FACTORS INFLUENCING IMPLEMENTATION OF NON-FORMAL BASIC EDUCATION CURRICULUM AT THE NON-FORMAL EDUCATION CENTRES IN NAIROBI, MOMBASA AND KISUMU CITIES, KENYA

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A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Educational Administration and Planning in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Curriculum Studies of the University of Nairobi

2013
DECLARATION

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

____________________________________________

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Faith;

and our children Victor, Ian and Perpetua.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When we set goals for ourselves, there are always obstacles in the way that may deter us from accomplishing those goals. There are also people in our lives who are aware of those goals, and encourage us and support us to continue regardless of the obstacles. It is now that I can formally thank those people for doing just that for me. First and foremost, I want to sincerely thank my supervisors, Dr. Grace Nyagah and Dr. Rose Obae. Dr. Grace Nyagah encouraged, supported and facilitated this study in many aspects, both as my supervisor and as the Chairman of the department, while Dr. Obae supported, guided and encouraged me throughout the duration of my work on this thesis.

I would like to thank the four most important people in my life: Faith Wanjiku my dear wife, Victor Gathumbi, Ian Njuguna and Perpetua Muthu, our wonderful children. I have set goals for myself because of them. In fact, my life revolves around them, and many decisions in my professional life were made with them as a major priority in the decision-making process. My success is theirs. I also wish to thank the directors, teachers and learners of the Non Formal Education (NFE) centres in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu cities for providing me with data for this study. Last but not least I wish to thank everybody who in one way or another supported me and contributed towards the success of this endeavour.
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<td>Adult and Continuing Education</td>
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<td>AES</td>
<td>Alternative Education Systems</td>
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<td>ALP</td>
<td>Accelerated Learning Programmes</td>
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<td>ASCD</td>
<td>Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development</td>
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<td>CAA</td>
<td>Community Action Abroad</td>
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<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisations</td>
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<td>CESA</td>
<td>Comprehensive Education Sectors Analysis</td>
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<td>CIPP</td>
<td>Context Input Process and Product</td>
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<td>CLT</td>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
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<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<td>ELP</td>
<td>English Language Projects</td>
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<td>ESSSR</td>
<td>Ethiopia Social Sector Study Report</td>
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<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
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<td>FPESP</td>
<td>Free Primary Education Support Programme</td>
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<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate</td>
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<td>GoK</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICDR</td>
<td>Institute of Curriculum Development and Research</td>
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<td>IIZ/DVV</td>
<td>Institut für Internationale Zusammenarbeit des Deutschen (German) Institute for International Co-operation of the German Adult Education Association</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>KENSIP</td>
<td>Kenya School Improvement Project</td>
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<td>KESSP</td>
<td>Kenya Education Sector Support Programme</td>
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<td>KNLS</td>
<td>Kenya National Library Services</td>
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<td>LIFA</td>
<td>Licensed International Financial Analyst</td>
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<td>KIE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Education</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>MoEST</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Science and Technology</td>
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<td>NCST</td>
<td>National Council of Science and Technology</td>
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<td>NER</td>
<td>Net Enrolment Rate</td>
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<td>NFBEC</td>
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<td>P1</td>
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<td>PMLC</td>
<td>Project Management Life Cycle</td>
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<td>RCWDA</td>
<td>Rift Valley Children and Women Development Association</td>
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<td>GoK</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
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<td>SE</td>
<td>Special Edition</td>
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<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling</td>
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<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<td>SWAP</td>
<td>Sector Wide Approach</td>
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<td>TSC</td>
<td>Teachers’ Service Commission</td>
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<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
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<td>UNCRC</td>
<td>United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>UNSP</td>
<td>United Nations Settlement Programme</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>WCEA</td>
<td>World Conference on Education for All</td>
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ABSTRACT

The drive to access basic education to out-of-school (OOS) children has preoccupied successive governments in independent Kenya. Despite the efforts, attaining Education for All (EFA) has remained elusive. The reality of out-of-school children prompted individuals or organisations to initiate non formal education (NFE). Upon recognition of NFE as a viable means of providing education to the OOS children, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) prepared the Non-formal Basic Education Curriculum (NFBEC) to be used by the NFECs in Kenya. The purpose of this study was to assess the implementation of the NFBEC in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu urban centres. Five research objectives guided the study. The study employed cross sectional survey design. The target population consisted of 36 directors, 96 teachers, 750 learners and the community leaders. The study employed purposeful sampling using maximum variation. The sample size comprised of all the 96 teachers, 36 directors and 420 pupils. Data was collected by use of questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, lessons observation and document analysis. The analysis was carried out by use of STATA 11 Special Edition (SE) statistical application, Epi info and Predictive Analytics SoftWare (PASW). The study revealed that curriculum implementation was affected by inadequate or lack of training for teachers. Most of the teachers (52.7%) had not been in-service training on the NFE curriculum. Regression of teacher characteristics and completion rates revealed that there was a significant relationship between gender \( (p = 0.01) \), age \( (p = 0.03) \) and duration at the centre \( (p = 0.02) \) and completion rates. Multiple regressions of selected teacher variables revealed a correlation coefficient of 0.184 with completion rates. Inadequate teachers challenged the implementation of NFBEC where majority (74.2%) of the directors indicated they had inadequate teachers. Linear regression of teaching methods factor (scheme of work) revealed a correlation coefficient of 0.182. The study further revealed that learner characteristics such as their attitude negatively influenced curriculum implementation. There was a significant relationship between teachers’ rating of learners’ characteristics revealed \( (p \text{ lesser than } 0.05) \). Community characteristics had a significant relationship completion rates \( (p = 0.0105) \). The study recommended that the government should finance NFE centres. The Ministry of Gender and Social Services and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) under which these centres are registered should provide teaching and learning facilities. The study also recommended that Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) should provide in-service training for teachers so that they are able to translate and use the NFB E curriculum. The study suggested that a further study should be conducted to establish how other teacher variables not addressed in the study, influence curriculum implementation. A study on how other director variables affect curriculum implementation should be conducted to provide models which would predict what the directors ought to do to effectively implement the curriculum. Lastly, considering that this study was conducted in urban areas, a similar study should be conducted in rural areas to establish what factors affect curriculum implementation in such areas.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in December 1948, guaranteed for the individual a whole range of basic freedoms with education serving as a basic right necessary for the achievement of all other freedoms. Article 28 (1) of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), 1989, declares that all children have a right to education. Education is recognised as a basic right of every child (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation [UNESCO], 2006). The right to education requires that young people be given the opportunity necessary for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that will enable them lead happy and productive lives as individuals and discharge their social duties for the betterment of life in the society (UNESCO, 2006).

Any child without access to education is, therefore, denied the right and power to participate fully as a member of their society. Moreover, since investing in children’s education is the most important contribution a nation can make towards a better future (Lockheed, Marlaine & Verspoor, 1991), children who have been denied access to education are seen as dependent rather than potential active
participants in their country’s socio-economic conditions (Republic of Kenya/MoEST, 2003).

Individual governments across the world constantly reaffirm their commitment to equal opportunity in education. Besides, they are obligated under international human rights conventions, to act on that commitment. And yet most governments are systematically failing to address extreme and persistent education disadvantages that leave large sections of society marginalised (UNESCO, 2010). These disadvantages are rooted in deeply ingrained social, economic and political processes, and unequal power relationships, and they are sustained by political indifference (UNESCO, 2010). This failure to address education gaps is a major problem whose repercussions reverberate across generations, as those who fail to get education lose a competitive edge in other areas of life like employment, health, and social and political participation with the consequent danger of stoking insecurity and social unrest. As UNESCO (2010) notes, restricted opportunity in education is arguably the most powerful mechanism for transmitting poverty across generations (UNESCO, 2010).

In the Kenya Vision 2030 (GoK, 2007), Kenya recognises that education and training of all Kenyans is fundamental to the success of the Vision. The Vision by which the country hopes to become a middle income country by the year 2030 recognises that education equips citizens with understanding and knowledge that enables them to make informed choices about their lives and about the society.
The education sector is, therefore, challenged to provide skills necessary to steer Kenyans to the economic, political and social goals of Vision 2030.

Through education and the Vision 2030, Kenya endeavours to provide globally competitive quality education, training and research to her citizens for development and enhanced individual well-being. The overall goal for 2012, for instance, was to reduce illiteracy by increasing access to education, improving the transition rate from primary to secondary schools, and raising the quality and relevance of education. Other goals include the integration of all special needs education into learning and training institutions, achieving an 80% adult literacy rate, increasing the school enrolment rate to 95%, and increasing transition rates to technical institutions and universities from 3% to 8% by 2012 (GoK, 2007). To cement this endeavour on solid ground, the new Constitution of Kenya guarantees free and compulsory basic education to every child (Article 53 (1) (b)).

However, despite education being the cornerstone for economic and social development and an indispensable key to personal and social improvement, the UNESCO Global Monitoring Report (2012) acknowledges that globally, more than 61 million children fail to complete basic education programmes of whom 42% translating to 26,230 live in The Sub-Saharan Africa (Global Partnership for Education: Quality Education for all children (2013). Unless appropriate educational opportunities are opened to these children, they will eventually join the ranks of adult illiterates who are estimated at 875 million (UNESCO, 2010).
Since 1999, enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa have been increasing five times as fast as in the 1990s, with countries like Benin, Ethiopia, Mozambique and the United Republic of Tanzania registering rapid advances (UNESCO, 2010). Current trends will leave some 61 million children out of school in 2015 and there are indications that the rate of progress towards universal primary education is slowing. Regional progress has also been uneven. Out-of-school numbers have fallen far more rapidly in South Asia, driven by rapid advances in India, than in sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2010).

Most of the countries that are off track in achieving universal primary education by 2015 are low-income countries that, having started from a low base, are either increasing enrolments impressively but too slowly, such as in Burkina Faso and the Niger; or stagnating, such as Eritrea and Liberia. Countries affected by conflict feature prominently in this group. However, higher-income countries such as the Philippines and Turkey are in danger of failing to achieve the target, largely because of deeply entrenched national inequalities (UNESCO, 2010).

Continued inability of many children to access the formal school system could be interpreted as a testimony, not only of the failure of the formal school system, but also of the need for non-traditional education approaches that would address the needs of the out-of-school children (GoK, 2005). It is against this backdrop that The Dakar Framework for Action (2000) advocated for the “third channel” approaches, that is non-formal education (NFE) delivery mode. The shortcomings
in the provision of formal education, therefore, call for non-formal education as a complementary approach to enable the adult and out-of-school youth to access education.

Non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Coombs, 1968). It was at an international conference in Williamsburg USA in 1967, that ideas were set out for what was to become a widely read analysis of the growing “World Educational Crisis” (Fordham, 1993). The conclusion of the conference was that formal educational systems had adapted too slowly to the socio-economic changes around them and that they were held back not only by their own conservatism, but also by the inertia of societies themselves.

It was from this point of departure that planners and economists in the World Bank began to make a distinction between informal, non-formal and formal education. NFE has, therefore, been recognised as an alternative means of offering education to groups that have not benefited from formal education. Fordham (1993) notes that in the 1970s, four characteristics came to be associated with non-formal education. These include, first, NFE is relevant to the needs of disadvantaged groups; secondly, it is concerned with specific categories of person; thirdly, it has a focus on clearly defined purposes; and lastly, it is flexible in organisation and methods.
The term non-formal education is broadly and loosely defined to include all education outside the school system with no parameters of time and space (Shiror, 1995). It includes all learning and training that takes place outside recognised educational institutions. Even then, it follows a sequential structure of learning experience and is generally part of some organisation or programme (Farooq, 1993). Moreover, Khawaja and Brennan (1990) have characterised non-formal education as an international movement that emerged particularly in the second half of the 20th century as a result of problems of general economic, political and social development with regard to nations and individuals.

Non-formal education may range from day care for children of working mothers to adult education classes. Shiror (1995) states that the need for non-formal education arises due to limitations in financial resources, within contexts of rapid population growth where there is a perceived need to provide education for all to increase human development.

Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 titled “Policy framework for the Education Sector for meeting the challenges of Education and Training in Kenya in the 21st Century”, recognises the important role played by non-formal education as a vehicle for transformation and empowerment of individuals and society. It further acknowledges that NFE offers opportunities for those outside the formal school system to access and benefit from education. Following this, there is a directorate
in the Ministry of Education to oversee matters related to NFE and Adult Education (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

In 1994, the Government of Kenya (GoK), with the support of UNICEF conducted a study whose aim was to devise interventions to address the needs of the out-of-school children and adults. The survey revealed that there was no standard curriculum offered at the NFE centres. Since then, NFE has increasingly become a necessary and complementary component of a comprehensive strategy to provide Education For All (EFA). Both categories of non-formal institutions comprising non-formal schools (NFSs) or non-formal education centres (NFECs), which may or may not have been registered by the MOEST, have been established to provide education and other services (such as shelter, health, nutrition, counselling, and protection) to school-age children (GoK, 2005). The chief providers of NFE have been individuals, communities, local authorities, NGOs, and faith-based organisations. Generally, non-formal schools target primary school-age children using formal curriculum with support of non-governmental providers such as communities. Using various curricula, including the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) NFE curriculum, the NFECs target school-age children and youth below 18 years who cannot attend, or have dropped out of formal schools.

