community support for the YP project.

Six out of eight project managers argued that the role of the members of the management committee was to co-ordinate the parents, local Government officials in charge of the programme and the YP in general on various issues that were relevant to the well-being of the YP. Four others, argued the role of the members of the management committee was to help organize local harambees to assist the YPs in their various aspects while one of

the project managers also suggested that the members of the management committee were supposed to assist YP graduates in their endeavours to be employed in the rural areas.

Discussions with the four members of the management committee indicated that they had been chosen for their particular positions in the YPs without any consideration of their professional qualifications. The criterion used for appointment to such positions was mostly the respect accorded to them by the local inhabitants arising from their socio-economic activities in the area and at times their knowledge of the local area.

Project managers were asked to rate the members of the management committees in terms of the performance of their duties, such as being an effective medium of communication between trainees' parents, local Government officials and the YP internal staff. Out of the seven project managers who responded to the question, 3 rated the members of the management committee as good; 3 others as satisfactory; and 1 as poor. Asked to explain their responses, 6 of the project managers argued the members of the management committees were only fairly versed with the YP programme while the remaining manager explained that the members were uncommitted and poorly versed with the YP programme activities.

However, a major complaint that the project managers seemed to have regarding the members of the management committee was that most of them were dedicating little time to YP affairs. Most of the time was being spent on their private concerns. This situation, argued the project managers, may prove detrimental to the YPs in the long run.

Government officials were also asked to rate the members of the management committee in terms of how well they were performing their YP roles. The responses of the Government officials depicted a not-so-satisfactory picture, for out of the five who were interviewed, only 2 of them said the committee members were very well-versed with the programme while the other 3 said they were only fairly versed with the programme.

Our findings on the quality of YP management, point towards a situation that is not satisfactory. This is clearly reflected in their performance of YP functions and goal-attainment. As noted, most project managers, for instance, do not keep accurate records of work opportunity guide as well as proper contacts of their former trainees. The impact of such inadequacies is to deny YP graduates relevant information pertaining to current employment opportunities.

Lack of sufficient foresight and skills on the part of the management of most YPs to perceive the relationship between the various courses offered in their YPs and their relevance to the local areas, has negatively affected the capacity of the YPs to fulfill the goal of placing some of their graduates in productive self-employment. This study has revealed, for instance, that, the largest percentage of those graduates who remain unemployed undertook studies in carpentry. Such graduates may remain unemployed for long since the local market is already saturated by carpenters who were either trained in the various YPs in large numbers earlier, or learnt their skills on-the-job without necessarily attending formal training. However, the irony of the matter is that, most YPs continue to offer carpentry. Interviews with current students revealed that, at the moment, carpentry course has the highest number of trainees. Out of the 25 current students that were interviewed, 8 (32%) were studying carpentry, 7 (28%) Masonry, 5 (20%) Tailoring and Dressmaking, 2 (8%) Metal work, 1 (4%) Agriculture, and 2 (8%) did not state what they were studying. Courses such as mechanics and leather work had no enrolled trainees, this being based on the current students interviewed. In such a situation, what would have been the logical measure for the YP management to undertake in order to arrest the situation, is to limit the number of trainees enrolled in courses such as carpentry, and instead increase enrollment in courses

Such a leatherwork and agriculture, courses whose marketability in the local rural areas is yet to be saturated.

Orwa's (1982:361) findings, in an earlier study, indicated that the members of the management committees had not lived up to what was expected of them, especially in terms of personnel management. As for the project managers, he argued that most of them were primary school leavers with very limited management knowledge. It can then be argued that, YP management, as revealed by our study, is yet to be significantly improved in terms of its professional qualifications.

Migot - Adholla and Owiro (1986 :7-8), while commenting on YP management in terms of the performance of their duties and functions, noted that, due to lack of sufficient foresight most YP managements had failed to identify present local needs and link them to courses offered in YPs accordingly. The findings of our study, still support this thesis of Migot-Adholla and Owiro, since, as has already been shown, certain courses such as carpentry, despite having outlived their real marketability in some of the local areas, continue to be offered on a large scale. Other reasons accounting for the popularity of the carpentry course despite its present low marketability include the fact that its training materials and equipments are cheap and easily found. Courses such as leatherwork and agriculture, that have a large market potential in rural areas, are yet to receive the attention that they deserve in most YPs.

One of our hypothesis was that, the higher the quality of management in the YP, the more effective the YP in the achievement of its goals and objectives.

Using the Kendall statistic, we found out the strength of the relationship between these two variables to be at 0.53. The interpretation of this statistical value, is that, there is a relatively strong relationship between the quality of management in terms of professional qualifications of the managers, the consequent level of duty/function performance and the ultimate attainment of YP goals especially employment generation (see table No. 5).

Most YP managers, as revealed in our study, are yet to make significant progress in terms of improving their academic and professional qualification. Their performance of YP duties and functions is not impressive. These factors, have combined to undermine, to some extent, the capacity of YPs in meeting their set goals and objectives, especially in relation to employment generation. A viable solution to this problem, may lie in increased efforts towards improving the quality of current YP managers through intensified in-service administrative courses, and in future, the recruitment of professionally qualified managers.

Table No. 5: The association between managerial qualifications, performance of management functions, and the employment rates of YP graduates.

YP	Managerial Qualifications	Performance of functions	Employment Rates	Total Score	Mean Score	Differences	Differences squared
Chebukwabi	3	4	4	11	13.5	- 2.5	6.25
Matili	5	2	7	14	13.5	0.5	0.25
Sinoko	7	8	8	23	13.5	9.5	90.25
Naitiri	6	1	3	10	13.5	- 3.5	12.25
Kisongo	8	6	5	19	13.5	5.5	30.25
Sirisia	2	7	6	15	13.5	1.5	2.25
Khasoko	1	5	2	8	13.5	- 5.5	30.25
Kisiwa	4	3	1	8	13.5	- 5.5	30.25
Totals				108			202

$$W = \frac{S}{\left(\frac{1}{12}K^2\right) \times (N^3 - N)} = \frac{202}{\left(\frac{1}{12} \times 3^2\right) \times (8^3 - 8)} = \frac{202}{0.75 \times 504} = \frac{202}{378} = 0.53$$

4.2 The Quality of YP training and the Expertise acquired by YP graduates

The quality and quantity of instructors, equipment and training materials are core elements in determining the level of quality of training in a YP, which in turn, may have an influence on the nature of expertise acquired by YP graduates.

In this section, our interest is to explore the scope and significance of the relationship between these two variables, that is, quality of YP training and expertise acquired by YP graduates, as a result.

4.2.1 The Quality of YP training

To ascertain the particular quality of YP training, questions relating to the levels of instruction, equipments/tools, training materials and workshops were put to our various respondents.

Both graduates and current students gave us their views on the prevailing levels of the several aspects on the quality of YP training. Their views are presented in table form (see tables No. 6, 7 and 8).

Table No. 6: Graduates' and current students' responses on the training facilities aspect of YP training

Response	Training facilities (Equipments, training materials and workshops)	
	GRADUATES	CURRENT STUDENTS
Very adequate	14 (26.4%)	3 (12%)
Adequate	24 (45.3%)	13 (52%)
Not Adequate	14 (26.4%)	9 (36%)
No Response	1 (1.9%)	-
Column Totals	53 (100%)	25 (100%)

Table No. 7: Ratings by Graduates and Current Students on the aspect of actual teaching by instructors

Response	Actual teaching by instructors	
	GRADUATES	CURRENT STUDENTS
Excellent	12 (22.6%)	7 (28%)
Good	25 (47.1%)	10 (40%)
Fair	15 (28.3%)	8 (32%)
Poor	-	-
No response	1 (1.9%)	-
Column Totals	53 (99.9%)	25 (100%)

Table No. 8: Ratings by graduates and current students
on the aspect of balance between practical
and theory teaching

Response	Balance between practical lessons' and theory	
	GRADUATES	CURRENT STUDENTS
Excellent	11 (20.8%)	5 (20%)
Good	20 (37.7%)	7 (28%)
Fair	20 (37.7%)	11 (44%)
Poor	2 (3.8%)	2 (8%)
No response	-	-
Column Totals	53 (100%)	25 (100%)

Looking at tables No. 6, 7, and 8, for YP graduates the most satisfying aspect of YP training was the training facilities since 71.7% of them rated it as either very adequate or adequate. After training facilities, came teaching by instructors, whereby 69.7% of the graduates rated it as either excellent or good. Last, was the balance between practicals and theory teaching, where only 58.5% of the graduates rated it as either excellent or good.

As for the current students, the best aspect of YP training was the quality of instruction by the teachers, since 68% of them rated it as either excellent or good. Teaching by instructors was followed by the level of training facilities where 64% of them rated it as either very adequate or adequate. Like in the case of the graduates, balance between practicals and theory was rated by the least number of current students (48%) as either excellent or good.

When asked to explain why there was much dissatisfaction with the balance between practicals and theory teaching in most YPs, the respondents argued that in some cases, the instructors tended to concentrate much on theory teaching at the expense of practicals while a few others argued that both practicals and theory were poorly taught.

Taking into consideration the factor of deterioration versus improvement over time in the quality of YP training, it would seem that, on the whole, graduates were relatively satisfied with the quality of YP training during their time than the current students. This fact, comes out clearly when a closer examination is given to the various ratings by graduates versus current students on all the three aspects of YP training. For instance, while a total of 71.7% of graduates rated training facilities as either very adequate or adequate and only 26.4% of them rated it as not adequate, only 64%

of the current students rated training facilities as either very adequate or adequate while a larger number (36%) compared to the graduates' figure of 26.4% rated it as not adequate. The most likely conclusion that can be made from this evidence is that, the quality of YP training has deteriorated rather than improved.

Apart from the graduates and the current students, project managers, members of the management committees and Government officials were also asked various questions pertaining to the quality of YP training.