It was upon recognition of NFE as a viable means of providing education at basic level that the KIE in 2006 began preparation of Non-Formal Basic Education
Curriculum (NFBEC) to be used by the NFECs in Kenya. The NFBE curriculum is broad in nature and provides the learners with the opportunity to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for individual and national development. The target group for this curriculum is out-of-school children and youth aged 6-17 years (GoK, 2006). The NFBE curriculum is flexible in that it allows entry, dropping out and re-entry at any level.

The NFBE curriculum was officially launched in March 2007. As a prerequisite for full-scale implementation and to ascertain the efficiency and effectiveness of the implementation process, it was found necessary to orient the teachers in Nairobi Province. The orientation took place at the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) in June 2007 (MoE, 2007). Since the launching of the curriculum, there has been little effort by the Ministry of Education or the KIE in investigating how the implementation has taken place.

According to Johnson (2000), constructing capacity to support innovation is an attempt to understand and elaborate on the factors that are able to support, or hinder, the implementation of new ideas and practices in a system such as a school or NFE centres. It should be recognised that not all NFE programmes have the capacity to implement a given innovation to the same extent. Possible indicators of the capacity to support innovation construct fall into four groups: physical resources, teacher factors, learner factors and the school ecology and management which may hinder or support the implementation (Johnson, 2000).
Curriculum implementation entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects (Pratt, 1994). The process involves helping the learner acquire knowledge or experience. Curriculum implementation also refers to the stage when the curriculum itself, as an educational programme, is put into effect. The curriculum which has been developed keeping in mind the needs of out of school children ought to be implemented with fidelity. However this has not been the case. The NFE centres have not fully implemented the curriculum but opt for the formal curriculum. One may therefore wonder whether the curriculum addresses the intended goal. There are several factors that influence curriculum implementation. It has long been recognized that teachers have a major role in determining and implementing the curriculum. Stenhouse (1975) identifies the teacher as the agent in the curriculum implementation process and argues that implementation is the manner in which the teacher selects and mixes the various aspects of knowledge contained in a curriculum document or syllabus. A major setback in effective curriculum implementation is the problem of unqualified teachers, especially specialist teachers in areas like vocational and technical subjects. In most instances, curriculum is designed up to implementation without adequate manpower to translate these documents into reality (Sofalahan, 1998). Hence this study establishes how teacher characteristics influenced NFB&E curriculum.

Similarly, successful implementation is affected by the nature of the particular school’s physical and human resources (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). Teaching /
learning materials form the medium through which teaching is carried out. Anandu (1990) asserts that physical facilities are vital for both teachers and pupils for effective curriculum implementation. Physical facilities that are important in curriculum implementation include classrooms, libraries, sanitary facilities and play grounds. Nafula and Ngoma (1998) add that modern teaching environment entails some key characteristics in its physical setting. Mungai (1992), Nafula and Ngoma (1998) note that without sufficient physical facilities and materials, curriculum cannot be effectively implemented. Fullan and Miles (1992) further assert that implementation demands resources for training, for substitutes, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. This study therefore established how physical resources and materials influenced NFBE curriculum.

Instructional approaches are important elements during curriculum implementation. It is assumed that as the curricula change so should the instructional methodology (MoE, 2011). Wang, Nojan, Strom and Walberg (1984) posit that for the curriculum to be implemented effectively, alternative instructional methods need to be adopted too. According to Ajibola (2008), when instruction is directed towards the needs of the child, there is an accompanying tendency to make sure that s/he fully understands the material he is being taught. Teacher-centred methods of teaching have been common in classroom because, teachers lacked confidence, mastery of subject matter content and basic teaching skills (Thijs, 1999), (Howie, 2002) and (Motswiri, 2004). The current study therefore established how instructional methods influence NFBE curriculum.
It is important to note that curriculum implementation cannot take place without the learner. The learner is therefore the central figure in the curriculum implementation process. Curriculum implementation takes place as the learner acquires the planned or intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling the same learner to function effectively in a society (University of Zimbabwe, 1995). In NFE programme implementation as in any other curriculum implementation, the community is central. Unless concerned community members understand, support, and complement the programme, failure is unavoidable. The community can influence implementation in that it provides schools with financial resources to purchase required materials, they demand the inclusion of certain subjects in the curriculum, it influences learners to reject courses they consider detrimental to the interests of the group (Buchert, 1998). The study therefore established how community characteristics influence curriculum implementation.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Despite the development and launching of NFBEC, the curriculum has not been implemented in several NFE centres. According to the Nairobi City Education department, report (2012), 98 percent of the NFECs are offering the formal curriculum with few isolated cases offering the NFBEC despite the government effort of launching the curriculum to be used in NFECs. Likewise according to Mombasa County director of Education, Adult and Non formal Education
department, (2013), only 16 percent of the centres in Mombasa were using the curriculum while in Kisumu; only 13 percent are using the curriculum (Kisumu County Director of Education, Adult and Non Formal Education department, 2013). From these statistics, it was evident that NFE curriculum was not implemented in majority of the centres. This study, therefore, aimed at investigating factors that influenced implementation of NFE basic education curriculum in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu cities.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the factors influencing implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum in Nairobi Mombasa and Kisumu cities.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study were to:

i. Determine how teacher characteristics influence the implementation of Non-formal basic education curriculum;

ii. Establish how adequacy of physical resources and teaching/learning materials influence implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum;
iii. Examine how instructional methods influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum;

iv. Assess how learner characteristics influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum;

v. Establish how community characteristics influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum;

1.5 Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions;

i. To what extent do teacher characteristics influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum?

ii. How does adequacy of physical resources and teaching/learning materials influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum?

iii. How appropriate are the instructional methods employed by teachers in the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum?

iv. What learner characteristics influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum?
v. How do community characteristics influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study is significant in several ways. The study may be important to the Ministry of Education and the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) in identifying factors that influence NFE curriculum implementation and possibly come up with recommendations for best practices. The findings may also be important to the curriculum implementers who may be informed on the best practices in the implementation of the basic NFE education curriculum in the NFE centres. The study findings might draw attention to the stakeholders on the need for training and preparing teachers at the basic NFE centres for effective implementation of the basic NFE curriculum. The study may also assist in establishing whether there is need or not for seminars and in-service courses for teachers in an effort to help them adopt the most suitable approaches for the implementation of NFE curriculum.

Furthermore, the results of the study may sensitise policy makers, educational administrators, and curriculum planners on the need to plan towards effective curriculum implementation of NFE curriculum in Kenyan NFE centres. Also, the result of the study may contribute to policy formulation and practices, as quality assurance and standards officials may be sensitised on what to look out for during supervision of the programme. Lastly, the study would hopefully assist in
increasing awareness on problems and challenges faced by the teachers, pupils, directors and the community in the implementation of NFE curriculum.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The research process was hampered by a number of hitches. One, that there was inadequate up-to-date data on enrolment, transition and performance of the NFE learners at the NFE desk at the Ministry of Education (MoE). There were limited studies on the implementation of the curriculum hence the research heavily relied on secondary sources of information such as implementation of other educational programmes. This study was limited to the non-formal centres with a specific reference of examining basic education provision. As such, only NFE centres that offered NFE basic education curriculum formed the sample. The researcher also faced limitation in accessing information from some respondents in some sampled centres hence was forced to fall back on convenience sampling for some institutions.

Another limitation was that in some centres, even after explaining the purpose of the study to the centre directors, the researcher was still viewed as a potential donor to the institution hence the directors were tempted to present a good picture of the institution and how well the centres were doing in the provision of non formal basic education. The researcher however mitigated this limitation by further explaining the purpose of the study that it was aimed at assessing the implementation of the NFBEC, which could lead to improved implementation. The researcher further used questionnaire which solicited the required information.
1.8 Delimitations of the study

Though NFE curriculum has been implemented among different groups such as street children, adult education and nomadic pastoralists, this study focused on how NFE curriculum has been implemented in the NFE centres in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu towns, which are urban settings. There are many indicators of successful NFBE curriculum implementation. These include completion rates of learners, number of learners transiting to formal schools, completion rates among boys, girls, drop out levels, establishment of businesses or establishment of income generating activities after completion of the programme. These are measures of dependent variable for effective implementation. The researcher was selected ‘the number of learners who had completed their education at the NFE’ the measure for the dependent (criterion) variable.

Key players such as the NGOs and religious organisations offering the NFE were not included in the study though they would provide information on curriculum implementation. This was as a result of difficulty in accessing them due to their nature of work. The researcher did not seek information from the KIE which is curriculum developers. This was because KIE is not a key agent of implementation. The study was conducted in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu towns and only in the NFE centres where the non-formal basic curriculum has been implemented. The findings may therefore be generalised to other NFE centres with caution.
1.9 Assumptions of the study

In this study it was assumed that:

i. National NFE basic education curriculum has been designed for all the NFE forms regardless of the geographical areas.

ii. The respondents are aware of the factors that influence curriculum implementation at the NFE centres.

iii. The presence of the researcher in the centres would not significantly influence the respondents in answering the research instruments.

iv. The respondents were honest and accurate in providing information upon which the study findings are based.

1.10 Definition of terms

The following are key terms as used in the study

**Accelerated learning programme** refers to a modification of the formal primary school cycle that offers flexible learning opportunity in two years where learners can join the formal education after the two years.

**Adequacy** is the ability to satisfy a requirement or meet a need.
**Alternative education** are those initiatives offering a significantly form of learning experience from what is available in the mainstream of formal education provision (Hoppers, 2006).

**Appropriate resources** refers to suitable resources for the learners and teachers at the NFE centres.

**Basic education** means satisfying learning-for-life needs which includes knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that permit people to develop abilities and to fully participate in the development and improvement of their quality of life. In this context, it is equivalent to the first cycle of the primary education (1-8) in Kenya.

**Basic learning needs** refer to the knowledge, basic life skills, attitudes and values necessary for the children to survive, to improve the quality of their lives, and to continue learning.

**Completeall** refers to the number of learners who have completed the NFE cycle

**Criterion variable** is a variable being predicted in regression analysis. This term is used interchangeably with dependent variable.

**Curriculum implementation** is use of the prescribed NFBEC in the NFE centres. In this study curriculum implementation is measured by the number of learners who have completed the NFE cycle.
Formal education is the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded education system, running from primary school through to the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialised programmes.

Implementation refers to a curriculum stage at which the teacher receives and executes new curriculum in his or her respective schools.

Implementation refers to a form of evaluation assesses the extent to which a program is operating as it was intended. It typically assesses program activities’ conformance to statutory and regulatory requirements, program design, and professional standards or customer expectations.

Instructional methods are the teaching methods such as discussion, lecture, demonstration, case study, role play and projects that are used to teach learners at the NFE centres.

Instructional technique is the sequencing and ordering of the methods a teacher has selected to teach the lesson.

Interest groups are the stakeholders in the provision of NFE which include the community, parents and service providers who are interested and take part in the provision of NFE.
Non-formal education is any organised, systematic, educational activity, carried outside the framework of the formal system, to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population.

Out-of-school children refer to those minors who are not in school but ought to be in school.

Predictor variable is a variable used in regression analysis to predict another variable. The term is used interchangeably with independent variable.

Service providers refer to individuals, religious organisations and NGOs offering non formal education at the NFECs.

Teacher preparation is any training that teachers have undergone, whether pre-service or in-service, to take up teaching at the NFE centres.

1.11 Organisation of the study

The study is organised into five chapters. Chapter One focuses on introduction comprising the background, the statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research questions, significance, limitations, delimitations, basic assumptions and definition of terms. Chapter Two consists of the literature review. The chapter presents the global commitment to education, relevant education for the out of school children, non formal education, Non formal education in Kenya and non formal basic education curriculum. The chapter further discusses curriculum implementation and factors that influence the
implementation. These include teacher characteristics, resources and materials, instructional methods, learner characteristics. Lastly the chapter presents the theoretical basis for curriculum implementation and conceptual framework of the study. Chapter Three is the research methodology and deals with research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, the research instrument, validity and reliability of the research instrument, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Chapter Four constitutes data analysis and discussion of findings while Chapter Five provides the summary, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Empirical literature on non formal education (NFE) curriculum implementation is quite scarce, and often very difficult to access. Not many studies have been conducted in this area, especially in Kenya, hence making analytical literature even scarce. The researcher therefore used related studies on curriculum implementation of formal education. The literature review in this chapter focuses global commitment to education, relevant education for the out-of-school children, non formal education, non formal education in Kenya and non formal basic education curriculum. The chapter further discusses curriculum implementation and factors that influence the implementation. These include teacher characteristics, resources and materials, instructional methods, learner characteristics and community characteristics. Lastly, the chapter presents the theoretical basis for curriculum implementation and the conceptual framework of the study.