While all of the eight project managers stated that they had workshops for carrying out practicals in their respective YPs, only 1 of them argued his was well equipped. This manager belonged to Kisiwa YP. All the other remaining 7 managers argued their YPs were only fairly equipped. However, a personal visit to the workshop of Kisiwa YP, did not seem to justify the particular rating given to us by the manager. This was clearly evident from the large number of trainees sharing the existing few equipment and materials such as sewing machines, chisels, welding machines, among others.

Project managers were also asked to rate the instructors. Seven rated them as qualified while one as fairly qualified. However, a visit to the YPs revealed that in only fairly well developed YPs such as Matili and Kisiwa did we have most of the instructors as qualified teachers in the sense that they had attended special technical courses in their respective trades at various colleges such as Government Training Institute at Masenc

Some of the instructors had not attended any formal training to prepare them for teaching in YPs but were merely using long years of practical experience to teach. Whether, they had adequate instructors or not, only 2 managers, that is, the managers of Khasoko and Chebukwabi indicated that they had enough instructors. The remaining 6 project managers, that is, for Kisiwa, Sirisia, Sinoko, Kisongo, Naitiri and Matili, argued they did not have enough instructors per trade.

As a way of counterchecking their earlier views on the quality of YP training, the project managers were asked a summary question on what they felt to be the major problems facing their YPs today. Out of the seven who responded to this question, all (7) lamented on the lack of adequate training materials and tools; and 2 others complained of lack of adequate instructors.

The views given by the members of the management committees, more or less echoed those given by the project managers on the various aspects of YP training. While, all the 3 members of management committees interviewed stated that their YPs had workshops, only one of them rated the workshops as well-equipped. The remaining two, argued the workshops were only fairly equipped. On whether the YP instructors were qualified, one of them thought so, while the other two argued that the instructors were not well qualified. All the three members of the management committees argued that the instructors were inadequate in terms of numbers per trade.

Government officials were also asked to rate the quality of YP training in terms of the levels of instruction and training facilities. Four of the Government officials rated the proficiency of instructors in terms of their ability to teach as good and one of them as fair. On the quality of the instructors, four rated them as qualified. On the level of training materials in YPs, 2 rated it as fair and two others as inadequate. When looked at together, Government officials were more dissatisfied with the level of training materials in YPs than the quality of instructors.

The quality of YP training, if the views of the graduates and the current students are to be compared over time, seems to have deteriorated. This verdict, in one way or another, has been confirmed by the views of other respondents such as the project managers and members of the management committees, who in the majority have argued that, both training facilities and instructors are inadequate in most of the YPs.

Poorly equipped workshops, lack of adequate training materials, inadequate instructors especially in terms of numbers per trade, have all contributed, in one way or another, to the seemingly deteriorating standard of YP training in most of the YPs.

Orwa's findings (1982:393-396) on the state of the YP programme material resource base, revealed that equipments and training materials were inadequate. The supply of tools was argued to be inadequate by 85.7% of the Government officials. 95.1% of the same Government officials interviewed felt that training materials were grossly inadequate. The study findings of our project, tend to support Orwa's results in the sense that Government officials in charge of the programme have continued to show dissatisfaction over the levels of equipments and training materials in YPs.

Ongolo (1983:127), in a study on YPs in Western Province of Kenya, came up with findings that indicated that the YP programme was severely afflicted by shortages of tools, equipment, training materials, and staff in terms of both quality and quantity. These, he argued, had affected the achievement of the major objectives of the programme in promotion of employment and rural development.

Yambo (1986:100), in his tracer study, found out that, of all the leavers interviewed, 64.8% rated YP instruction as adequate or very adequate. Training facilities were rated adequate or very adequate by only 48.3%. Only 25.4% of the leavers rated training materials as adequate or very adequate. The balance between theoretical and practical learning was rated adequate or very adequate by 38.3% of the leavers responding, and fair by 40.6%

Although this study has come up with findings that indicate both current students and graduates are relatively satisfied with various aspects of the quality of YP training, the views of the project managers, members of the management committees and Government officials, on the contrary, point towards a less satisfactory situation. As already shown, the project managers, members of the management committees and Government officials, are particularly not happy with the level of training materials and equipments, and to some extent, inadequate instructors. However, all in all, a comparison over time between the views of the graduates and current students, do point towards a disturbing revelation that must be given some attention, that is, the fact that, the quality of YP training seems to be deteriorating rather than improving.

4.2.2. Expertise of YP graduates

The "expertise" of YP graduates has been measured in terms of the skills gained from the YP training and the ability of the graduates to effectively compete with other non-YP trained artisans in the sale of their goods and/or services to their local communities.

An assumption is made that the nature and type of training offered in a YP will influence, to a greater extent, the expertise acquired by a YP graduate. This, can clearly be reflected in his entrepreneurial work.

To deduce the level of expertise of the YP graduates, we asked several relevant questions to various respondents in the study.

YP graduates indicated that they were generally satisfied with the vocational type of education they had had in their various YPs. When asked whether YP training had offered them better chances of productive employment than formal schooling, 50 (94.3%) of them agreed while only 2 (3.8%) answered in the negative. The 50 graduates, when asked to explain their stand, argued that YP training, unlike formal schooling had enabled them to acquire entrepreneurial skills relevant for self-employment after training.

However, when asked to state the most difficult problems they had encountered (for those who were already in self-employment) at the beginning of their careers, 7 (24.1%) of the 29 self-employed graduates, pointed out the issue of severe competition from non-YP trained artisans. Most of the YP graduates pointed out that, in the initial stages the local inhabitants tended to prefer goods and services of other more experienced artisans including those who had not had any type of formal training like in the YPs. Unfortunately, for some of the YP graduates even after having acquired some experience in the sale of their goods and services, they still cannot contain the competition offered by other non-YP trained artisans.

This unfavourable position, was confirmed to us by 8 (27.6%) of the self-employed graduates who argued that their attempt to establish themselves as self-employed people has been hampered by inadequate skills to compete effectively with artisans who went through training systems other than YP training. Five (17.2%) of the graduates revealed that, as a consequence, they lacked adequate customers whom they could sell their goods and services to.

Two (12.5%) of the 16 unemployed graduates, attributed their unemployment situation to poor skills acquired from YP training, among other factors. Their argument was that, due to low quality skills, they were unable to market their goods and services to the local inhabitants.

Managers were also asked to explain some of the problems YP graduates face in self-employment. Like some of the graduates, 3 (37.5%) of the 8 project managers and 2 (66.6%) of the 3 members of the management committees interviewed, argued that YP graduates more often than not, were unable to effectively face to the competition offered by other non-YP trained artisans.

To assess the quality of goods and/or services produced by YP graduates, both YP graduates' parents/guardians and Government officials were asked to rate them. Two of the Government officials rated them as good while the other three rated them as fair. Out of the 8 parents interviewed, 5 rated the goods/or services rendered by YP

graduates as good while the remaining 3 as fair. Asked to explain what they meant by rating the goods and services of YP graduates as "fair", most of the respondents argued that the goods and services were less marketable in the local areas compared to those produced by most of the non-YP trained artisans.

The above responses, tend to indicate that the demand for goods and/or services produced by some of the YP graduates, has in one way or another, been limited by the quality of these items. As revealed in our study, a possible explanation for the relatively low quality of YP graduates' goods and/or services is tied to the nature and type of training acquired at the YP. This situation, has been supported not only by some of the managers but also some of the graduates themselves, who have argued that they are unable to effectively compete with other artisans in the sale of goods and services due to relatively poor skill acquisition.

We had hypothesized that the quality of YP training influences the expertise of YP graduates in their entrepreneurial work. Using the Kendall statistic, we have found the correlation between quality of YP training, in its various aspects, and YP graduates' expertise at 0.55 (see table No. 9). This is a fairly strong relationship between quality of YP training in terms of instruction, training facilities and the skill expertise of YP graduates.

TABLE NO. 9: The Correlation between quality of YP training and Expertise acquired by graduates

YP	Teaching	Traning facilities	Expertise acquired	Total score	Mean score	Differences	Differences squared
Chebukwabi	2	6	4	12	13.5	- 1.5	2.25
Matili	3	3	2	8	13.5	- 5.5	30.25
Sinoko	8	8	6	22	13.5	8.5	72.25
Naitiri	4	2	5	11	13.5	- 2.5	6.25
Kisongo	6	4	1	11	13.5	- 2.5	6.25
Sirisia	7	7	8	22	13.5	8.5	72.25
Khasoko	5	1	7	13	13.5	- 0.5	0.25
Kisiwa	1	5	3	9	13.5	- 4.5	20.25
				108			210

$$W = \frac{S}{\frac{1}{12^2} \times (N^3 - N)}, \quad W = \frac{210}{\left(\frac{1}{12} \times 3^2\right) (8^3 - 8)} = \frac{210}{0.75 \times 504} = \frac{210}{378} = 0.55$$

Conclusion

In this chapter, we set out to examine the prevailing levels of YP programme human and material resource base and the resultant influence on YP contribution to rural development.

Our findings have revealed that most YP managements are yet to show significant improvement in terms of academic and professional qualifications. The level of instruction too, needs improvement not only in relation to quality but also quantity. The call to raise the standards of YP human resources also applies to YP material resource base in form of equipments/tools, workshops and training materials.

The unsatisfactory levels of human and material resources have limited the capacity of most YPs to effectively meet their set goals and objectives. It is through the improvement of these resources that YPs may be looked upon as an effective channel towards the development of the rural sector, especially in relation to producing relevant high quality skilled artisans who can actively engage in self-employment ventures in the rural areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 THE RURAL ECONOMY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON YOUTH POLYTECHNIC CONTRIBUTION TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The issue of the link between the level of advancement of a particular rural economy and its influence on the capacity of YPs to generate rural employment is an on-going debate. In this context, the core question is: "does a relatively advanced rural economy enhance the scope and opportunities of YP graduates in employment?"