2.2 Global commitment to education

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations states that everyone has the right to Education and that the education shall be compulsory. Therefore, access to basic education is everyone’s right. Education is also an
indispensable weapon in fighting ignorance and retardation and a necessary first step in the long march towards socio-economic and political development. World peace, stability and sustainable development are impossible without an education that reaches all, since education is the means towards effective participation in the societies and economies of the 21st century. This explains the importance of education as a tool for the achievement of all other human rights and exercise of human freedoms.

The Education for All movement is a global commitment to provide quality basic education for everyone. The movement was launched at the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990, where representatives of the international community agreed to universalise primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade (WCEFA, 1990). And according to the Dakar Framework for Action Senegal, (April 2000), a collective commitment was made to attain several EFA goals. These included ensuring that by 2015, all children -with special emphasis on girls and children in difficult circumstances - have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality; and ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes. It also aimed at achieving a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy, especially for women, by 2015, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults (WCEFA, 1990).
The gains achieved since the EFA and Millennium Development Goals (MDG) adopted in 2000 are undeniable: great strides have been made towards universal primary education, increased participation in secondary and tertiary education and, in many countries, gender equity. More widely, there have been improvements in overcoming hunger, poverty, and child and maternal mortality (UNESCO, 2010).

However, many children continue to remain out of school and, therefore, the question: *Who and where are the out-of-school children — and what are their chances of entering school?* (UIS, 2009a). Being out of school is not a fixed condition. The category of the out-of-school covers children who have dropped out of school temporarily or permanently, those who have never been to school but might start late and those who will never go to school. Data constraints make it difficult to unravel the precise characteristics of the out-of-school population.

However, a model developed by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) makes it possible to predict, on the basis of past evidence, what share of out-of-school children is likely to enrol in the future (UIS, 2009a).

Overall, about 31 million children face the most acute disadvantages in accessing education globally. The problem being most pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa where 59% of the out-of-school population is unlikely to enrol. In Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Malawi, Niger, Senegal and Zambia, household survey data suggests that rural children are more than twice as likely to be out of school
An estimated 44% of out-of-school children are unlikely to make the transition into school. In South and West Asia, more than 60% of the out-of-school population has dropped out, while one-third is unlikely ever to enter. Almost half of the out-of-school population in the Arab States is unlikely to enter. Thirteen years have passed since the international community adopted the six EFA goals in Dakar in 2000. While much has been achieved over the past decade, many of the world’s poorest countries are not on track to meet the 2015 targets. Failure to reach the marginalised has especially denied many people their right to education.

In its commitment to the attainment of EFA by 2015, the Government of Kenya is implementing programmes in line with the International Community’s commitments and obligations as agreed in Jomtien in 1990 and reaffirmed in Dakar a decade later. Already, Kenya has implemented the Free Primary Education (FPE) Programme since January 2003. The initiative, which is mainly funded from public resources with some support from development partners and other stakeholders, has greatly enhanced access, retention and equity. The enrolment in primary schools increased from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.6 million in 2005. The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in 2002 was 88% compared to the current GER of 104.8%; while the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) stands at 84.5%. Under the Free Primary Education Programme, all public primary schools receive grants directly from the government. As a result, fees and levies which existed under the cost sharing policy were all abolished. However, the number of out-of-
school Kenyan children has reached 1.8 million despite the FPE. According to UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2008), about 752,000 boys and 706,000 girls are out of school. For Kenya then to attain the EFA goals, there is need to find a way to have these children access education.

According to UNESCO (2010), overcoming marginalisation in education is an imperative for human rights and social justice. It is also the key to accelerated progress towards the Education for All goals set in Dakar. No government, which is seriously committed to the goals, can afford to ignore the deep social disparities that are stalling progress in education, nor can it ignore the wider consequences of marginalisation in education for social cohesion and prosperity. That is why there is the urgent need for all countries to develop strategies for more inclusive education that is linked to wider programmes for overcoming poverty, social discrimination and extreme inequality (UNESCO, 2010).

2.3 Relevant education for out-of-school children

The drive to access basic education to school-aged children has preoccupied successive governments in independent Kenya, yet despite all these efforts attaining EFA has remained elusive. It is this reality of out-of-school children that has over the years prompted a number of individuals or organisations, operating outside the formal system to initiate endeavours offering formal education. From individual cases in the 1980s, these initiatives multiplied in the 1990s and came to be formally recognised as Non-Formal Schools (NFS). Policy documents exalted
their role in reaching specific populations of excluded children and hence achieving EFA (GoK/UNICEF, 1995).

Over the period 1990 to 2000, there has been increased access and participation in the provision of education to out-of-school youth and children. The Ministry of Education has created a section to handle non-formal education, and an NFE curriculum has been developed by the KIE. There is encouragement for communities to be actively involved in the administration and management of NFE centres to improve governance and ensure greater participation and efficiency. Access and participation have been enhanced by an increase in the number of non-formal education centres, allowing children who may have dropped out of school to have access to education (GoK/UNICEF, 1995).

Gonzales and Pijano (1998) assert that the availability of NFE expands access to more citizens representing a variety of demographic characteristics, social economic origins and general interests. Its organisation specific activities and delivery methods are designed to meet the express needs of the clientele. Non-formal education can help in addressing the shortfall of the formal education system as it has the potential to teach skills to people that are relevant to both urban and rural lifestyles, which can help improve the quality of their lives by enhancing their economic well-being. Such skills can, for example, enable people to gain employment, start a small enterprise or improve their farming or fishing
practices, maybe adding value to traditional products. It can, therefore, make a
direct contribution to the alleviation of poverty and sustainable development.

2.4 Non-formal education

Non-formal Education (NFE) is an organised educational activity outside the formal system of education. It is simple and flexible and can be delivered at any place convenient to the learners. It is generally designed to meet the basic learning needs of disadvantaged groups and can be availed of at any age. NFE is provided to those sections of the community that have no access to or have dropped out of formal education. Non-formal education has also been defined by Kleis (1973) as any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside of traditional schooling) in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the students (or unique situations) in order to maximise learning and minimise other elements which often preoccupy formal school teachers (Kleis, 1973).

Although non-formal and informal education antedate formal education, 16th Century educationists saw education as limited to schooling alone. Previously, non-formal and informal education had been recognised as a means of imparting practical knowledge especially to girls and boys born outside the nobility and ruling classes. Education was thus classified into two, whereby the ruling class and the nobility received their education in specific locations like monasteries and selected churches which were taught by especially priests and philosophers whereas the general population received education from their immediate
forebears. They were taught cooking, tailoring, housekeeping and polite conversation in case of girls while boys learnt music, arts, wrestling and the art of war and reciting religious chants. In some places the general population learnt also writing and reading skills from their parish priests (Guesepi, internet)

However, the 16th century saw many schools opened for all and, therefore, non-formal and informal education were by and large relegated to the back banner. Anyone who did not go through the school system was considered uneducated. Formal learning was equated with education in schools and universities, and hence, non-institutional formal learning was overlooked (Colley, 2002). This trend continued well into the 20th century until educationists led by the likes of John Dewey, Ivan Illich and Paulo Freire came into the scene.

Illich (1970) and Freire (1970) raised their voices against the schools in Latin America because they thought that the formal schools were skewed in favour of the rich, subjugating the common people in general. Illich (1971) advocated for a “deschooled” education, while condemning out of hand the school system and the schools, excoriating them, along with many other public institutions, for exercising anachronistic functions that fail to keep pace with change, serving only to maintain the status quo and protecting the structure of the society that produced them (UNESCO, 2000).

In his major work, Deschooling Society Illich (1970) presents the four central ideas that summarise his ideas on education. He states that universal education
through schooling is not feasible. It would be more feasible if it were attempted by means of alternative institutions built on the style of present schools; that neither new attitudes of teachers towards their pupils nor the proliferation of educational hardware or software, nor the attempt to expand the teachers’ responsibility until it engulfs the pupils’ lifetimes will deliver universal education; that the current search for new educational funnels must be reversed into the search for their institutional inverse: educational webs which heighten the opportunity for learning, sharing and caring and that the ethos, not just the institutions, of society ought to be ‘deschooled’ (Illich, 1970).

For Illich then, schooling and education were diametrically opposed concepts and he goes ahead to denounce institutionalized education and the institution of the school as producers of merchandise with a specific exchange value in a society where those who already possess a certain cultural capital derive the most benefit. He argues that for most men, the right to learn is curtailed by the obligation to attend school (Illich, 1970).

Illich, however, would fail the universal movement towards education for all through his advocacy for an education that is entirely removed from the formal and structured schooling. The radical nature of his denunciation prevented him from constructing a realistic strategy for those educators and researchers who might have associated themselves with his protest. In addition, Illich’s writings were founded essentially on intuitions, without any reference to the results of
socio-educational or learning research. His criticism evolves in a theoretical vacuum which portrays him as a utopian thinker (UNESCO, 2000).

It is worth noting that NFE is not meant to take the place of formal education as an alternative but to complement and, hence, cover for its failures especially in reaching out to the out-of-school children and adults. To replace formal education systems with non-formal education will complicate and indeed impede the march towards the education for all goals. Illich’s claim, too, that structured education favors those with capital also flies in the face of free education programmes like the Free Primary Education Programme that the Government of Kenya has been running since 2003. Every child irrespective of their economic background can, and should, attend school through such programmes. That notwithstanding, Illich must be credited with laying the groundwork for the conception of an education system more attentive to the needs of its environment, to the realities of its pupils’ lives and to the efficient acquisition of socially relevant knowledge. This is what makes non-formal education so relevant especially among the nomadic and other marginalised communities.

During the same period, Paulo Freire was weaving together his *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970), in which he criticises formal schools for their ‘banking’ method of teaching and learning in which the educator makes ‘deposits’ in the educate. “Banking assumes that the teacher knows everything; the students know nothing. The teacher narrates, prescribes and deposits information which the
student then must mechanically receive, memorise and repeat. Indeed, "the teacher presents himself to his students as their necessary opposite; by considering their ignorance absolute, he justifies his existence," (Freire, 1970).

For Freire, the right education must recognise the existential condition of the learner and help them liberate themselves from their inhuman, oppressed, poverty-stricken situations. He advocated for an education where dialogue is emphasised together with respect, which allows the teacher and learner to work with each other in a method he called ‘problem posing’ in which the learner has an equal chance with the teacher to contribute. He further rooted for an education concerned with praxis action that enhances community participation, builds social capital and ultimately leads to justice and human flourishing. Just as non-formal education does today, Freire insisted on situating educational activity in the lived experience of participants.

Before him, the American philosopher and educationist, John Dewey stressed this point when he criticised formal education for revolving around the acquisition of a pre-determined set of skills, insisting that education should emphasize rather on the realization of one’s full potential and the ability to use those skills for the greater good. He noted that to prepare the learner for the future life means to give the learner command of himself so to train him that he will have the full and ready use of all his capacities (Dewey, 1897). Similarly, Dewey dismisses a curriculum that solely focuses on the subject matter to be taught as it fosters inactivity (both
mental and physical) on the part of the learner. The major flow in this framework is that "the child is simply the immature being who is to be matured; he is the superficial being who is to be deepened" (Dewey, 1902). He argues that in order for education to be most effective, content must be presented in a way that allows the student to relate the information to prior experiences, thus deepening the connection with this new knowledge.

From the aforementioned, it can be said that non-formal education in modern times was born both as a call to action against the failings of the formal education and also as an innovation that complemented the education system. Educators thus started to look at how to make education relevant and practical for the working adults and marginalised communities thus giving impetus to NFE. Coincidentally, many countries were finding it difficult (politically or economically) to pay for the expansion of formal education. Formal educational systems on their part had also adapted too slowly to the socio-economic changes around them and they were held back not only by their own conservatism, but also by the inertia of societies themselves. If we also accept that educational policy making tends to follow rather than lead other social trends, then it follows that change would have to come not merely from within formal schooling, but from the wider society and from other sectors within it. It was from this point of departure that planners and economists in the World Bank began to make a distinction between informal, non-formal and formal education (Fordham 1993).
On their part, developing countries were forced to innovate if they were to realise their goal to provide education for all. This they undertook by turning to NFE using two approaches. One was a Programme Approach under which literacy programmes were implemented to provide basic education through alternative methods. Since the alternative education also needed teachers, curriculum, textbooks and physical structures, it was experimented in some places and based on results, they were expanded. This approach was also called 'gradualist approach'. At the same time some socialist countries of Asia like China and Vietnam launched a Mass Literacy Campaign Approach (MLCA) to provide basic education to masses by mobilising all forces of the society. In the mass literacy campaign, all teachers, students, government staff, housewives and practically everybody in the society was asked to play the role of either learner or teacher. These approaches were space bound, time bound and result oriented (Kleis, 1973).