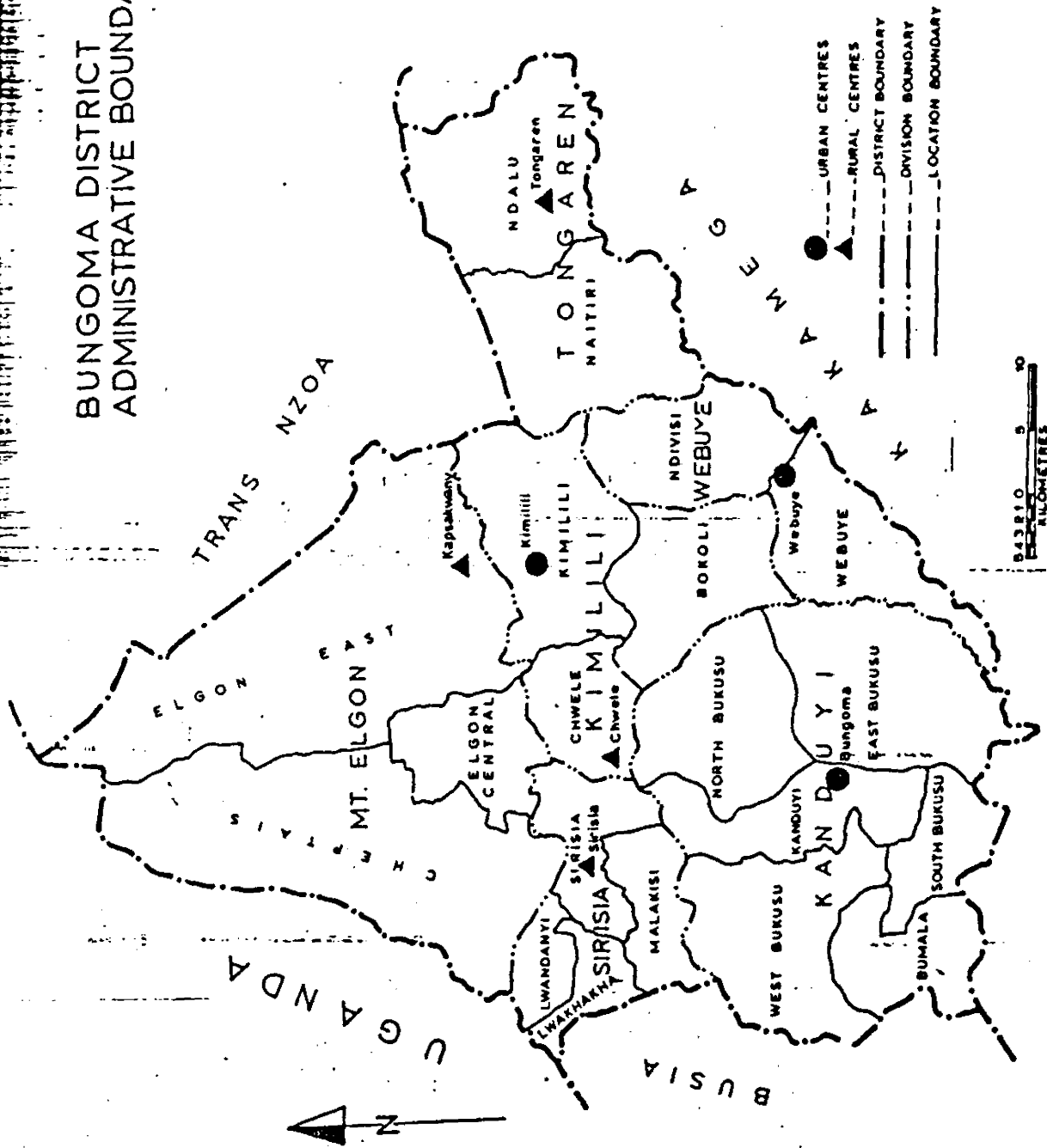
This chapter begins with a section analysing the various patterns of economic activities in Bungoma District. This analysis is later narrowed down to a divisional level to allow us compare and contrast their levels of economic advancement. The economic activities considered include, the practice of commercial agriculture, processing factories, availability of urban and rural centres.

The second section, endeavours to establish the specific relationship(s) between/among the differing levels of economic prosperity of the various divisions and the capacity of the local YPs to generate employment for their YP graduates.

5.1 The Pattern of Economic activities in Bungoma District

Bungoma District is divided into six administrative divisional units, that is, Sirisia, Kanduyi, Webuye, Mt. Elgon, Kimilili and Tongaren (Republic of Kenya, 1984:1). Map No. 1 shows the particular location of these divisions within the District.

BUNGOMA DISTRICT ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES



Source: Bungoma District Development Plan 1989/93

Bungoma is generally regarded as a district with high agricultural potential. It experiences two rainy seasons, the long and short rains. Rainfall, which ranges from 1,250mm to over 1,800mm per annum is generally well distributed over the entire district (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 2).

The district has a wide range of soil types. These can be grouped into eight categories, that is, excessively drained soils on hills and minor scarps; mountain soils; soils on volcanic footridges; soils on foot slopes; soils on upper middle level uplands; soils on lower middle level uplands; soils on lower uplands; and soils on bottom lands (Republic of Kenya, 1989: 5)

The good soils coupled with the gently sloping terrain in most parts of the area, makes the district one of the most arable in the Republic. However, fairly poor farming methods have been applied on the slopes of Mt. Elgon and on the inselbergs and hills, causing serious soil erosion. The situation is made worse by hailstorms which are common in the area and which assist in carrying away the already exposed soils. Moreover, a large part of the district is covered by fairly shallow soils. The most notable areas are Mt. Elgon and the Southern region. Without proper management of agricultural activities, these soils are easily degraded (Republic of Kenya 1989:5).

Looking at most of the soil types and their distribution in the district, as well as the fair rainfall distribution, almost the entire district is a potentially rich agricultural region. Areas that have exploited this potential have emerged as leaders in commercial agriculture within the region. The extent to which different areas have exploited this agricultural potential

has also been influenced by the establishment of good road and rail communication as well as rural and urban markets.

Agriculture, is the mainstay of the district economy. The majority of the inhabitants are engaged in small-scale mixed farming, growing both cash crops and food crops which include coffee, cotton, sunflower, pyrethrum, wheat, maize, tobacco, and sugarcane. Livestock such as sheep, goats and cows are also kept. (Republic of Kenya, 1984:9-10).

Apart from agriculture, the district has some processing factories, such as, a papermill at Webuye, a sugar factory at Nzoia, a cotton ginery at Malakisi, and a tobacco leaf-centre at Malakisi (Republic of Kenya, 1984:10).

Using the criteria of the most active division agriculturally; availability of active rural and urban centres; and the presence of processing factories, the most economically prosperous division in the district is Kanduyi followed by Tongaren, Kimilili, Webuye, Sirisia, and then Mt. Elgon.

Kanduyi division grows cotton, coffee, maize and sugarcane. Sugarcane is grown on a large scale around the Nzoia area. The division houses Bungoma town which is classified as an urban centre and serves as the district headquarters. The division also has a major sugar processing factory at Nzoia Market.

Tongaren division specializes in the growing of coffee, maize and sunflower. Maize is grown on a large scale and is by far the most popular crop in the area. Tongaren may indeed be considered as the largest producer of maize in the district. The division has one rural centre, known as Tongaren.

Inhabitants of Kimilili division grow coffee and maize. Maize is a very popular cash and food crop in the area. The division has one urban centre in the name of Kimilili and one rural centre, Chwele.

Webuye Division produces coffee, albeit on a small scale, maize and sugarcane. Maize is popular both as a cash crop and food crop while sugarcane is a cash crop. The division has an urban centre at Webuye and a major papermill factory.