Many of these programmes apparently met with considerable success. For example Russia, Cuba, Tanzania, Somalia, Ethiopia and Nicaragua often organised successful mass campaigns particularly in respect of literacy. By the mid 1970s a number of non-socialist countries were beginning to turn to the idea of mass non-formal education. It was clear that there remained a large scale and apparently growing problem of illiteracy and also clear that economic and social development depended on bringing about change in many people's thinking (Kleis, 1973).
Non-formal education thus became part of the international discourse on education policy in the second half of the 20th century. In the 1970s, UNICEF asked Philip Coombs and Mansoor Ahmed to study Non-Formal Education. In the course of their study, they defined NFE as an alternative education which would be organised systematically outside the framework of the formal system to provide functional learning relevant to particular subgroups of the population, both adults and children (Fordham, 1993).

At an international conference in Williamsburg USA in 1967, ideas were set out for what was to become a widely read analysis of the growing 'world educational crisis' (Coombs 1968). There was concern about unsuitable curricula; a realisation that educational growth and economic growth were not necessarily in step and that jobs did not emerge directly as a result of educational inputs.

It can be seen as related to the concepts of recurrent and lifelong learning. Tight (1996) suggests that whereas the latter concepts have to do with the extension of education and learning throughout life, non-formal education is about “acknowledging the importance of education, learning and training which takes place outside recognised educational institution”. Fordham (1993) suggests that in the 1970s, four characteristics came to be associated with non-formal education: relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups, concern with specific categories of person, a focus on clearly defined purposes and flexibility in organization and methods.
Non-formal education occurs with such organisations which are less structured than formal schools, allowing youth more choices, providing less curricular sequencing, and enforcing it even less. Learning is controlled by the learners who may drop out any time without penalties. As a result, educators must emphasise those skills, knowledge, and attitudes which are desired by the learners.

NFE is thus more learners centered than most formal education. It is flexible in that learners can leave anytime they are not motivated. NFE tends to emphasise a cafeteria curriculum (options, choices) rather than the prescribed, sequential curriculum found in schools. In NFE, human relationships are more informal (roles of teachers and students are less rigid and often switch) than in schools where student-teacher and teacher administrator roles are hierarchical and seldom change in the short term. NFE focuses on practical skills and knowledge while schools often focus on information which may have delayed application. Overall NFE has a lower level of structure (and therefore more flexibility) than formal schools (Kleis, 1973).

Although the importance of NFE is well recognised, NFE is a sub-sector that has not been able to attract major assistance from the international donor community. The main reasons for this state have been the absence of concrete measurable return to investments made in NFE activities and/or the lack of systematic monitoring and evaluation practices. Nevertheless, NFE plays a critical role in achieving the goals of Education for All (EFA) and while international assistance
to NFE may be limited, numerous NFE activities continue to be organised. For example, in the late 1990s, many basic education programmes for out-of-school children and adults were initiated, and community schools were developed. At the Kananaskis Summit in 2002 for example, a communiqué on education development assistance was adopted, which stated clearly the need to introduce a NFE approach in order to ensure basic education opportunities for working children.

All is not gloom though as in recent years, more and more donors are looking at NFE as part of lifelong learning. In particular, it is becoming common practice in development assistance to integrate NFE activities into comprehensive rural development projects. With the launching of the United Nations Literacy Decade in 2003, overall assistance to NFE by UN agencies and international financial organisations are starting to place increased emphasis on literacy and NFE in general. As Graham-Brown (1991) says, dividing formal education from out of school education or so-called non-formal education is artificial in many ways. But in some countries, this division reflects the gulf between government provision through the school system, on the one hand, and the needs and interests of marginal populations who are most alienated from the system on the other.

Simkins (1976) analysed non-formal education programme in terms of purposes, timing, content delivery systems and control, and contrasted these with formal educational programmes. The resulting ideal-types provide a useful framework -
and bring out the extent to which non-formal education initiatives, while emphasising flexibility, localness and responsiveness remain located within a curricula form of education (in contrast with those forms driven by conversation).

Although the non-formal and formal sectors of education exist separately and have somewhat differing ideologies, they complement each other and can actively assist each other in many ways. The two systems are not in competition and will never substitute for each other, the overall goal is the same – teaching and learning to improve the lives of individuals and to contribute to the development of communities and nations. There is considerable synergy, mutual benefits, between formal and non-formal education.

2.5 Non-formal education in Kenya

Since independence, Kenya has endeavoured to provide education to all its citizens. The Government recognises the need for OOS children and youth to have access to formal education. This is demonstrated in the investment of financial resources in education and the exponential growth of the education system. However, due to poverty and high population, educational facilities and resources have been overstretched. As a result, many children especially in informal settlements are out of school (Bagayoko, 1999).

Non-formal education refers to a range of educationally specific activities which fall outside the formal school system. Programmes within this category include
non-formal basic education, vocational training and skill improvement courses. Given the high levels of poverty, coupled with the fact that some groups such as pastoralists occupy economically marginal areas, it becomes difficult for children to access the formal school system. Non-formal programmes, therefore, provide the recipients the chance of achieving literacy and basic learning needs.

Like other education and social service programmes, NFE programmes have suffered from the effects of budget cutbacks. In fact, government financial allocations to this sector have been negligible as the sector attracts little political clout in government circles. The role of the government in the provision of non-formal education has basically been that of co-ordination and advice (GoK, 2000). This means that in actual practice, the government has not been involved in establishing non-formal schools and the remuneration of staff. Consequently, policy makers, educationists and researchers in the education sector have often perceived it as peripheral in the education setup.

The quality and relevance of NFE is affected by lack of a clear policy, a negative image, lack of clear transition mechanisms, inadequate resources, unqualified teachers who often employ inappropriate methods, lack of teaching and learning materials, lack of quality assurance mechanisms, and an un-co-ordinated large number of service providers (Thompson, 2001). A survey carried out in the urban centres of Kisumu, Mombasa and Nairobi (Thompson, 2001) shows that over
80% of the NFE centres in informal centres were run by civil society organisations.

The target groups for the NFE are school-age children who for many reasons have been unable to join the formal system and are learning in either Non-Formal Schools (NFSs) or Non-Formal Centres (NFCs) (MoEST, 2003). Both categories of non-formal institutions, which may or may not be registered by the Ministry of Education (MoE), have been established to provide education and other services (such as shelter, health, nutrition, counselling, and protection) to school-age children. Initially, NFE was provided by NGOs, Faith Based Organisations (FBOs), donor agencies, Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and individuals. The centres providing this programme had been operating without a standardised curriculum with each provider deciding on what curriculum to use.

Generally, NFSs and NFCs target primary school-age children and youth below 18 years who cannot attend formal schools, using various curricula including Ministry of Education NFE curriculum. The Ministry of Education’s capacity to co-ordinate and support Non-Formal Schools (NFSs) and Non-Formal Education Centres (NFECs) based service providers, however, has been inadequate. As a result, the quality of education provided in NFSs and NFECs varies from very good to poor.

The objectives of Non-Formal Education are to: develop literacy, numeracy, creativity and communication skills; help learners enjoy learning and to develop
desire to continue learning; develop ability for critical thinking and logical judgement; help learners appreciate and respect the dignity of work; develop desirable social standards, moral/ethical and religious values; make learners develop into self-disciplined, physically fit and healthy persons; help develop aesthetic values and capacity to appreciate own and other people’s cultures; make learners develop awareness and appreciation of the environment; develop learners’ awareness and appreciation of other nations and the international community; develop respect and love for own country and the need for harmonious co-existence; develop individual talents for the benefit of self and others; promote social responsibility and make proper use of leisure time and lastly develop awareness and appreciation of the role of technology in national development

2.6 Non-formal basic education curriculum

In order to ensure that quality education is provided to all children, the Government of Kenya in conjunction with UNICEF carried out a needs assessment survey in 1994. It is this survey that determined the learning needs of out-of-school children and youth. The findings revealed that NFE centres provided an alternative form of basic education to children who were not able to participate in the formal system. The NFE centres were providing different types and levels of knowledge and skills that were not based on a standardised curriculum. The survey recommended that NFE centres should offer a dual curriculum, one that gives employable skills for those who may not pursue further
education and the other for those who may wish to continue with education in the formal system. The finding also recommended that the NFE curriculum be synchronised to allow horizontal and vertical linkages between NFE institutions and formal education institutions (MoE, 1994). This consequently led to the development of basic Non-Formal Education curriculum aimed at harmonising non-formal education in all learning centres.

With the support of UNICEF and the UNDP, the Kenya institute of Education (KIE) developed a basic NFE curriculum. The NFE curriculum comprises academic and technical subjects (KIE, 2006). The curriculum is broad in nature and provides the learners with opportunities to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for their individual and national development. It is flexible and allows entry, dropping out and re-entry at any level. The target group for the curriculum is OOS children and youth aged 6-17 years (KIE, 2007).

The curriculum is structured in three levels (I, II and III) each of which takes two years to complete. This is an accelerated education programme which enables learners to complete within six years taking in cognisance some learners’ advanced age and experiences. The curriculum has vertical and horizontal linkages and equivalences with formal education curriculum. In each level, learners are expected to acquire the same competences as learners in the corresponding levels in the formal education. Level I is equivalent to Formal Education Standard 1-4, Level II Standard 5-6 and Level III Standard 7-8 (KIE, 2007).
Subjects offered in Basic NFE programme include academic subjects which include English, First Language (Mother Tongue), Kiswahili, Arabic, Science, Mathematics, Social Studies, Christian Religious Education (CRE) and Islamic Religious Education (IRE). It is worth noting that first language is offered at Level I only, while learners take one of the religious education subjects offered i.e. CRE and IRE. Arabic language on the other hand is offered as an optional subject. Basic NFE programme also has technical/trade subjects which include Agriculture, Art and Craft, Garment Making, Wood Work, Masonry, Welding and Fabrication, Motor Vehicle Mechanics and Home Science. In this category of subjects, the learner is expected to take one (1) technical/trade subject.

There are also support subjects which include basic geometry and entrepreneurship. The two support subjects help to facilitate learning and application of knowledge and skills acquired in technical/trade subject (KIE, 2007). Time was a key element that was considered when designing the NFE curriculum considering the nature of the clientele. They have to learn, earn and learn to survive at the same time. The curriculum content is therefore formulated in a manner that it is more relevant to the needs of the clientele (KIE, 2006).

2.7 Curriculum implementation

Green and Kreuter (1999) states that the keys to success in implementation are experience, sensitivity to people’s needs, flexibility in the face of changing circumstances, keeping an eye on long-term goals, and a sense of humour.
Buchert (1998) has defined implementation as carrying out the reform as planned. Similarly, Pratt (1994) shortly defines implementation as the realisation of an intended change. It is the “open use of a programme throughout an entire school system” (UNESCO, 1977). It is “putting the show on the road” (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). Berman (1978) defined implementation as the carrying out of an authoritative decision, i.e., a policy choice. Pal (2006) described it as the execution of the developed policy.

Implementation of a new programme entails social action that builds a climate of acceptance for the change. It is, thus, an interaction process between those who have created the programme and those who are charged to deliver it (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). Loucks and Lieberman (1983) define curriculum implementation as the trying out of a new practice and what it looks like when actually used in a school system. For example, a curriculum plan in enhancing technology integration across the curriculum is introduced and you would want to know whether what was intended in the plan is actually being done in the classroom. The aim of developing a curriculum is to make a difference to learners.

Fullan and Park (1981) asserted that implementation is changing practice that consists of alterations from existing practice to some new or revised practice in order to achieve certain desired student learning outcomes. They alleged that implementation is considered a changing practice because the emphasis is on
actual use rather than on assumed use. Actual use in fact entails whatever change may occur in practice.

Fidelity of implementation is the delivery of instruction in the way in which it was designed to be delivered (Gresham, MacMillan, Boebe-Frankenberger, & Bocian, 2000). Implementation at the learning centres involves: planning and preparation for implementation (reorganisation of programmes, replenishing equipment, etc.); teacher preparation, availability of curricula materials; involvement of stakeholders including parents, community; and periodical evaluation and strengthening of the implementation programme (Skager & Dave, 1977). This implies that implementation is a crucial stage where planning is put into practice (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). It is, however, the most difficult aspect of a programme. This is because; there are numerous barriers to it. Situationally adaptable planning; supportive guidelines; visualisation of the purposes of the programme, nonetheless enable us to overcome the barriers. Curriculum implementation, therefore, refers to how the planned or officially designed course of study is translated by the teacher into syllabuses, schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students.

As stated by Pratt, (1994), when we enter the field of implementation we leave the green pastures of educational planning and enter the harsh arena of politics…” (Pratt, 1994). Implementation is “The Great Barrier Reef” (Pratt, 1980). There are many twists and turns as unexpected events occur along the way in the process of
implementation efforts. Several innovations and reforms fail to point the way to change, because of insufficient attention to design or implementation, deficit capacity for implementation, cost or inadequate financing, novelty of the approach or rejection by the community/beneficiaries and reluctance of teachers. For example, a large-scale educational television programme launched in 1971 by the government of Cote d’Ivoire to expand primary education was cancelled in 1982 because of implementation problems and criticisms of cost and quality (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991).