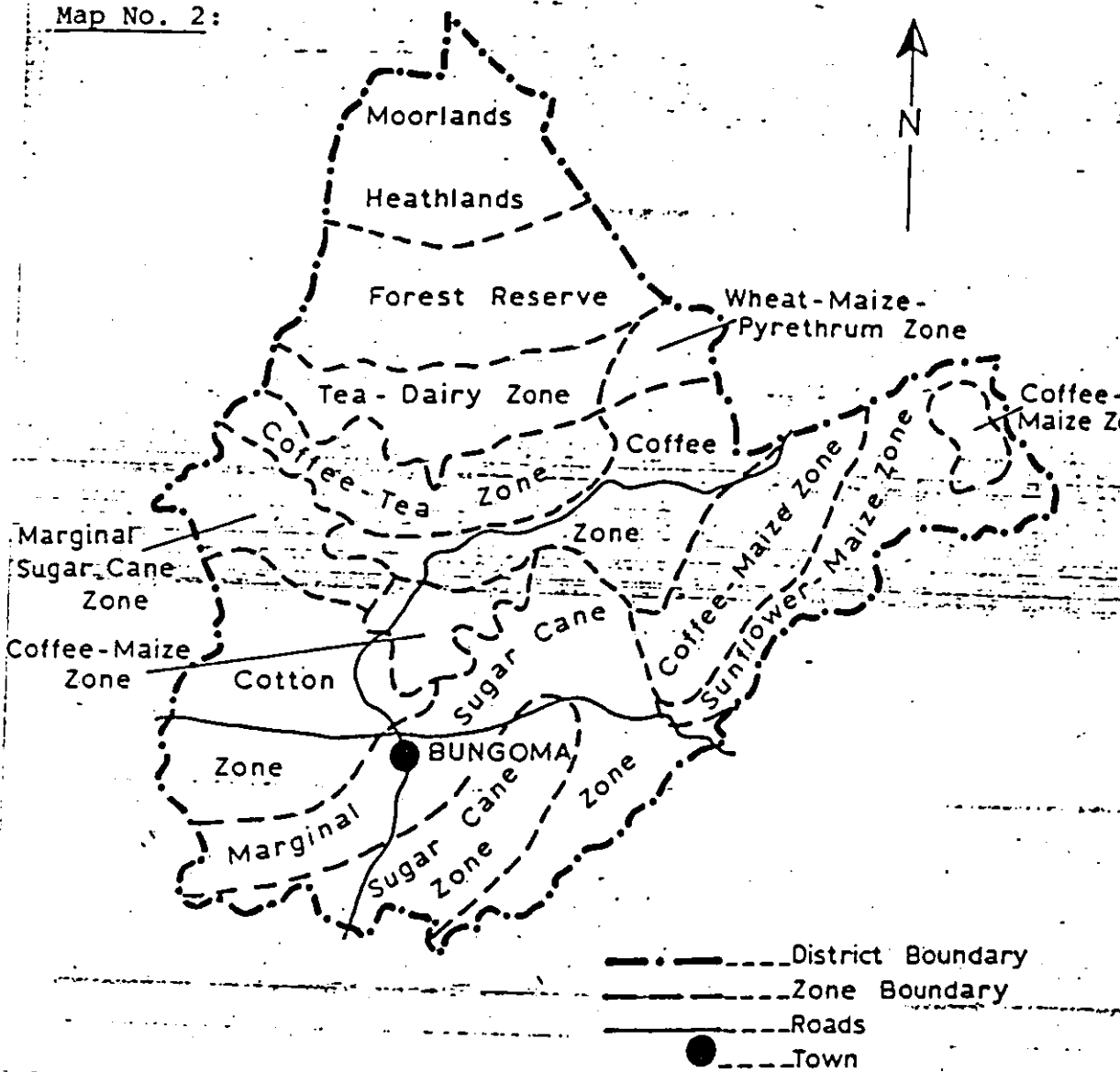
Inhabitants of Sirisia division grow coffee, cotton, maize and tobacco. Cotton and tobacco fetch high incomes for some of the farmers. The division has a rural centre at Sirisia. It also has a cotton ginnery at Malakisi and a tobacco leaf-centre at Malakisi.

Lastly, Mt. Elgon division grows some tea, wheat, pyrethrum and maize. Most of those crops are grown on small scale. The division has a rural centre at Kapsakwony (see Map No. 2 showing the agro-ecological zones in Bungoma district).

Although we have ranked the six divisions in Bungoma district from one with the most prosperous rural economy to the least, it should be noted that there are really no vast differences among the divisions in terms of economic development. This is largely explained by the facts that all these divisions are essentially rural in nature, and most if not all of them, are well-endowed with fertile soils and adequate rainfall. The differences

117
 Bungoma District
 Simplified Agro-Ecological Zones

Map No. 2:



From Farm Management Handbook Of Kenya 1982

Source: - Bungoma District Development Plan 1989/93

that there are among these divisions in terms of levels of economic prosperity have largely been determined by the extent to which the respective local inhabitants have been willing to exploit the prevailing economic potentials.

Going by the above ratings of divisions, the YPs have also been ranked based on the particular division they are located in. Thus Kisiwa and Khasoko YPs being in Kanduyi, the most prosperous rural economy, occupy the first two places. They are followed by Naitiri YP in Tongaren division, Matili and Chebukwabi YPs in Kimilili division, Sinoko YP in Webuye division, Sirisia YP in Sirisia division and then, Kisongo YP in Mt. Elgon division.

The criterion used to rank Kisiwa YP as first and Khasoko YP second, although both belong to the Kanduyi division, is the fact that the administrative location of Kisiwa is more active economically than that one of Khasoko. The Kisiwa area has more agricultural activities and is strategically located being served by a nearby tarmac road. In rating Chebukwabi YP as fifth and Matili as fourth, although once again both belong to Kimilili division, we also considered how active the immediate surrounding areas are agriculturally plus the fact that unlike Chebukwabi YP, Matili YP is very close to the Kimilili urban centre and consequently enjoys various advantages that go with being close to an urban centre.

5.2 The Relationship(s) between differing levels in economic development of rural areas and employment generation

The search for the relationship(s) between the level of economic prosperity of an area and the resultant employment generation for the YP graduates, was based on the assumption that, inhabitants in relatively advanced rural economies have higher income savings arising from the practice of various profitable economic activities. These savings, enable the local inhabitants to afford and purchase the several goods and/or services produced by YP graduates. This is seen to promote employment, especially the potential for self-employment for the YP graduates.

In attempting to establish the specific linkage between the level of economic prosperity of an area and YP contribution to rural development through employment generation, several relevant questions were put to the graduates. In the first place, the 29 self-employed graduates were asked to state the business activities they were engaged in for a living. Of the 29 self-employed graduated, 3 (10.3%) said metal work; 8 (27.6%), masonry; 4 (13.8%), tailoring; 3 (10.3%) agriculture (farming); 3 (10.3%), carpentry; 4 (13.8%), leatherwork; and 4 (13.8%), home economic activities.

Graduates were further asked to state whether the economic activities existing in their local areas had any influence on the particular business activities they practiced. Of the 29 self-employed graduates, 21 (72.4%), said the economic activities practised in their areas influenced their entrepreneurial activities in one way or another. Twelve (57.1%) of the 21 self-employed graduates who said the economic activities in their areas influence their businesses explained that the relatively high incomes generated from the economic activities had boosted the purchasing power of their local inhabitants which in turn meant an increased lucrative market for the graduates' goods and services. Some of the goods in high demand were shoes, furniture, clothing and kitchenware. Services such as the construction of public and private buildings, repair of damaged household items, such as stoves, lamps and chairs were also on the rise in these economically active areas.

The high demand for the graduate's goods and/or services also meant that they were getting relatively high incomes from their business activities and thus were in a better position to strengthen and expand their individual/workgroup businesses through the purchase of adequate tools and working materials. It is interesting at this point to note that 9 (75%) of the self-employed graduates who argued that economic

activities in their areas had boosted their trade activities came from the three most economically prosperous divisions, that is, Kanduyi, Tongaren and Kimilili.

The remaining 9 self-employed graduates, out of the total 21 who had indicated that there was a relationship between their particular businesses and the economic activities practised in their areas, gave the following explanations: three argued that their business activities were not developing well due to a low demand for their goods and services resulting from a poor purchasing power of the local inhabitants; two others, argued that they could now acquire raw-materials easily and cheaply from the local areas arising from the economic activities practised, such as livestock rearing enabled them to get hides for leatherwork; and the remaining four failed to provide any plausible explanation.

Graduates were also asked to state if the demand for their goods and/or services had risen since they entered into active employment. Of the 29 self-employed graduates, 18 (62.1%) answered in the affirmative while 11 (37.9%) said the demand had either remained constant or had gone down. As an explanation to the non-increase in the demand for their goods and services, 10 (90.9%) of the 11 graduates argued that their local customers were unable to purchase their goods and services on a large scale due to low savings. Out of the 18

graduates who had claimed that their demand for goods and services had gone up, it is also interesting to note that 15 (83.3%) of them resided in Kanduyi, Tongaren and Kimilili divisions, the three leading rural economies in Bungoma District.

Apart from the self-employed graduates, we tried to establish the employing agencies of the 8 wage-employed graduates. Four of them worked with some of the factories in the district while the remaining four were employed either with public institutions or by well-off individual artisans.

This study attempted to establish the various employment rates per division. Kanduyi and Tongaren divisions had the highest employment rates (100%), followed by Mt. Elgon division with 57.1% , Kimilili with 55%, Sirisia with 50% and last Webuye division with an employment rate of 25% (see table No. 10)

Table No. 10: Employment rates of YP graduates per
Division

DIVISION	NUMBER EMPLOYED	NUMBER UNEMPLOYED	COLUMN TOTALS
Sirisia	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	2 (100%)
Kanduyi	15 (100%)	0 (0%)	15 (100%)
Webuye	1 (25%)	3 (75%)	4 (100%)
Mt. Elgon	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.8%)	7 (100%)
Kimilili	11 (55%)	9 (45%)	20 (100%)
Tongaren	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	5 (100%)

The high employment rates of both Kanduyi and Tongaren divisions, being the two leading rural economies in terms of economic prosperity, support the thesis that the more advanced the rural economy the higher the employment opportunities for YP graduates. However, the employment rates in Webuye and Mt. Elgon divisions, do not seem to support the above thesis. Whereas Webuye division was ranked as fourth in terms of economic prosperity, it had the lowest employment rate of 25%. On the contrary, Mt. Elgon division, which was ranked as the division with the least developed rural economy in the district, had a relatively high employment rate of 57.1%.

The above anomalies in both Webuye and Mt. Elgon divisions may be explained by other factors. It may be argued that, graduates from Sinoko YP, in Webuye division, have a lower level of expertise in their entrepreneurial work, resulting from their low quality of YP training, as is evident in Chapter four. Lack of high quality adequate entrepreneurial skills may have thus led to the high unemployment rates for graduates from Sinoko, while on the other hand, high quality skills contributed to the relatively high employment rate for graduates from Kisongo YP in Mt. Elgon division.

All in all, our specific findings on the employment patterns, in terms of those in self-and wage-employment, tend to differ, to some extent, with those of earlier works by other scholars (see table No. 11). While our findings show a higher self-employment rate than wage-employment rate, most findings of earlier works indicate the contrary, that is, higher wage than self-employment rates for YP graduates. It is only the Government findings (1973) and Orwa's (1982) that, like for our study, indicate a high self-employment rate than the wage-employment one for YP graduates.

Table No. 11: Findings (in percentages) by various scholars on employment Patterns of YP graduates

	Anderson 1971	Court 1972	Govt. 1973	Brown 1974	Orwa 1982	Ongolo 1983	Nzioka 1986	Yambo 1986	Matanga 1990
Self	17	33	45	8	39.4	17	26.6	11.3	54.7
Wage	32	44	29	40	23.7	58	56.2	70.9	15.1
Unemp- loyed	21	23	10	45	36.9	11	17.2	17.8	30.2
Unknown	17	-	13	-	-	14	-	-	-

The fact that our findings indicate a higher self-employment rate than the wage one for YP graduates may be accounted for by various reasons: First, most YP graduates had a bias for self-employment rather than wage - employment. They argued that self-employment, unlike wage-employment, gave them adequate room to control their own work including the profits they made.

Second, most of the YP graduates interviewed (60.4%) in our study had at least three years of work experience since graduating from their respective YPs. It can thus be argued that a large percentage of them had managed to acquire own tools and equipments necessary for self-employment. Third, the idea of a workgroup seems to have been adopted widely by most of the YP graduates in the district. Workgroups have paved way for those individual YP graduates whom, on their own, could not start a sound self-employment venture. A

workgroup is essentially a group of YP leavers who agree to put together their individual meagre resources to start various small-scale businesses. More often than not, these workgroups receive a little additional financial and material assistance from the YPs they graduated from and other willing non-governmental organizations. Examples of workgroups visited included Mungore Workgroup attached to Khasoko YP, Namirembe Workgroup attached to Sinoko YP, and Champion Tailors Workgroup attached to Naitiri YP.

Our findings, to some degree, have supported the thesis that, YP graduates from a relatively prosperous rural economy have better opportunities of being employed in their localities. This revelation, reinforces the earlier findings by Ferguson and Barker (1979:5-6), who, in a study of YPs in Central Kenya, noted that,:

"YPs tend to be highly dependent on local wealth for their instigation and rate of growth. The degree of success in placing leavers in local employment will also vary according to the condition of the local rural economy. In a poor environment, there will be difficulties in raising funds through harambee meetings, in raising tuition fees and in winning contracts and selling goods to the local people..... The capacity of the poorer areas to absorb trained artisans into gainful employment is smaller than in the richer areas and this constrains their role in development....."

Although Caplen had compared only two YPs in different economic areas, his findings are significant and compare favourably with ours. Caplen (1981:48), found out that Othaya YP, in Central Province, located in a rich agricultural

area, had 39% self-employed graduates. In contrast, Kenyena YP in Kisii, which is in a relatively poor agricultural area, had only 25% of leavers in self-employment. Accordingly, Caplen (1981:11) reached the conclusion that:

"If demand in the informal sector is limited then self-employed artisans will not be able to prosper no matter how good their training is skills do not create their own demand, and if the programme is to succeed, other types of assistance besides training, will have to be provided."

Nzioka's (1986:125-126) findings, which supported the thesis that graduates in high agro-ecological areas find it easier to get into self-employment than graduates from low agro-ecological zones, also lent some support to our findings in this study. Nzioka's findings are presented in table No. 12.

Table No. 12: Findings on employment rates in high and low agro-ecological zones

Agro-Ecological Zone	No. of graduates employed	No. of unemployed graduates	Totals
High	54 (84.4%)	10 (15.6%)	64 (100%)
Low	52 (81.3%)	12 (18.7%)	64 (100%)

To assess the exact nature of the relationship between the level of economic prosperity of an area and the resultant employment creation rates for YP graduates, we used the Spearman Rank Order statistic. The association between the two variables, was found to be strong and positive. The direction and strength of the relationship stood at 0.72 (see table No. 13)

Conclusion

Arising from our research findings, it can be said that, the more prosperous a rural economy, the higher the prospects of employment for the local YP graduates. The employment opportunities are created and consolidated by the local inhabitants increased demand for YP graduates' goods and/or services. This demand is enhanced by the local inhabitants high purchasing power arising from incomes earned from the prevailing profitable economic activities.

Consequently, for YPs to adequately meet the goal of employment generation for the rural youth, the economic development of the rural areas is a prerequisite.

Table No. 13: Association between YPs in areas of different levels of economic prosperity and the consequent employment generated

	Levels of economic prosperity	Employment rates	Difference	Differences squared
Chebukwabi YP (Kimilili division)	5	4 =	1	1
Matili YP Kimilili division	4	7	- 3	9
Sinoko YP Webuye division	6	8	- 2	4
Naitiri YP Tongaren division	3	3	0	0
Kisongo YP Mt. Elgon division	8	5	3	9
Sirisia YP Sirisia division	7	6	1	1
Khasoko YP Kandyui division	2	2	0	0
Kisiwa YP Kandyui division	1	1	0	0
				24

: 129 :

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{N(N^2 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{6 \times 24}{8(64 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{144}{504} = 1 - 0.28 = 0.72$$

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is a summary of the various issues covered in the earlier five chapters. The chapters are summarized in a chronological order with specific attention given to the major findings. Conclusions are also made in relation to the significant findings. Thereafter, recommendations, which are based on our study findings, are made and emphasize on what should be done to ensure that the YP programme is more effective in its contribution to the development of the rural sector.

The study focussed on YPs, taking Bungoma district as a case study. YPs, as one of the alternatives to the formal education system, provide practical education and training to the rural youth. The benefits deriving from this type of training are meant to promote the process of rural development through various ways.

6.1 Summary and Conclusions

Chapter one covered the statement of the problem, the justification of the problem, the objectives, the hypotheses, theoretical framework and the study methodology. The main argument in the problem was that, YPs, which are supposed to provide relevant entrepreneurial skills to the rural youth; alleviate the unemployment problem among the rural youth; and help overcome the shortage of artisans

and craftsmen needed mainly for rural sector jobs, have not been adequately satisfying these goals and objectives. Several studies (Court, 1972; Evaluation Mission, 1974; Ferguson and Baker, 1979; Kinyanjui, 1979; Caplen, 1981; Migot-Adholla and Owiro, 1981; Orwa, 1982; Ongolo, 1983; Nzioka, 1986; and Yambo, 1986) have in one way or another, pointed to various reasons that may be accounting for the not-so-satisfactory performance of most YPs in rural development. It has been argued that the relatively low levels of YP programme human and material resource base may be a plausible explanation. It has also been suggested that the poor implementation of national rural development policies at the local level may be yet another additional explanation. The level of prosperity of a local rural economy has also been pointed out as a possible factor that may greatly influence the contribution of YPs to rural development, especially in relation to employment generation for the rural youth.

It is around the above possible reasons and factors that our study objectives and ultimately, the hypotheses were based. The study objective was to explore and investigate into the actual link and relationship between each of the above given factors and the consequent contribution of YPs to the development of the rural sector. The study hypotheses were as follows:

- (a) National rural development policies influence the scope of rural employment opportunities for YP graduates;
- (b) The higher the quality of management in the YP, the more effective the YP is in the achievement of its goals and objectives;
- (c) The level of prosperity of a local rural economy influences availability of rural employment opportunities for YP graduates; and,
- (d) The quality of YP training influences YP graduates' expertise and entrepreneurship in their work.

Eight out of the ten Government-assisted YPs in Bungoma district formed our study sample. These were Sirisia YP in Sirisia division, Sinoko YP in Webuye division, Kisongo YP in Mt. Elgon division, Naitiri YP in Tongaren division, Matili and Chebukwabi YPs in Kimilili division, Khasoko and Kisiwa YPs in Kanduyi division.

The study had a total sample of 103 respondents. These included: 53 YP graduates from the years 1982-1989; 25 current students/trainees; all the 8 project managers; four members of the management committees; five Government officials in charge of the YP programme at the district level; and 8 YP parents/guardians to YP graduates.

Chapter two consisted of an examination of the evolution of vocational education policy in Kenya, beginning with the colonial period and moving into the

independence era. Vocational education during the colonial era achieved little success in terms of enabling Africans to be economically self-reliant. Despite this general failure of colonial vocational education to achieve most of its objectives as a result of several socio-economic and political reasons, it was later to serve as a basis for the current YP programme.

It was noted that the YP programme became popular soon after independence as an alternative to the formal education system. Unemployment amongst primary school leavers, which by then had become a major crisis in the country, was thought to be a result of an educational system which turns out inappropriately trained labour. The solution, thus, being to reform the education system by promoting non-formal, practically-oriented training like the YP programme which imparts the skills necessary for gaining local craft employment. The eventual establishment and adoption of the YP programme by the Government of Kenya was not until in the late 1960's following closely in the pioneering efforts of the NCKK.

Chapter three consisted of findings on the role and influence of national rural development policies on YP graduates' employment in the rural informal sector. National rural development policies were viewed as the relevant State decisions, pronouncements, and actions meant to organize and streamline the efforts by the

rural communities in meeting certain set goals and objectives. The particular State policies examined included those concerning the loan/credit schemes to small-scale entrepreneurs; small-scale business licensing; and the allocation of public tenders to small-scale entrepreneurs in the rural informal sector.

Loan/credit facilities generally refer to money lent to an individual or group of people to be returned with or without interest. This study found out that out of the 29 self-employed graduates, only 2 (7%) of them had received some form of credit facilities to initiate or expand their business activities. Even so, these credit facilities had come from either personal friends or relatives. The rest of the graduates (93%) in self-employment said that they had not benefited from such loan/credit facilities. Lack of access to these facilities was explained as being due to either lack of adequate information pertaining to these schemes, or lack of security to guarantee such loans.

Our findings revealed that lack of access to loan/credit facilities for most YP graduates had hampered their ability and capacity to initiate and expand their small-scale business activities. Lack of access to loan/credit facilities has in essence, meant lack of adequate capital, tools/equipments and working materials. These findings concur with those of Court, 1972:6; Caplen, 1981:69; ILO Report, 1981:31-33 .