According to Earley and Bubb (2004), curriculum implementation plans are required to assist the implementers to obtain a common understanding of the required curriculum practice. These plans become devices for identifying ways of solving or minimising problems related to implementation. Appropriate plans clarify the focus points of the implementation process. Clarity reduces the risks of non-delivery. Plans do not only make the tasks relevant to the users’ contexts, but they also facilitate the integration of tasks and help to detect the possibility of overloading the implementers (DoE2, 2003). Earley and Bubb (2004) thus see curriculum implementation plans as ‘descriptors’ of the envisaged curriculum improvement. Similarly, Glatthorn (1997) defines curriculum implementation plans as a school’s ‘record’ of implementation. Fullan (2001) also argues that curriculum implementation plans provide clear guidance to the users (in this case the school management teams and teachers) in terms of what should be done to
meet particular needs related to curriculum implementation or to solve a particular related problem.

2.8 Factors influencing curriculum implementation

In implementing any educational innovation, there are three inseparable factors, namely: people (change forces), curriculum (programme), and organisation/institution (Marew, 2000; Fullan, 1991; Ornstien & Hunkins, 1998). For the purpose of this study, however, these factors have been briefly discussed under six sub-sections namely influence of teachers, learners, teaching and learning materials, facilities and instructional methods and the community. These are believed to have direct impact on the curriculum implementation.

2.8.1 Influence of teacher characteristics on curriculum implementation

Putting the curriculum into operation requires an implementing agent who is the teacher. It has long been recognized that teachers have a major role in determining and implementing the curriculum. They interpret and give life to the curriculum specifications of governments and ministries, and translate curriculum intentions into classroom practices (Norris, 1998). As Scott (1994) mentions, they not only control the rate but also the degree of change of any curriculum. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (1986) argue that effective curriculum implementation include staff development strategies, as teachers need to be equipped to adjust their classroom
instruction according to the requirements of the new curriculum (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1986).

The most important person in the curriculum implementation process is the teacher. With their knowledge, experience and competencies, teachers are central to any curriculum implementation effort. Regardless of which philosophical belief the education system is based on, there is no denying that teachers influence students’ learning. Better teachers foster better learning. Teachers are most knowledgeable about the practice of teaching and are responsible for introducing the curriculum in the classroom.

Stenhouse (1975) identifies the teacher as the agent in the curriculum implementation process. She argues that implementation is the manner in which the teacher selects and mixes the various aspects of knowledge contained in a curriculum document or syllabus. Teachers, in particular, play a central role in the implementation of a school curriculum. Fullan (2001) thus argues the importance of the teacher as a central change agent, as the teacher is the one who is primarily responsible for the successful implementation of a new curriculum. Implementation takes place when the teacher’s personality, the teaching materials and the teaching environment interact with the learner (University of Zimbabwe, 1995).

The importance of teachers in curriculum planning, development and most importantly implementation cannot also be overemphasized. Widdowson (1993) pinpointed the importance of taking into consideration teachers’ roles in the
curriculum implementation process in relation to other participants, such as policymakers, researchers, materials designers, and learners involved in the educational process. Teachers make important decisions with consequences for students. In the classroom, they do so behind closed doors. No one can control all of the specific decisions that teachers make, even during a highly specified instructional episode (Tanner & Tanner, 1995).

A major setback in effective curriculum implementation is the problem of unqualified teachers, especially specialist teachers in areas like vocational and technical subjects. In most instances, curriculum is designed up to implementation without adequate manpower to translate these documents into reality (Sofalahan, 1998).

According to Morrison, Bachman, & Connor (2005) the teacher’s pedagogy, classroom management strategies, and interactions with students at classroom level can determine how much is learned. Therefore, learning is contingent on the teachers’ ability to create and sustain optimal learning environments. There are at least three important dimensions of teaching that influence learners’ literacy acquisition directly or indirectly: (1) the classroom environment teachers create, (2) teachers’ warmth and responsiveness to their students, and (3) the amount and type of instruction they provide (Morrison, Bachman, & Connor, 2005).

Alexander (2001) argues that there are three elements of teaching: (i) frame, (ii) form and (iii) act. That the core acts of teaching that is task, activity, interaction
and judgement are framed by classroom organisation called 'space', pupil organisation, time and curriculum, and by classroom routines, rules and rituals. If the teacher is to be able to translate curriculum intentions into reality, it is imperative that the teacher understand the curriculum document or syllabus well in order to implement it effectively (University of Zimbabwe, 1995).

In the context of classroom interaction, the transmission, facilitation and acceleration are very important components for effective learning. For instance, learning in the classroom involves arranging and transferring of information from a source (teacher) to destination (learner) (Heinichi, Molender, & Russel 1999). In this respect effective communication on the part of the teacher is an integral part of effective classroom interaction. However, scholars have identified other variables as being important for the quality of instruction that is received in a classroom. These include, attitude of the teacher (Osakwe, 2009), knowledge base, and mastery of subject knowledge by the teacher (Osakwe, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2000), and the socio cultural context (Osakwe, 2009). These scholars are in consensus that a substantial proportion of student achievement is attributable to the characteristics and performance of the teachers in their respective schools. According to Darling-Hammond (2000) differences in teacher effectiveness determines students’ achievement over and above the effects of class size and heterogeneity in a classroom.
Moreover, teachers’ attitude has also been found to be associated with quality teaching and learning in the classroom. For example, possession of positive work attitude enhances teaching, thereby leading to the achievement of learning objectives and the overall educational objectives (Okorodudu, 2006). This implies that teachers who possess negative attitudes impair the ability of students to receive messages from the subjects that they teach, leading to wrong interpretation of concepts. Research also shows that the teachers’ knowledge is key to effective interaction in the classroom (Osakwe, 2009; Okorosaye-Orubite, 2005, Darling-Hammond, 2000).

As Whitaker (1979) asserts in the University of Zimbabwe (1995) module, the teachers view their role in curriculum implementation as an autonomous one. In a non-formal setup, they select and decide what to teach from the prescribed syllabus or curriculum since they may not have been trained in what is prescribed in the curriculum. Since implementation takes place through the interaction of the learner and the planned learning opportunities, the role and influence of the teacher in the process is indisputable (University of Zimbabwe, 1995).

If the teacher is to be able to translate curriculum intentions into reality, it is imperative that the teacher understand the curriculum document or syllabus well in order to implement it effectively (Whitaker, 1995). If the curriculum is what teachers and students create together, as Wolfson (1997) states, the teacher must play a more significant role in designing the curriculum. Teachers must be
involved in curriculum planning and development so that they can implement and modify the curriculum for the benefit of their learners.

Practically, NFE teachers recruited from the local area are more likely to have a higher level of commitment for a lower salary than those who come from distant places and other high officials (MoE, 2000). Thus, the recruitment, training, and allocation of NFE teachers and the whole implementation process of the NFE programme have necessitated emphasis on "Partnership" to bridge the gap between the capacity of governments to finance education and the needs of the education sector. This implies that the implementation of NFE programme requires the participation of government, parents/community, and NGOs that are found in the respective localities (Buchert, 1998; MoE/ICDR, 1999).

In a survey of Non-Formal Education in Kenya by GoK and UNICEF (1995), findings revealed that all teachers at the NFE centres had formal education of KCPE and above. Majority (63%) were KCE level. None of the teacher was trained, which was a barrier to effective curriculum implementation. The results revealed that the centres faced challenges in maintaining teachers thus affecting curriculum implementation. In the same study, teachers indicated that they required training on the implementation of NFE curriculum.

A teacher needs to have good mastery of the content for enhanced classroom interaction. For example, Moloi, Morobe, & Urwick (2008) in their study of Free Primary Education (FPE) in Lesotho found that teachers’ poor knowledge of
content and pedagogy surfaced in the teaching of Mathematics with the deficiencies attributed partly to their training, and partly to the situation in the schools. While teachers did keep pupils occupied throughout their lessons, the concept of a learner-cantered method of teaching was lacking (Moloi et al, 2008).

The key to getting teachers committed to an innovation is to enhance their knowledge of the programme. This means teachers need to be trained and workshops organised for professional development. Unfortunately, in any curriculum implementation process, not all teachers will have the benefit of such exposure. There are just too many teachers and insufficient funds to go around.

The most common approach is to have one-day workshops given by experts with the lecture method being the dominant pedagogical strategy. Among the many extrinsic factors identified and which may impede curriculum change are adequacy of resources, time, school ethos and professional support. The intrinsic factors are; professional knowledge, professional adequacy and professional interest and motivation on the part of teachers (Moloi et al, 2008).

Hence, professional development of teachers is an important factor contributing to the success of curriculum implementation. To what extent have teacher education programmes required prospective teachers to study curriculum development? Some view teachers as technicians and as such do not include curriculum development in their teacher education programmes.
According to Mohammad, Raman, Moniz, Begum, and Tapan (2010) in a study on *Impact of Basic education for hard-to-reach urban children (non formal education project–3)* in Bangladesh, both of the teachers per centre and supervisors initially received twelve days training in the use of the enhanced curriculum specifically developed for the project target group who were working and aged 8-14 years and with little or no previous school experience. It covered basic elements of the grades I-III curriculum with flexibility and included additional material on Bangladesh history and culture, health, nutrition, hygiene, environment, basic human rights, numeracy and other life skills developed by UNICEF, Bangladesh. Certainly, an adequate teacher education programme should include curriculum development (both the theory and the practice of curriculum development) if teaching is to be a profession and if educational opportunities for learners are really to be improved. Below are some topics to be addressed in designing professional development opportunities for teachers who are implementing a new programme.

These findings suggested that teachers needed to have been trained so as to have good content knowledge, knowledge of assessment strategies, including the design of activities and test items relevant to objectives and marking for effective mathematics teaching and learning. Content knowledge aside, it is only when a teacher can communicate effectively that he will be able to draw upon the various social cultural contexts of the learner to facilitate learning (Stoner, Freeman, &
Gilbert, 1999). Effective classroom interaction can also be enhanced by individual attention of teachers to their students.

In order that curriculum policy is translated into practice and to ensure that successful implementation exists in the classroom, it is paramount that teachers receive in-service training and provision of ongoing support and professional development (De Lano et al., 1994; McLaughlin, 1987; White, 1993). As Stenhouse (1975) put it, without teacher professional development there can be no curriculum implementation. Brindley and Hood (1990) argued that ongoing in-service training and professional development constitute important components of any projected implementation. In-service training focuses on teachers’ responsibilities and is aimed toward short-term and immediate goals (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

A considerable number of conceptual and empirical studies have been carried out to illustrate the importance of teachers’ in-service training and professional development in assisting teachers with their implementation of curriculum. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) contend that in-service training is a factor in curriculum implementation. They indicated that teachers who received intensive in-service training had a higher degree of curriculum implementation than those who did not.

Amugo (1997) studied the relationship between availability and qualification of teachers and implementation of secondary school curriculum in Nigeria. Her
sample consisted of 50 secondary school teachers who were randomly selected from the population of teachers in Lagos and Imo States. She hypothesised that there was no significant relationship between availability and qualification of teachers and curriculum implementation in Nigeria and that available specialist teachers only used theoretical methods in their classroom work without the practical aspect. The result of the study showed that there existed a significant relationship between the availability and qualification of teachers and implementation of skill-based secondary school curriculum in Nigeria. Amugo, therefore, concluded that quality and quantity of teachers in Nigerian schools significantly affect the implementation of curriculum in Nigerian schools, especially, at the secondary school level (Junior and Senior). These sentiments are shared by Ajibola (2008) who notes that when teachers are not qualified to teach the subjects in the curriculum, that affects curriculum implementation.

In a study by Owiny (2006) on Provision of Non-Formal Education to the semi-nomadic Bahima and Karamonjong pastoralists in Uganda found that most of the facilitators and instructors of the existing NFE programmes were not qualified. Because of lack of qualified personnel around the centres, the recruited people did not meet the minimum qualification of “O” level. As a result, they were incompetent academically and professionally. Consequently they were unable to effectively deliver course content and manage the learning situations and programme hence unable to implement the curriculum.
Cheng and Wang (2004); Li, (1998); Wang and Han, (2002), deem in-service training as critical in successfully carrying out a proposed curriculum. Li (1998) conducted a survey among 18 South Korean secondary school teachers who studied at a Canadian university in the summer of 1995. The exploration of teachers’ perceived difficulties in introducing the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in South Korea revealed the main barrier to be teachers themselves. These teachers identified six major constraints preventing them from using CLT: deficiency in spoken English, deficiency in strategic and sociolinguistic competence, lack of training in CLT, few opportunities for retraining in CLT, misconceptions about CLT, and little time and expertise for developing communicative materials. The majority of the reasons are connected with teachers’ lack of in-service training to “retrain and refresh” themselves in CLT.

Li’s (1998) study involving 35 Chinese EFL teachers from 11 tertiary institutions demonstrated that teachers varied in their attitudes toward the introduction of process writing in initial training sessions. However, Thompson and Bates (1995) pointed out that one of the beliefs extant in general in-service training is a misconception, in that attending a training course does not necessarily improve teachers’ practice. This unrealistic expectation of what training courses can offer fails to take into consideration teachers’ beliefs, attitudes, and other factors. They asserted that attending a course is only one part of a complex process in which theory becomes translated into practice. This in-service training, albeit an
important one, must also be connected with other teacher professional development activities.