The study also investigated the issue of small-scale business licensing. YP graduates who are expected to join the ranks of the self-employed, need licences in order to start and successfully run their business activities. Twenty (69%) of the 29 self-employed graduates admitted having experienced several problems in relation to the acquisition of business licences. This view was also supported by most of the project managers and members of the management committees. Difficulties experienced range from the demand by the local government authorities for permanent well painted premises before qualifying for licence possession and the demand for more than one type of business licence. These difficulties, more often than not, have hindered the YP graduates' efforts to initiate and operate small-scale business activities since they (the demands) are prohibitive in terms of financial costs and the period necessary for undertaking them. This situation calls for urgent revision of the laws, procedures and requirements governing the licensing of small-scale business activities in the rural areas, if the YP graduates have to enter actively into self-employment ventures.

The issue pertaining to the allocation of public tenders to YP graduates in the rural areas was also addressed. A public tender was defined as a form of contract awarded by a Government institution/project through central ministries and local district authorities

to an individual/group to supply goods and/or services at certain prices. Of the 29 self-employed graduates, only 8 (27.6%) accepted that they supply goods and/or services to public or semi-public institutions. The remainder of the graduates (72.4%) said that they have not supplied public institutions with goods and/or services since they started running self-employment ventures. Asked to explain why this is so, some explained that, in the first place, they have never been awarded such tenders. However, others argued that it is because their goods and/or services are grossly inadequate in terms of quantity to be able to meet such enormous tenders. It would thus seem that a meaningful allocation of public tenders to most YP graduates would first require that their capability to supply goods and/or services is tremendously increased. Our findings on the allocation of public tenders to YP graduates, support those of Caplen (1981:73-74), who in his study, found out that YP graduates did not benefit significantly in terms of being awarded public tenders. However, Caplen did not go further to explain the main reasons behind this situation.

It can be said, therefore, that national rural development policies in relation to licensing of small-scale business activities, access to loan/credit schemes, and the award of public tenders to small-scale entrepreneurs in the rural informal sector, have not had the desired impact either because the policies have been

poorly implemented or not implemented at all at the local levels by the relevant authorities. However, these rural development policies can provide significant incentives to YP graduates in self-employment, if well implemented. The national Government in collaboration with the local authorities, should therefore, take a more serious approach and have a commitment towards the full and successful implementation of these policies in the rural areas.

Chapter four was an investigation into the YP programme human and material resources with special reference to their prevailing levels and influence on YP contribution to rural development. Human resources in the YPs referred to the staff directly concerned with the internal functioning of these institutions. Material resources included equipments, training materials, workshops and funds available to the YPs.

We made an attempt to evaluate the academic and professional qualifications of YP managers. The particular level of professional qualifications of the managers was assumed to have an influence on the performance of their YP duties and functions, and consequently on the overall attainment of YP set goals and objectives. Out of the 8 project managers interviewed, only 4 of them had attended some form of administrative/management courses. The courses consisted of planning

and budgeting. However, these four managers argued strongly that the courses had been too brief and far-in-between. The majority of the project managers had no more than fourth form secondary academic qualifications. Our findings revealed that, to run the YPs, most of the project managers relied more on personal experience than on any tangible professional qualifications. Lack of professional administrative qualifications also seemed to apply to the members of the management committees, the majority of whom had been chosen to their particular roles in the YPs more on the strength of the social respect accorded to them by the local inhabitants than on any tangible professional management skills.

The relatively low quality of YP managements has led to poor performance of YP duties by most YP managers. These duties include the keeping of accurate programme guides, records of work opportunity guide and keeping track of YP graduates' work-places and whereabouts. These shortcomings, in many ways, have negatively affected the capacity and ability of YPs to adequately place their graduates in productive employment ventures. Our findings on the unsatisfactory nature of most YP managements in terms of quality and thus performance of functions, support those of Orwa, 1982:361; and Migot-Adholla and Owiro, 1981:7-8.

In trying to establish the level of quality of YP training, current students, graduates, the managers and Government officials were asked various questions. These questions related to the prevailing levels of teacher instruction, equipments, training materials and workshops. For YP graduates, the most satisfying aspect of YP training was the training facilities, followed by teaching by instructors and then the balance between theory and practical lessons. For current students, the most satisfactory aspect of YP training was the instruction by teachers, followed by level of training facilities and then the balance between practicals and theory teaching. The combined views of current students and graduates on the various aspects of YP training indicated a relatively satisfactory picture than those of project managers, members of the management committees and Government officials. The quantity levels of instructors per trade and equipments, as well as training facilities were rated among the most unsatisfactory aspects of YP training by the managers and Government officials.

A comparison over time between the various ratings of graduates and current students on the several aspects of YP training brought out a new revelation on the level of quality of YP training. On the whole, graduates seemed to have been more satisfied with the quality of YP training during their era than the current

students. This may be a pointer to the fact that the quality of YP training is deteriorating rather than improving. Orwa (1982:393-396) and Ongolo (1983:127), in studies conducted earlier, likewise found out that the quality and quantity levels of YP instructors, equipments and training materials were unsatisfactory.

The "expertise" of YP graduates was measured in terms of the quality of skills gained from the YP training and the ability of the graduates to effectively compete with non-YP trained artisans in the sale of goods and/or services to their local communities. An assumption was made that the nature and type of training offered in a YP will influence the expertise acquired by a YP graduate, which can be reflected in his entrepreneurial work. Some graduates (24.1%), who are at the moment in some form of self-employment, argued that lack of adequate skills to compete with non-YP trained artisans had been a major obstacle at the beginning of their careers. Eight (27.6%) others of those already in self-employment said that, even after having acquired some long practical experience of work, they still had problems in competing with other YP and non-YP trained artisans in the sale of their commodities. They accounted for this unfavourable situation in terms of relatively poor skills acquired at the YP training. Two (12.5%) of the 16 unemployed YP graduates attributed their unemployment situation wholly to the poor skills attained at their YP.

To assess the quality of goods and/or services produced by YP graduates, both YP graduates' parents/guardians and Government officials were asked to rate them. The respondents were equally divided whereby some rated YP graduates' goods and/or services as good while others as fair. However, in comparing YP graduates' goods and/or services with those offered by non-YP trained artisans, most of them had the view that the quality of goods and/or services produced by non-YP trained artisans was on the whole, better and thus more marketable in local areas.

The relatively low quality of goods and/or services produced by some YP graduates was traced to the low quality of YP training they acquired. Thus, to avoid producing graduates with low quality skills, which in turn hampers their ability and capacity to market goods and/or services to the local inhabitants, an improvement in the quality of YP training is a priority. Using the Kendall statistic, we found out the correlation between quality of YP training in its various aspects, and YP graduates' expertise to be at 0.55. This indicated a fairly strong relationship between these variables.

Thus, all in all, there is a need to raise not only the levels of YP managements in terms of academic and professional qualifications, but also the levels of instructors, training materials and equipments - all of which have a significant bearing on the quality of

training offered in the YPs. An improvement in the levels of YP human and material resources will enhance the capacity of YPs to adequately meet their set goals and objectives.

Chapter five was an investigation into the nature of the relationship(s) between the level of advancement of a rural economy and the capacity of the local YPs to generate rural employment for their graduates. The chapter examined the various patterns of economic activities within Bungoma district.

Kanduyi division was ranked as being the most prosperous rural economy in the district. Tongaren division was ranked second, followed by Kimilili, Webuye, Sirisia and then, Mt. Elgon. These rankings were based on a number of factors which included the level of development of commercial agriculture within the particular division; the presence of rural and urban centres; and the presence of processing factories within the various divisions.

The study found out that the level of economic activities practised in an area influenced much the employment prospects of YP graduates in several ways. Twelve (57.1%) of the 21 YP graduates who said that the various economic activities practised in their local areas had influenced their business activities argued that the relatively high incomes generated from the economic activities had boosted the purchasing power of

the local inhabitants. A boost in the purchasing power of the local inhabitants had in turn led to an increase in the demand for the graduates' goods and/or services. However, for some of the graduates, there was a complaint to the contrary that they were unable to sell as much of their goods and/or services to the local inhabitants due to their relatively low purchasing power arising from low savings - this reduced their ability to strengthen and expand their small-scale business activities.

The various employment levels within most of the divisions tended to support the thesis that the more economically prosperous a rural economy, the higher the employment prospects and scope for its YP graduates. For instance, Kanduyi and Tongaren divisions, the two most developed rural economies in the district, had the highest employment levels (100% for either). Kimilili division, ranked third in terms of economic development, had an employment level of 55%, while Sirisia division ranked fifth, had one of 50%.

However, the employment rates for both Mt. Elgon and Webuye divisions did not seem to support the thesis that the more developed a rural economy, the higher the prospects for local employments for YP graduates. While Mt. Elgon division was ranked last in terms of the prosperity of the rural economy, it had a relatively high employment level of 57.1%. Webuye division ranked fourth

in terms of its economic prosperity, had the lowest employment rate of 25%. Other factors, other than the level of prosperity of the local rural economy may explain the anomalies in these two divisions. It was argued that YP graduates from Sinoko YP (Webuye division), unlike those from Kisongo YP (Mt. Elgon division), had a lower level of expertise in their entrepreneurial work resulting from the relatively low quality of their YP training. Lack of adequate entrepreneurial skills may thus have contributed to the higher unemployment levels for YP graduates from Sinoko YP. On the contrary, the relatively high quality skills contributed to the higher employment levels of graduates from Kisongo YP in Mt. Elgon division:

Our study, unlike most of the earlier ones (Anderson, 1971; Court, 1972; Brown, 1974; Ongolo, 1983; Nzioka, 1986; and Yambo, 1986) revealed a higher self-employment rate than the wage employment for YP graduates. This was accounted for by several reasons, such as, the general bias for self-employment by most YP graduates in Bungoma district; the long working experience for most YP graduates in our sample, thus enabling them to acquire their own equipment and materials necessary for self-employment; and, the formation of work groups which have enabled most graduates to come together and participate in self-employment activities.