Teacher change, particularly changes in their attitudes towards innovation, has been considered crucial in promoting successful curriculum implementation in the classroom. Carless (1999a) mentions that teachers’ attitudes are derived primarily from their own experiences as learners, their professional training, their teaching experiences, their interaction with colleagues, and the cultural values and norms of the society in which they live.

In a major review of teachers’ attitudes towards innovation, Stern and Keilslar (1977) stated that teachers involved in the curriculum planning process have more favourable attitudes towards the implementation of the subject courses than those who were required to represent programmes over which they have no control. They contemplated that teachers’ attitudes can be changed through training programmes, although certain attitudes are more resistant to modification than others.

The review of the influence of teacher has been documented in the literature review. Though the review in this section has not focused on teachers at the NFE, teachers at the NFE will influence how NFBEC is being implemented. Teacher factors such as attitude towards the curriculum, teachers training in NFE and their in-service on NFE curriculum will have an impact on how the curriculum will be implemented. Teachers’ difficulty in using the curriculum has an impact on the
implementation. Kenya does not train teachers in NFE curriculum. Which is why, teachers at the NFE centres are largely those that have been trained in formal Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) who are referred to as P1. Such teachers’, having been trained for formal schools may find it challenging teaching in NFE centres. When they are therefore taken as teachers in the centres, they will employ the teaching methodologies that they learnt at TTCs which are not appropriate for NFE which implies that they are not able to effectively implement the curriculum. The study will therefore establish teacher related factors and how they influence curriculum implementation.

2.8.2 Influence of resource and materials on curriculum implementation

The school's physical facilities or the school plant as it is sometimes called contributes an important component of the learning environment. The facilities include the administrative offices, classrooms, libraries, stores and the school playground. According to Bell and Rhodes (1996), these resources are important because the school uses them to advance the learning opportunities offered to the pupils. Anandu (1990) asserts that physical facilities are vital for both teachers and pupils in the teaching/learning situations. Any trace of inadequacy leads to frustration and the motivating factor in terms of comfort diminishes. Physical facilities that are important in curriculum implementation include classrooms, libraries, sanitary facilities and play grounds. Nafula and Ngoma (1998) add that modern teaching environment entails some key characteristics in its physical
Mungai (1992) concurs with Nafula and Ngoma (1998) on the importance of physical facilities in curriculum implementation. He points out that a teacher should have a classroom of his/her own. When a teacher has his/her own class he is able to create an atmosphere that reflects own character and what they have to offer the pupils who come to them. It helps the teacher to use wall displays as teaching aids. It means that the teacher can manage the practical supply of learning materials better.

Teaching / learning materials form the medium through which teaching is carried out. Teaching/ learning materials can be divided into two categories; those used by the students and those used by the teachers. Materials used by the teachers are important because they help teachers prepare schemes of work and lesson notes which guide them in the course of teaching. They include the syllabi, the teachers’ guides, chalkboard, maps, globe, and pictures. The availability of teaching and learning materials is very crucial in the advancement of education. On this note, Republic of Kenya (1976) states, “Books and other materials are the basic tools of educational development. They must therefore be available to the learner in adequate quality and quantities. They must also be available at the time they are required.”

Republic of Kenya (1988) claims that teaching and learning materials should be planned and utilized in the most effective manner to bring about efficient
provision of quality and relevance in education. The importance of teaching and learning materials is further highlighted by Mungai (1992) who stated that resources have been in use from the earliest times. This view is echoed by Nyamok (1997) who states that if a teacher uses the teaching materials effectively, he will be able to use the time thus created for other educational activities. Adequate resources take care of the learners’ individual differences and they encourage learners to participate during the teaching learning process. This makes learning more interesting to the learners and the learners are made active during the learning process. Ouma (1987) supports this view by stating that, resources encourage learners to participate in the learning process, motivates them, cater for individual differences and enable learners to gain experience by using their senses.

Appropriate printed media facilitate effective learning in the school. They assist the learners to learn at their own pace. Once a school has got enough text books, a teacher can give many exercises to the learner without writing them on the chalkboard. This saves him/her time of talking and making too many preparations. Most of the materials arouse learners’ instructions once they appear interesting (Ellington, 1986). The school therefore requires resources to enable it implement its various educational tasks.

Resources are vital inputs needed to effectively conduct instructional activities at all levels of the educational system. Material resources include, ‘those items so
designed, modified and prepared to assist teaching/learning operations. This is an indication that adequate teaching/learning resources are vital if the quality of education has to improve. According to the study by (UNESCO, 2005) provision of instructional materials including textbooks was identified as one of the major achievements of the FPE programme, particularly through reducing the cost burden of education on parents and thus leading to an influx of pupils to school. Thought the above literature focuses on formal education, resources and materials will in the same way affect curriculum implementation in a NFE setting.

Successful implementation is affected by the nature of the particular school’s physical and human resources (Rogan & Grayson, 2003). Resources in terms of human, material, and financial has been considered indispensable in determining the successful implementation of a curriculum (Carless, 1999a; Li, 1998). Fullan and Miles (1992) assert that implementation demands resources for training, for substitutes, for new materials, for new space, and, above all, for time. Kritek (1976) contended that the problems of resource insufficiency are not likely to be solved by providing only more money. More importantly, human support in terms of personnel training and administrator and peer support are believed to maximally increase the smooth implementation of innovations.

Resources and materials are critical ingredients in learning, and the intended programme cannot be easily implemented without them. No meaningful teaching and learning, which is a component of curriculum implementation, takes place without adequate resource materials (Lockheed et al, 1991). For curriculum to be
fully implemented as per plan, schools should be supplied with adequate resource materials such as textbooks, teaching aids and stationery in order to enable teachers and learners to play their role satisfactorily in the curriculum implementation process. Resources and materials are designed to help teachers better enact the curriculum in practice (Ball & Cohen, 1996). They also play powerful roles in shaping teaching practice as well as practitioner ideas about teaching and learning.

One of the prerequisite for running NFE programme for out-of-school children is the availability of appropriate and local-based curricula packages. They are important inputs for learning. Without them, it would be very difficult to ensure the transmission and acquiring of knowledge and skills and the development of desired attitudes (IIZ/DVV, 2000, No.7; MoE/Ethiopia, 1999). The availability of resources and materials is, thus, one of the most powerful and consistent determinants of learning achievement. Inequality in access to such materials is a major source of rural/urban and regional differences in achievement. Particularly where teacher quality is poor, the value of curricula materials is even more important.

The availability and use of resources and materials in developing countries, of course, have not been widely documented (Lockheed, et al, 1991). Ajayi (1999) in a study on Relationship between infrastructure availability and curriculum implementation in Nigerian schools and using 250 respondents found that no
significant relationship exists between availability of school facilities and curriculum implementation in those schools. But in a review of this study, Anyakogu (2002) opined that a relationship did exist between the availability of school facilities and implementation of school curriculum. This study was carried out in formal schools. The current study will establish how resources and materials influence curriculum implantation in NFE centres.

Tarnate (2001) in his study on Extent of Implementation of Non-Formal Education (NFE) Program in Elementary Schools in Catanduanes, revealed that facilities and materials were inadequate, namely: textbooks; teaching guides; chalkboards; and cassette tapes which negatively affected curriculum implementation. The findings indicated that there were great shortages of curricula materials at government-NFBPE centres. Only 16%, 37%, and 2% of the respondents indicated that adequate textbooks, facilitators’ guides, and supplementary (source) curricula materials respectively were available at government-implemented centres. On the other hand, 43%, 49%, and 13% of the respondents who filled for the NGO-implemented centres indicated that adequate textbooks, facilitators’ guides, and supplementary (source) curricula materials respectively were available. The study was carried out in Catanduanes. The current study aimed at establishing how resources and materials influence curriculum implementation in the Kenyan context.
The above literature has established the influence of resources and materials in curriculum implementation. Though the review of literature has focused on formal education in secondary or primary education, resources and materials as a key component in teaching and learning will influence the implementation of NFE curriculum. In many NFE centres in Kenya, shortage of resources and materials is a major constraint. For example, a study carried out by the GoK and UNICEF (1995), revealed that the NFE centres had inadequate resources and facilities which negatively affected NFE curriculum implementation. This study will therefore establish how resources and materials influence NFBEC in the NFE centres.

2.8.3 Influence of instructional methods on curriculum implementation

The final destination of any curriculum is the classroom. As we enter the classroom, decision making becomes the responsibility of the teacher. A teacher is viewed to be the key learning resource not so much the main source of knowledge but as the central organizer of learning for their learners. As the central organizer of learning, the teacher’s use of instructional materials is paramount as Wasiche (2006) states that the best way of organizing teaching and learning is to use a variety of instructional methods.

Instruction related factors are also identified as influencing the process of curriculum implementation and the learning environment. For instance, whether students are interested in the subject matter and motivated to learn, the connection
of subject matter to daily life positively influenced both the curriculum implementation process and the learning environment. Teachers are therefore expected to follow the prescribed syllabus exactly and make sure that they do not miss any topic/component. When teachers diligently follow a prescribed syllabus in teaching a lesson, then they are considered to have fidelity of use or fidelity of implementation.

Implementing instruction in the classroom includes specifying instructional or learning goals, selecting content, selecting learning experiences and choosing techniques or tasks to evaluate instruction. In planning for instruction lesson plans are used. A lesson plan is an outline prepared in advance of teaching, so that time and materials will be used efficiently (Peter, 1975). Ideally, different lessons require different lesson plans and different students require different lesson plans.

Instructional approaches are important elements during curriculum implementation. It is assumed that as the curricula change so should the instructional methodology (MoE, 2011). Wang, Nojan, Strom and Walberg (1984) posit that for the curriculum to be implemented effectively, alternative instructional methods need to be adopted too. According to (MoE, 2011) the learner should be placed at the centre of the teaching and learning process through methods that actively and meaningfully engage them in learning activities. Such methods include, group activities, discussion and problem solving.
Wasiche (2006) observes that small group instructions during the lesson, a teacher assisting one student at a time especially weak or low achievers, encouraging students to demonstrate to each other during the lesson, providing frequent feedback by giving assignments, marking and revising assignments immediately, motivating students by providing incentives for any small progress and encouraging students to interact freely in class are some of the techniques that can enhance students performance.

Teacher-centred methods of teaching have been common in classroom because, teachers lacked confidence, mastery of subject matter content and basic teaching skills (Thijs, 1999), (Howie, 2002) and (Motswiri, 2004). Lack of teaching material, facilities and time and large class sizes have also made it hard to use learner-centred method of teaching especially in technical subjects (Howie, 2002).

Although a move away from traditional, a teacher-centred, direct instruction towards a more student centred, understanding based form of teaching that focuses on exploration and experimentation is fundamental to many contemporary reforms in science education, researchers report teachers continuing to teach in the same way they were taught. Smerdon and Burkam (1999) found that teachers still view lecture as the most expeditious method for covering a large volume of material. Therefore students continue to listen, copy notes and watch demonstrations of experiments in science classes while their teachers lectured.
Tregust (1991) also indicates that much of what students are required to do in classrooms can be tedious and is not intellectually demanding.

According to Ajibola (2008), when instruction is directed towards the needs of the child, there is an accompanying tendency to make sure that s/he fully understands the material he is being taught. The focus is no longer on how much a student can remember, but how he understands; what meaning he makes of his understanding; and, whether he can apply the knowledge and meaning in real-world situations.

Amuseghan (2007), in discussing English language instruction at the Senior Secondary School level in Nigeria, points out that most teachers are more concerned with disseminating facts, information and principles on how to do this or that than teaching language skills or allowing students to do and learn, practice and engage in language activities aimed at acquiring communicative skills or competence.

Offorma (2005) quoted Nwagwu (2003) as noting that technical subjects were not effectively implemented as most of the subjects are not offered due to lack of teachers, workshops for practical work, and further noted that delivery was usually theorised because of lack of competence on the part of the teacher or due to lack of equipment, thus students graduated without any hands-on experience.

Anyanwu (2000) tested a hypothesis which stated that ‘there will be no significant relationship between instructional method and implementation of curriculum. A
hundred and fifty (150) participants were involved in the study and the Pearson Product Moment Statistics was used to check if there is a significant relationship between the instructional methods applied by teachers in the class and the consequent implementation of the school curriculum.

Literature in this section has established the importance of instructional methods in curriculum implementation. For effective implementation of NFBEC, teachers need to use appropriate instructional methods. However different factors will influence this which includes inadequate or lack of training in NFE and inadequate or lack of teaching learning materials. Considering that NFE curriculum encompasses technical subjects, lack or inadequate technical facilities will affect the implementation of the curriculum. The current study will therefore establish how instructional methods employed by teachers influence curriculum implementation.

2.8.4 Influence of learner characteristics on the curriculum implementation

It is important to note that curriculum implementation cannot take place without the learner. The learner is therefore the central figure in the curriculum implementation process. Implementation takes place as the learner acquires the planned or intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling the same learner to function effectively in a society (University of Zimbabwe, 1995).
Curriculum activities in any educational jurisdiction must involve learners. Therefore, the final evaluation of any new curriculum implementation will depend on whether the new curriculum promotes students’ learning or not. As indicators of any curriculum outcomes, the learner’s’ perceptions of curriculum implementation may eventually determine the extent to which the intended curriculum is successfully implemented and further sustained.

While teachers are the arbiters of the classroom practice, the learners hold the key to what is actually transmitted and adopted from the curriculum. The learner factor influences teachers in their selection of learning experiences, hence the need to consider the diverse characteristics of learners in curriculum implementation (Whitaker, 1995).

However, it is still not clear how learners should be involved in the curriculum implementation phase even though they are the main recipients of the programme. Learners may be so entrenched in their thinking and behaviour that changes proposed in the curriculum may not be enthusiastically received. For example, learners may be used to being given notes by their teachers and the new programme requires them to make their own notes. Some learners may not know how to make notes and have to be taught how to go about it. Even getting learners to participate in discussions may not be well received if they have been accustomed to being passive recipients of information (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). In a study by GoK and UNICEF (1995), data on the attitude of pupils
towards NFE indicated that their attitude towards NFE was positive. The pupils in the study reported that they desired education and wished to continue with education so as to have a better future.

2.8.5 Influence of the community on curriculum implementation

In NFE programme implementation as in any other curriculum implementation, the community is central. Unless concerned community members understand, support, and complement the programme, failure is unavoidable. The community can influence implementation in that it provides schools with financial resources to purchase required materials, they demand the inclusion of certain subjects in the curriculum, it influences learners to reject courses they consider detrimental to the interests of the group (Buchert, 1998). It is, therefore, important to involve the community groups at the curriculum planning stage. The prime reason why implementation fails to achieve its potentials is that it does not receive adequate support of the community. This confirms that human capital has a unique and decisive role in NFE programme implementation. The critical support according to Buchert (1998) is that which comes from below - not from powerful patrons and sponsors - but from those responsible for implementation.

The community provides the school building and manages the school. The teachers of NFBES do not have to worry about transfers and, therefore, work with a missionary zeal (Buchert, 1998). According to PMLC (1996) the programme of Non-formal Basic Education Schools was implemented through NGOs and
community based organisations that identify sites for schools, supervise them, give inputs, teaching aids and pay remuneration to the teachers. These NGOs also arranged to provide training to the teachers, form parent-teacher committees at local levels and held meetings with the teachers and communities.

Besides teachers, learners and school administrators or managers, the community (parents) also plays an important role in the implementation process. For example, when parents see a subject being taught in way that is unfamiliar to them, they naturally have questions about what is going on. When children bring homework from school that parents feel unable to help with, they feel confused and lost. To be successful, any new programme needs to be embraced by parents. One way of reaching out to parents is to organise workshops for them focusing on the new curriculum. The workshops should be designed to help parents better understand the content and philosophy of the new programme. Parents need an opportunity to share their concerns and voice their support in an open forum. These workshops should be conducted by teachers so that they may explain what is really going on in the classroom (Sowell, 2000).

Another approach in reaching out to parents is to make available information on curriculum change on the Internet. For example, the government of the province of Alberta in Canada has on its website a curriculum handbook for parents containing information on subjects offered, programmes and courses available in all schools. (http://www.education.gov.ab.ca/parents/handbooks). Similarly, print-
based newsletters can be made available to parents informing them of the changes that are taking place with the introduction of the new curriculum (Sowell, 2000).

A UNICEF evaluation of NFE in 2004 in Somalia revealed that communities appreciated NFE activities and were actively participating in youth and civil society organisations. The evaluation also showed increased participation of girls (about 54 percent) especially in regions where learning and classroom hours were set for early evening from around 5.00 pm to 9.00 pm, when most of the participants had completed household chores and other activities (UNICEF, 2004).

2.9 Completion as a indicator of effective curriculum implementation

NFE provides learners with broader curriculum options that contribute to completion of the two cycles. According to A Situation Analysis Report on Education (MDG 2) in Bangladesh: A Baseline for Needs Assessment and Costing, learner completion is measured in terms of the number of pupils starting grade I and completing grade V. This has an indication that learners have successfully completed the cycle and hence curriculum has been successfully implemented. Learners who are not able to complete an education cycle is an indicated of unsuccessful curriculum implementation. Learner completion of a prescribed duration that they are supposed to be in school has been one of the three indicators for attaining the target set for achieving universal primary education i.e., MDG 02. Most of NFE initiatives are ‘catch up’ initiatives to assist
older children/youth who have missed schooling to complete their basic education. On attainment of the educational qualifications, the learners can thereafter be integrated into formal education. According to Aga (2002), successful implementation of Non-Formal Basic Primary Education Programs was the number of learners who had completed the NFE cycle. According to Republic of Kenya (2012), the major objective of NFE is that learners are able to complete the education cycles which enables them engage themselves in other activities including transiting to formal education for those who are interested. It therefore implies that learners who not be interested in proceeding with education an engage themselves in other activities. The emphasis is not academic performance but ability to complete the NFE cycle hence completion is the measure of an effective curriculum implementation. This study therefore used learner completion (completeall) as the measure of curriculum implementation which was the criterion variable.

2.10 Theoretical basis for curriculum implementation

The study was based on change theory by Fullan and Miles (1991). The theory has been used by Arnott Daryl George (1994) in the study on Factors affecting the Implementation of an Elementary Science Curriculum in three Northern Saskatchewan Provincial Schools. The study was similar to the current study since it was of factors affecting curriculum implementation hence it was deemed significant for this study.
Based on his research in 1965, Fullan (1981) states that there are factors that influence curriculum implementation which are also quite large and variable. He categorizes these factors into three broad categories namely characteristics of the innovation, characteristics of the implementing unit or situation, and macro or socio-political factors. Fullan (1981) states that change is a journey. He formulated a conceptual framework for investigating the implementation of educational change. He states that for successful implementation, changes have to be introduced to the users effectively (Fullan & Miles, 2001), and this requires knowledgeable and experienced change facilitators.

Implementation is explained as putting new ideas into practice (Fullan, 2001). According to him, curriculum implementation can be described as a dynamic construct, which refers to the process of continuous specification and redefinition of the essential characteristics of an innovation by developers and users during the planning and implementation phases of the planned change process (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977). He further states that one cannot really know what is going to be significant until he or she is into the implementation process. The various phases of the change process can take varying lengths of time and are not linear, but rather are a process in which events at one phase can give feedback to alter decisions made at a previous stage which then work their way through in a continuous interactive way (Fullan, 1991).
The study specifically focuses on the second phase of Fullan’s change theory, usually called implementation. In the implementation phase participants attempt to use the curriculum in order to change their practice. The implementation phase focuses on the actual use of the curriculum. Assessing the implementation processes as this study is doing is concerned with the nature and extent of actual change, as well as the factors and processes that influence how and what changes are achieved.

This theory is important in this study since the study aims at assessing how NFBEC implementation is being carried out and what factors that influences it. Since this study entails the implementation of the NFBEC, the change theory of is used to bring forth factors affecting the implementation. This is important because it is important for different stakeholders to be aware of the problems faced in implementing the NFBEC curriculum hence if possible or find ways of dealing with them.

### 2.11 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework of this study is presented in Figure 1.
Figure 1

*Interrelationship between Variables in the NFE Basic Education Curriculum Implementation*

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AT KIE

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS
- Gender
- Age marital status
- Level of education
- Length of service at NFE centre

RESOURCES AND MATERIALS
- Availability
- Adequacy
- Appropriateness

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS
- Lecture
- Group discussions
- Individual Presentation
- Role play
- Question and answer
- Project

LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS
- Attitude
- Entry behaviour
- Learners family background
- Age

CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Learners’ completion of NFE cycle

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The framework is based on the input, process, output and outcome model. The framework focuses on the stages of curriculum development, implementation and how it aims at achieving the desired educational outcomes. The framework shows that once the curriculum has been developed at the KIE, it is implemented at the NFECs. During the implementation, various factors such as teacher characteristics, resources and materials, instructional methods and learner characteristics (inputs) influence the implementation. When these factors are favourable, then the curriculum is effectively implemented and hence will achieving the desired educational output which is completing the NFE cycle.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methods applied in carrying out this research study. The chapter contains the following sections: research design; target population; sample and sampling procedures; research instruments; validity and reliability of the instruments; administration of the instruments, and data analysis techniques.

3.2 Research design

The design for this study was cross-sectional survey. According to Fowler (2003), cross-sectional surveys are used to gather information on a population at a single point in time. In this type of research study, either the entire population or a subset thereof is selected, and from, data are collected to help answer research questions of interest. Bryman (2008) contends that cross-sectional design helps to deal with various categories or cases simultaneously and this matches with the use of mixed methodology for this research. The design relies on existing phenomenon at the time of data collection than change resulting from interventions.

Cross-sectional design was preferred because of its ability to deal with various cases and variables, and its suitability with quantitative and qualitative methods
Cross-sectional design was preferred because the study cut across three cities. The information about factors that were gathered represented how the curriculum was being implemented at only one point in time. This design was, therefore, deemed suitable for this study because the researcher collected data at a particular point in time, across the three cities, when events had occurred with an intention of assessing how non-formal basic education curriculum had been implemented. Using the cross-sectional survey, the study assessed how teacher characteristics, learner characteristics, adequacy and appropriateness of resources and materials, instructional methods, community, and director characteristics had influenced the implementation of NFBE curriculum.

### 3.3 Target population

The target population of this study comprised of all the NFE centres in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu urban towns, that is, all the pupils, teachers, NFE service providers and community leaders in these centres. There were 14 NFE centres in Nairobi, 10 in Mombasa and 12 in Kisumu that had implemented the Non-formal basic education curriculum. In these centres, there were 96 teachers, 36 directors and 750 learners (KIE, 2010).

### 3.4 Sample and sampling techniques

The study employed purposeful sampling using maximum variation sampling. Patton (1978) quoted in Casley and Kumor (1995) states that when the researcher cannot meet the requirements of probability sampling, “purposeful” sampling can
be used. Maximum variation sampling involves purposefully picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest. Patton further explains that this strategy aims at capturing and describing the central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participants.

Purposive sampling was used to identify NFE centres and respondents for data collection. This meant identifying centres that were implementing the NF basic education curriculum. Selection took into account the following: (i) accessibility, (ii) that the centres were open and functioning, (iii) that they were implementing the NF basic education curriculum programme (iv) availability of the relevant people to be interviewed. NFE teachers, learners, and directors of the NFE centres were identified as respondents. The reason for choosing purposeful sampling procedure was therefore used to identify information-rich sources such as teachers, community leaders, directors and the learners who were the key players in the implementation of NFE curriculum.

The sample size, therefore, comprised all the 36 directors, 96 teachers and 300 learners. To sample the pupils, convenience sampling was used. According to Nagle and Williams (no date). Focus groups do not use probability or random samples. Focus groups generally utilize convenience sampling. Nagle and Williams further state that focus groups should have between 7 to 12 members. In this study the researcher selected 10 pupils for the FGD from each of the centres.
3.5 Research instrumentation

The research used a mixed methods approach. Various names are used to refer to this approach but all the terms refer to one thing in different words and the most common term is mixed methods research (Greene, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001). Mixed methods approach as the name suggests is where quantitative and qualitative methodologies are combined in carrying out a study to accomplish the research goals, which require diverse information from diverse stakeholders (Greene, et al, 2001).

In this study, mixing was carried out through triangulation. According to Bryman (2008) triangulation entails using more than one method or data in the study of a social phenomena resulting in greater confidence in findings. The use of different data collecting methods helped the research to deal with the complexities of studying the implementation of NFE curriculum at the NFE centres.

Six data collection methods were used, which included: questionnaire for the directors and teachers the of institutions, focus group discussion guide for learners, observation checklist for materials and resources, lesson observation schedule, and documents analysis. These instruments are discussed below.

3.5.1 Questionnaires

There were two sets of questionnaires; one for the teachers and one for the directors of the institutions. These instruments were designed for self-completion
by directors and the teachers. The preference for a questionnaire for teachers was based on the fact that directors and the teachers were able to complete it without help, they were anonymous, and were cheaper and quicker than other methods while reaching out to these two categories of respondents sample (Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al., 2007). Questionnaire for the teachers and the directors provided in-depth data about their attitudes and perspectives about the implementation of NFE curriculum.

3.5.1.1 Questionnaire for directors

The questionnaire for the directors was divided into six sections A to F. Section A focused on the personal information which included gender, age, length of service, marital status, level of education and duration at the centre. Section B comprised five items which focused on the information about the centre which included name, year of establishment, reasons for its establishment, ownership of the centre and the services other than education that centre offered.