All in all, we conclude that employment rates for YP graduates tend to be higher in relatively more developed rural economies. Using the Spearman rank order statistic, we found the association between employment levels and the level of advancement of a rural economy to be at 0.72. This is a strong positive relationship. Our conclusion supports the findings of Barker (1979:5-6); Caplen (1981:48); and Nzioka (1986: 125-126). It can therefore be argued that for YPs to adequately meet the goal of employment generation for the rural youth, the economic development of the rural areas is vital.

6.2. Recommendations

YPs, as revealed in this study, are playing an important role in the development of the rural sector. A significant proportion (69.8%) of the total YP graduates in our sample were found to be in some form of employment. These graduates help to provide rural communities with basic goods and/or services at affordable prices. Thus, it can be argued conclusively that, the entrepreneurial skills acquired from the YPs are, to some extent, being utilised in the development of the rural areas. It is in the light of this that the YP programme deserves continued financial and material support from the Government and other private organizations, particularly NGOs.

There are several obstacles, which, if not given maximum attention, may ultimately hamper the ability and capacity of YPs to adequately meet their stated goals and objectives in the development of the rural sector. For instance, our findings have shown that, national rural development policies meant to promote the rural informal sector, have not been implemented satisfactorily at the local levels. This is especially in relation to access to loan/credit schemes for boosting the YP graduates' capital base; provision of the relevant business licences at an affordable and quicker pace; and the allocation of public tenders to boost the ability of YP graduates to compete effectively with the other more established firms/individuals. These shortcomings, in many ways, are curtailing the potential of the graduates to exploit their employment opportunities in the rural areas. To reverse this unfavourable situation, the Government in collaboration with the local authorities should have a deeper commitment towards implementing these development policies for the benefit of the rural informal sector.

The human and material resource base in most YPs needs improvement in terms of their quality and quantity levels. Most YP managements are inadequately equipped in relation to academic and professional qualifications. This has hindered their effective performance of YP duties and functions, and thus, the

effective attainment of YP goals. This situation calls for an introduction of intensified in-service management courses for the present YP managers, and in future, the recruitment of professionally qualified managers.

The provision of instructors, especially in terms of their adequacy in numbers, needs to be given some serious attention. Most YPs lack adequate instructors to effectively handle their trainees at the levels of trades offered. Efforts to provide adequate and well trained instructors should therefore be the immediate goal of the Government with regard to YPs.

The levels of equipments/tools, workshops and training materials in YPs, especially in terms of quantity, are not satisfactory. Trainees in a YP tend to compete for the few available equipments and training materials, a situation that does not favour maximum concentration. Most workshops remain ill-equipped and thus limit the ability of YPs to furnish trainees with adequate balanced practical skills. It would therefore be advisable for the Government in collaboration with the interested NGOs, to increase their assistance to YPs in form of either the training facilities themselves or funds to purchase these facilities. This is the only viable way of improving the quality of training offered in the YPs.

In view of the finding that, the more developed a rural economy, the higher the employment scope and opportunities for the local YP graduates, the economic

development of rural areas should be greatly emphasized. Development of the rural areas should focus on agriculture, industry, as well as the growth of rural service centres. As noted, most of Bungoma district has sufficient rainfall and fairly fertile soils, which if put to maximum use through application of modern scientific methods, can considerably raise the agricultural productivity of these areas. Improvement in agricultural productivity should in turn have beneficial spillover effects in the growth of industry and service centres. A relatively advanced rural economy will mean high incomes for the local inhabitants. High incomes in turn will create the demand for housing, clothing, furniture and other basic needs which can effectively be met by YP graduates, and thus expanding their employment scope and opportunities in the rural areas.

In Summary, the policy recommendations are as follows:-

1. Increased efforts by the Government in collaboration with the local authorities in the implementation of national rural development policies at the local levels in relation to:
 - (a) The issuing of relevant business licences to YP graduates. The unnecessary constraints to licencing of small-scale business activities such as the demands for permanent well painted business premises should be

revised to take into consideration the financial limits of the graduates. YP graduates, with their limited financial base, should also not be forced to possess other unnecessary licences, unless the requirement is absolutely necessary.

- (b) Access to loan/credit schemes. The Government and other viable private organizations should increase their efforts in the provision of capital to YP graduates. This capital can either be in the form of physical facilities or funds to be paid back at agreed reasonable terms.
- (c) Allocation of public tenders. The Government should ensure that central ministries and district authorities favour YP graduates through an increased purchase of their goods and/or services. Such a move can greatly strengthen the graduates' self-employment enterprises relative to other well established enterprises.

2. Raising the quality and quantity levels of the YP programme human and material resources in relation to:

(a) Improving the quality of YP management.
Emphasis should be put on in-service management courses for the present managers, and in future the recruitment of professionally qualified managers.

(b) Improving quality of YP training.
Emphasis should be put on the recruitment of sufficient instructors who are technically qualified and the provision of adequate training equipments, materials and workshops.

3. The economic development of the rural areas should be emphasized through improved agriculture and the establishment of a rural industrial base. The growth of service centres should also be promoted. A combination of these strategies will ensure increased incomes for the rural communities, which in turn, can effectively support YP graduates' business activities in the rural areas.

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APPENDIX
INTRODUCTION

Good Day. My name is Frank Khachina Matanga. I am a post-graduate student from University of Nairobi.

My objective, is to carry out a research project on the role of Youth Polytechnics (YPs) in rural development with specific reference to Bungoma District. To successfully meet this objective, your co-operation is essential. Consequently, I will appreciate all your efforts to assist me towards this end.

Thanks in advance.

NOTES:

- 1) In responding to questions with multiple choices, the respondent should circle or make a ring on the answer or answers that appeal to him most.
- 2) Questions which are followed by blank spaces require the respondent to fill them with the appropriate answers.
- 3) The initials "YP", used extensively in the questionnaire, stand for 'Youth Polytechnic.'

QUESTIONNAIRE I (FOR YP CURRENT STUDENTS AND LEAVERS)

Background information

- 1 (i) Name of Respondent
- (ii) Name of respondent's YP
- (iii) Role/Position of respondent (leaver
or current student)?
2. Location
3. Sub-location
4. Division
5. District

SECTION A (FOR YP CURRENT STUDENTS)

6. (i) What year did you join the Youth
Polytechnic?.....
- (ii) When do you hope to graduate?
7. What trade/trades are you undertaking? .
 - (a) Metal work
 - (b) Mechanics
 - (c) Masonry
 - (d) Tailoring & dress-making
 - (e) Agricultural
 - (f) Carpentry
 - (g) Leatherwork
 - (h) Other(specify)
8. Why did you choose that particular trade/trades?
 - (a) _____
 - (b) _____

(c) _____

9. How would you rate training facilities (workshops and equipment/tools) in your YP?

- (a) Very adequate
- (b) Adequate
- (c) Not adequate

10. Rate the quality of instruction (actual teaching by instructors) in your YP?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor

11. What can you say of the balance between practical lessons and theory in your YP?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor

12. Explain your answer to question 11.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

13. If offered another opportunity to study another trade at your present YP, would you take it?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

14. Explain your answer to question 13.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

15. (i) Do you think YP training promises you better chances of productive employment than formal schooling?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No
- (ii) If yes, Explain
-

16. After graduation, where do you hope to work?

- (a) Local rural area
- (b) Another rural area
- (c) Urban area

17. Explain your answer to question 16.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

18. During your training at the YP, have you been aware of any official government policies to assist you start and run your own business after graduation?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

19. Explain your answer to question 18.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

20. Last, rate your project manager (Principal) in terms of YP administration.

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor

21. (i) Give three major advantages of YP training.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

(ii) Give three major problems of YP training

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

SECTION B (FOR YP LEAVERS/GRADUATES)

22. Between what years did you attend the YP?

From to

23. What trade/trades did you study?

- (a) Metal work
- (b) Mechanics
- (c) Masonry
- (d) Tailoring and dress-making
- (e) Agricultural
- (f) Carpentry
- (g) Leatherwork
- (h) Other (specify)

24. Why did you choose to study the particular trade/trades?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____

(c) _____

25. Rate the training facilities (workshops and equipments) at your YP?
- (a) Very adequate
 - (b) Adequate
 - (c) Not adequate
26. Rate the quality of instruction (actual teaching by instructors) in your YP?
- (a) Excellent.
 - (b) Good
 - (c) Fair
 - (d) Poor
27. Rate your YP project manager (Principal) in terms of YP administration.
- (a) Excellent
 - (b) Good
 - (c) Fair
 - (d) Poor
28. What can you say of the balance between practical lessons and theory teaching in your YP?
- (a) Excellent
 - (b) Good
 - (c) Fair
 - (d) Poor
29. Explain your answer to question 28.
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____

30. If offered another opportunity to study the trade you did at your former YP (where you graduated from), would you take it?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No
31. Explain your answer to question 30.
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
32. Would you say YP training has offered you better chances of productive employment than formal schooling?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No
33. Explain your answer to question 32.
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
34. Where did you hope to work after your YP training?
- (a) In your own local area
 - (b) In another rural area elsewhere from yours
 - (c) In an urban area (specify)
35. Explain your answer to question 34.
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
36. Have you ever been employed since graduation?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No

37. If No, Why?
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
38. If Yes, as self-employed or wage-employed?
- (a) Self-employed
 - (b) Wage-employed
39. If self-employed, what were the most difficult problems you encountered at the beginning of your career? (If need be, circle more than one).
- (a) Competition from non-YP trained artisans.
 - (b) Lack of customers due to low purchasing power in your area
 - (c) Lack of tools
 - (d) Lack of capital
 - (e) Difficulties in obtaining business licences
 - (f) Other(specify)
40. (i) If self-employed have you received any credit and loan facilities to help you start or run your business/s?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No
40. (ii) If Yes, specify the sources
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
41. If No, for what reason/reasons?
- (a) I have not approached any financial institution because I had other sources of finance

- (c) Lack of tools
- (d) Lack of capital
- (e) Difficulties in obtaining business licences
- (f) Other(specify)

47. If self-employed, what business activities are you engaged in for a living

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

48. (i) Would you say the various economic activities practised in your local area have influenced the type of business activities you are currently involved in?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No
- (ii) If Yes, Explain

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

49. Who is your largest customer for goods and services that you produce?

- (a) Private individuals and families
- (b) Public institutions (government schools, hospitals, offices etc.)

50. Where are these customers located?

- (a) In your local rural area
- (b) In another rural area elsewhere from yours
- (c) In an urban area(specify)

51. Over the period you have been self-employed, would you say that the demand for your goods and services has gone up?

(a) Yes

(b) No

52. If No, what would you give as the most appropriate explanation?

(a) Customers prefer goods and services produced by non-YP trained artisans to YP-trained artisans

(b) Customers have a low-purchasing power (that's due to poor finances, they are incapable of purchasing more goods and services offered by YP graduates)

(c) Other(specify)

53. Give three major advantages of YP training

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

54. Give three major problems of YP training

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

QUESTIONNAIRE TWO

SECTION A (1) (FOR BOTH YP PROJECT MANAGERS &
MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES)

1. (a) Name of YP?
- (b) Role/Position of respondent (Project Manager or
 Management Committee)?
- (c) Name of respondent
2. (a) Location within which YP is located?
- (b) Division within which YP is located?
- (c) District within which YP is located?
3. (a) In which year was your YP established? ...
- (b) What organizations were involved in its
 establishment?
- (c) What organizations are involved in its running
 now?
4. What are the particular goals of this organization?
 - (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
 - (d) _____

5. Are you satisfied these goals are being met?

(a) Yes

(b) No

6. Explain your answer to question 5.

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

7. List the major trades offered and their average enrolments in this YP?

(a) _____ ()

(b) _____ ()

(c) _____ ()

(d) _____ ()

(e) _____ ()

(f) _____ ()

(g) _____ ()

(h) _____ ()

8. Rate the dropout level of students from this institution before completion of their training ____

(a) Very high

(b) High

(c) Moderate

(d) Low

(e) Very low

9. Explain your answer to question 8

.....

10. Do you keep program guides?

(a) Yes

(b) No

11. Do you have records of work opportunity guide?
 - (a) Yes
 - (b) No
12. Do you keep track of your students after they graduate from the YP?
 - (a) Yes
 - (b) No
13. If Yes (to question 12), where do the majority work?
 - (a) Local rural area
 - (b) Other rural areas elsewhere
 - (c) Urban areas(specify)
14. Give reasons for your answers to question-13.
 - (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____
 - (d) _____
15. What problem/problems do YP graduates from this organization face in getting self-employed?
 - (a) Competition from non-YP trained artisans
 - (b) Lack of customers due to low purchasing power in the area;
 - (c) Lack of tools
 - (d) Lack of initial capital
 - (e) Obtaining trade licences
 - (f) Other(specify)
16. From all the trades taught in this YP, which ones are currently in high demand in this area?
.....
17. Why?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

18. What popular economic activities (agricultural and industrial) are carried out in this area?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

19. Do these economic activities influence YP students in choosing the particular trades they want to study?

- (a) Yes.
- (b) No

20. Do these economic activities influence the employment patterns of YP graduates in the area?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

21. Explain your answer to question 20

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

22. Are there any official government policies that facilitate the acquisition of credit and loan facilities by YP graduates?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

23. Explain your answer to question 22

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

24. Do your YP leavers experience major problems in acquiring trade licences from concerned government authorities?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

25. If Yes (to question 24), which ones?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

26. In your YP, do you have any workshop/s for carrying out practicals?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

27. If Yes, how well equipped are they?

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Well
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor

28. Who's the employer of the instructors?

- (a) Government
- (b) Management Committees
- (c) Both Government and Management Committees
- (d) Other(specify)

29. Rate your YP instructors

- (a) Highly qualified
- (b) Qualified

- (c) Fairly qualified
- (d) Poorly qualified

30. In relation to the qualifications of your instructors, fill the tables below

<u>Trade</u>	<u>How many trained</u>	<u>How many untrained</u>
(a) _____	_____	_____
(b) _____	_____	_____
(c) _____	_____	_____
(d) _____	_____	_____
(e) _____	_____	_____
(f) _____	_____	_____

31. Apart from training and qualifications would you say you have enough/adequate instructors per trade?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

32. Rate government officers' assistance to your project

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Satisfactory
- (d) Poor

33. Explain your answer to question 32.

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

34. Who audits the finances of your YP project?

- (a) Government
- (b) Manager

(c) Management Committee

(d) Other(specify)

35. How efficient is the auditing?

(a) Very efficient

(b) Efficient

(c) Not efficient

36. What would you say are the major problems facing your YP today?

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

(e) _____

37. How do you intend to solve them?
.....
.....

38. What can you suggest as measures for better running of the YP Programme?

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

(e) _____

SECTION A(2): FOR YP PROJECT MANAGERS ONLY

39. (i) Have you attended any managerial/administrative course to facilitate your managing of the YP?

(a) Yes

(b) No

39. (ii) If Yes, fill the table below

	<u>Course</u>	<u>Training Centre</u>	<u>Duration</u>	<u>Major content</u>
(a)	_____	_____	_____	_____
(b)	_____	_____	_____	_____
(c)	_____	_____	_____	_____
(d)	_____	_____	_____	_____

40. In your YP, what is the composition of the management Committee (by profession)?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____
- (e) _____

41. What would you say is the role of the Management Committee in the YP?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

42. (i) Rate your Management Committee in terms of meeting their goals in the YP

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Satisfactory
- (d) Poor

(ii) Explain your answer

- (a) _____
- (b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

(e)

SECTION A (3) : FOR MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE ONLY

43. (i) Rate your Project Manager in terms of professional qualifications

(a) Highly qualified

(b) Qualified

(c) Poorly qualified

(ii) Explain your answer
.....
.....

44. (i) Rate your Project Manager in terms of YP management efficiency

(a) Excellent

(b) Good

(c) Satisfactory

(d) Poor

(ii) Explain your answer
.....
.....

SECTION B (FOR GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS -

Youth Training Officers)

45. (a) Name of officer

(b) Specific Ministry

(c) Position held by the officer

(d) Station

46. Rate your management committees in terms of running the programme
- (a) Very well-versed with the programme
 - (b) Fairly well-versed with the programme
 - (c) Poorly versed with the programme

47. Are you aware of the professional qualifications of your project managers?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No

48. (i) If Yes (to question 47), rate them
- (a) Highly qualified
 - (b) Fairly qualified
 - (c) Poorly qualified
- (ii) Explain your answer

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

49. Does the government through the concerned ministry, help to organize initial or refresher courses for your project managers?
- (a) Yes
 - (b) No

50. If Yes (to question 49), explain
- (a) _____
 - (b) _____
 - (c) _____

51. What is the proficiency of your YP instructors in terms of:
- (i) Ability to teach?

- (a) Very good
- (b) Good
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor
- (ii) Qualifications?
 - (a) Very qualified
 - (b) Qualified
 - (c) Poorly qualified

52. Explain your answer to question 51

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

53. Evaluate level of training materials in YPs

- (a) Sufficient
- (b) Fair
- (c) Inadequate

54. Explain your answer to question 53

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

55. (i) What major economic activities (e.g. factories, cash crop farming) are undertaken in the various divisions?

- (a) Kanduyi
- (b) Sirisia
- (c) Webuye
- (d) Kimilili
- (e) Mount Elgon
- (f) Tongaren

(ii) If there are any, would you say they influence the

employment patterns of YP graduates in their various localities?

(a) Yes

(b) No

(iii) Explain your answer to question 55 (ii)

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

56. (i) Are you aware of any official government policies that have been stipulated to assist YP graduates either individually or as a workgroup to secure credit/loan facilities from lending financial institutions?

(a) Yes

(b) No

(ii) Explain your answer to question 56 (i)

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

57. (i) Are you aware of any official government policies that have been stipulated to enhance the acquisition of trading licences and permits by YP graduates from relevant authorities?

(a) Yes

(b) No

(ii) Explain your answer to question 57 (i)

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

58. (i) In your locality, do YP graduates have access to any public contracts and tenders (e.g. from government hospitals, schools, offices etc) to supply goods and services?

(a) Yes

(b) No

(ii) Explain your answer

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

59. (i) Has the YP programme met its objectives?

(a) Yes

(b) No

(ii) Explain your answer

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

60. (i) How do you rate goods and services rendered by YP graduates (in terms of quality)?

(a) Excellent

(b) Good

(c) Fair

(d) Poor

(ii) Explain your answer
.....
.....

61. What would you say to be the major problems facing the YP programme?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____
- (e) _____

62. What measures can you suggest as a means towards improving the YP programme?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

SECTION C (FOR YP LEAVERS' PARENTS/GUARDIANS):

63. (i) Name of Parent/Guardian
- (ii) Name of son/daughter
- (iii) Name of YP attended by son/daughter
-
- (iv) Location
- (v) Division

64. What reasons made you to enroll your son/daughter at the YP?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

65. (1) Having undergone his YP training, do you think he has met his/your objectives?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No

(ii) Explain
.....
.....

66. Rate YP management in terms of quality

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Satisfactory
- (d) Poor

67. As parents, what contributions have you made/make to the running of the YP?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____
- (d) _____

68. (i) Rate the goods and services rendered by YP graduates in terms of quality

- (a) Excellent
- (b) Good
- (c) Fair
- (d) Poor

(ii) Explain your answer
.....

69. (i) Would you say the YP programme has been of much benefit to the local community as a whole?

- (a) Yes
- (b) No
- (ii) Why?

- (a) _____
- (b) _____
- (c) _____

(d) _____

70. What recommendations can you make towards the improvement of the YP Programme?

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____