Section C contained 10 items both structured and unstructured, which focused on teacher characteristics such as their numbers, qualifications, challenges faced in acquiring them, payment of teachers, teacher turnover, induction, and challenges that teachers faced in teaching at the centre. Section D comprised on five structured and unstructured items that focused on materials and resources. These included information of acquisition, challenges in acquiring them, appropriateness of the materials and resources. Section E consisted four items that focused on the
learner characteristics, such as category of learners, their interests, dropout and subject selection. Lastly, Section F focused on community factors. There were five items that sought information on the role of the community in facilitating learning, community support and challenges emanating from the community. The section also included items that sought for suggestions for effective curriculum implementation.

3.5.1.2 Questionnaire for teachers

The questionnaire for the teachers covered seven (7) sections. Section A focused on the personal information of the teachers. The section sought information on gender, age, length of service, marital status, level of education and duration in the centre. Section B contained four (4) items that sought information about the centre including year of establishment, the establisher and the number of learners at the centre. Section C comprised nine (9) items, both closed and open ended, which sought information on teacher preparation. This included their professional qualifications, whether they had been trained, whether they had received any in-service training, the use of the NFE basic education syllabus, subjects they taught and the challenges they faced in teaching at the NFE centres.

Section D comprised three questions that sought to find out the adequacy and appropriateness of the teaching and learning resources at the centre. The second item had a table comprising of 16 sections where teachers were required to tick on availability and adequacy of materials and resources. Section E contained nine
items that sought information on learner characteristics. These items were both structured and unstructured. One item in the section contained 20 5-point Likert-type statements that sought the perceptions of the teachers towards the NFE basic education curriculum implementation in the centres. Lastly, Section G had seven items that sought information on the influence of the community on the curriculum implementation. The section had an item that teachers required to recommend what various stakeholders should do so that NFE curriculum is effectively implemented.

3.5.2 Focus group discussion guide for learners

The focus group discussion is said to be a type of group interview where the participants interact, argue and make joint contribution on the topic of concern rather than making individualised contributions (Bryman, 2008). The focus group discussion conducted with the learners and the community members provided an interactive forum through which participants gave information which otherwise would not have been obtained through individual interviews or individual questionnaire. This provided the advantage of exploring issues of interest in a broad, free and interesting style where participants shared and debated. Each group chose a chairperson and a secretary to regulate their discussion. In the processes, all the outputs of the discussions were written down by the research after a consensus on a given point was reached. The focus group discussion (FGD) for this study involved a total of 300 learners, as Bryman (2008) asserts...
that a FGD may involve more than 50 participants. The 300 participants were then divided into 36 groups according to the number of centres under study.

The focus group discussion guide for the community members had two major sections. The first section sought information about the name of the centre, name of the town, number of discussants and their gender compositions and the name of the recorder. The second section contained eleven items for discussion that sought information based on the research objectives.

3.5.3 Observation checklist for materials and resources

The observation checklist for materials and resources comprised two sections. The first section dwelt on the information about the centre, the service provider, the number of teachers and number of learners. The second section contained a table in which the researcher was supposed to tick on the availability and appropriateness of materials/resources and facilities.

3.5.4 Lesson observation schedule

This tool was included in the research instruments to purposefully seek information on how the teachers conducted instruction. This was carried out after the realisation that there was need for an instrument to evaluate the instructional methods used by the teachers. The lesson observation schedule was used to find out how teachers prepared the schemes of work and lesson plan. It was also used
to find out the teaching methods that teachers employed and how appropriate the instructional methods were.

3.5.5 Document analysis guide

This instrument was designed to seek information about the centres. The document analysis sought information on the number of the learners that had participated in the programme since its inception, the completion rates, the dropout rates, the number of learners who had joined the formal schools and the different activities that learners were involved in after completion of the programme. More importantly this tool served as the measure of depended variable.

3.6 Pilot study

A pilot study was carried out in Nakuru town among five NFE centres where the implementation of the NFBE curriculum has been done. This was done to determine whether there were ambiguities in any item, if the instruments could elicit the type of data anticipated, to indicate whether the research objectives had been appropriately addressed, thus enhancing validity and reliability. It was also done to indicate whether the type of data collected would be meaningfully analysed in relation to the stated research objectives and questions (Kinyua 2001). The pilot study revealed deficiencies in the instruments which were addressed before main study.
3.6.1 Validity of the instruments

Validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it is intended to measure or how truthful the research results are (Joppe, 2000, Polit and Beck, 2004). In this research, all the seven research tools covered the same overlapping themes and objectives so that the data obtained clarified, illustrated and complemented each other. This harmonisation helped strengthen the validity of the research as a whole. The use triangulation helped in the strengthening of the research, as Robson (2002) argues that triangulation “enhances the rigor of the research”. He further adds that the triangulation of methods, methodology and the data can help reduce researcher bias, respondent bias and threat to validity. This process gave this research sound basis to claim that it had established its objectives. Content validity was used to check the representation of the research questions in the research instruments. This was done in consultation with the supervisors who examined the representativeness of the questionnaires content in order to determine the content validity. They indicated the areas that content needed readjustment. The draft questionnaire was piloted for validity and reliability. The pilot study indicated areas that needed readjustments or alterations as follows.

The teachers’ questionnaire contained seven sections which were reduced to six after piloting. Items that were not in line with the research objectives were corrected after the pilot test. The initial teachers’ questionnaire previously
contained a number of items that were close ended to elicit a ‘yes’ and ‘no’
response. The supervisors advised that there was need to provide room for
explanation on the responses provided to add value to the close ended items. The
teachers’ questionnaire covered 41 items prior to pretesting. These questions were
reduced to 33 with a number of them having been merged. The same procedure
described for the teachers’ questionnaire was followed in validating other
instruments. That is, the supervisors discussed and examined the questionnaire,
focus group discussion, lesson observation schedule, observation checklist, and
document analysis and appropriate amendments were made.

3.6.2 Reliability of the instruments

Reliability refers to the extent to which results are consistent over time and an
accurate representation of the total population under study. If the results of a study
can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is
considered to be reliable (Joppe, 2000). It also refers to the consistency of scores
obtained by the same persons when re-examined with the same test on different
occasions or with different sets of equivalent sets of items (Anastasi, 1988). An
instrument that has adequate test-retest reliability gives the same result if an
individual is re-tested while remaining in a similar conditions. The study used
test retest method of testing for reliability of the instruments. Test- Retest
reliability "shows the extent to which scores on a test can be generalized over
different occasions" (Anastasi, 1988). Test-retest reliability was more relevant in
the setting of this study because the constructs we attempt to measure were heterogeneous. The two separate administrations were only 2 weeks apart; the time was deemed short enough so that the respondents' skills in the area being assessed had not changed through additional learning. The relationship between the respondents' scores from the two different administrations was estimated, through statistical correlation, to determine how similar the scores were. In this study, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) was used to assess the test/retest reliability. The reliability coefficient for the teachers and directors questionnaires revealed coefficients of $r=0.87$ and $r=0.82$ respectively hence the instruments were deemed reliable.

### 3.7 Administration of the instruments

Permit to conduct the research was obtained from the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST). The researcher then booked appointments with the directors of the NFE centres. Data were collected for two days in each of the centres. On the first day, the researcher visited the centres, met and discussed the purpose of the visit with the directors who also introduced the researcher the teachers and learners. The researcher then administered the questionnaires to the directors and the teachers. As the questionnaires were filled by the teachers and the directors, the researcher filled in the observation checklist, on the same day the researcher conducted lesson observation. The researcher organised with the directors on how he could access the community members. On the second day of
data collection, the researcher was introduced to the community members by the
directors, created rapport with them and explained the purpose of the study. The
researcher then conducted the FGD with them. When through with the community
members, the researcher conducted FGD with the learners and lastly did the
document analysis. In some centres it was not possible to collect data in two days.
He however organised with the directors on when to do what was not possible in
the two days.

3.8 Data analysis techniques

Once data had been collected, it was cleaned which involved determining
inaccurate, incomplete, or unreasonable data to improve the quality through
correction of detected errors and omissions. This study generated both qualitative
and quantitative data. According to Patton (1990), massive qualitative data
collection from questionnaire, focus group discussion and observation guide
needs to be organised into significant patterns to reveal the essence of the data.
The questionnaire generated both quantitative and qualitative data while the focus
group discussion generated qualitative data. Quantitative data, on the other hand,
mainly from the questionnaires, was first cleaned, edited for any irregularities,
and the close-ended responses coded. Data was then entered in the computer
using Epi Info and STATA and then exported to the Predictive Analytics
SoftWare (PASW) for eventual cleaning and analysis. Logical checks and
frequency runs were made on all variables to further the accuracy and consistency of the data and identify any outliers before actual data analysis.

The study employed multiple regressions to generate models for various variables. In the process of generating a model, the researcher identified several predictor variables for each of the objective correlated all identified variables against the criterion variable (completion rates) to determine how strongly the variables related. Correlation coefficients have a value between -1 and +1. A positive coefficient means that x and y values increases and decrease in the same direction. A negative correlation means that as x and y move in opposite directions where one increases as the other decreases. Coefficient of 0 means x and y are associated randomly. Multiple regressions were performed to show the cumulative effect of the regression results. In regression analysis the R value is the slope of the linear regression model, such that if the R value is close to 0 the change in y (dependent) over relative to the change in x (predictor variable) is very small, the larger this value is, the less random the values are.

During the process of data entry the following key was used in labelling the variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>_14</td>
<td>Item 14 in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_17a</td>
<td>Item 17a in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_18</td>
<td>Item 18 in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_19</td>
<td>Item 19 in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22a</td>
<td>Item 22a in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Item 27 in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Item 28 in the teacher questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completeall</td>
<td>Number of learners who had completed the programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inservicetraining</td>
<td>In-service training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qualification</td>
<td>Qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>requiredmaterials</td>
<td>Required materials available in the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacherinduction</td>
<td>Teacher induction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data that was gathered from the field. The chapter is divided into several sections. These include the response rate of the directors’ and teachers’ questionnaires and the demographic data of the directors and the teachers. The chapter thereafter presents the analysis of data based on the research objectives. The items in the questionnaires were grouped into themes on the research objectives. The data from the focus group discussions were harmonized with the findings in the questionnaires and other tools. The data were presented by use of frequency distribution tables, and bar graphs. The analysis where appropriate was presented across cities namely Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa and a total results of the three cities.

4.2 Response rate

This section of the chapter presents the response rate of the targeted population namely the directors of the NFE centres and the teachers. Out of the 36 questionnaires administered to the directors, 32 (88.9%) were returned. Out of 96 questionnaires administered to the teachers, 77 (80.2%) were returned.
4.3 Demographic data of the respondents

The analysis of the demographic data of the respondents was divided into two sections. First, the demographic data of the directors of the NFE centres were presented and later the demographic data of the teachers at the NFE centres.

4.3.1 Demographic information on directors of institutions

The researcher sought to establish the gender of the directors of the NFE centres. The directors were therefore asked to indicate their gender. The data is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Gender of the Directors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the gender of the directors indicated that majority 22 (73.3%) were male. Kisumu urban centre recorded the highest percentage of males at 10 (90.9%) while Nairobi recorded the highest percentage of females at 5 (45.5%), who
managed the NFE centres. These findings were confirmed by the observation checklist.

Age distribution of the directors is presented in Figure 2.

**Figure 2**

*Age Distribution of the Directors*

![Bar chart showing age distribution of directors.](chart)

Data on the age of the directors indicated that most of the directors were aged between 26 and 30 years and a relatively lower number aged between 31 and 40 years. Kisumu urban centre had the highest number of directors aged between 31 and 40 years. One of the reasons that could be attributed to this situation is that most of the directors were people who had completed college and were looking for jobs they had found themselves in the centres. Consequently, they made directors since they had a qualification higher than others at the centre.
It was also observed that most of the directors who were above 40 years of age were the initiators of the programmes. These were people who had been working in other centres and had opted to start a centre on their own and hence assuming directorship. A practical example was found in Mombasa where most of the directors had previously working at the Mwokoeni NFE centre, apparently the first NFE centre in Mombasa town. The then Minister of Education Prof. Sam Ongeri had launched the NFE curriculum in 1996 at this centre. Some of the staff in this centre later became directors of other centres such as Olive Rehabilitation and Shanzu Educational Centre.

The directors were also asked to indicate the length of service at the NFE centres. The results are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

*Length of Service in NFE Centres*

Data on the level of service at the NFE centre indicated that most of the directors had served at NFE centres for a duration of between 5 and 10 years as recorded by
14 of them (46.7%), followed by those that had served for a duration of between 11 and 15 years as recorded by 9 or 30%. NFE centres are faced with a myriad of challenges one of them being staff turnover. This has resulted to having employees who work for a short time in a centre and thereafter seek for greener pastures.

The researcher further sought to establish the level of education of the directors. The data is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4

*Distribution of Directors by Level of Education*

![Bar chart showing distribution of directors by level of education.]

Data on the level of education showed that most of the directors of the NFE centres had either a P1 certificate which is a certificate for trained primary school teachers, or a Diploma as recorded by 11 directors (39.3%) in both categories. There is no specific qualification that is required for one to be a director at NFE
centre. With the availability of many P1 certificate holders as a result of the
government ceasing to employ teachers, there are those who seek to work at the
NFE centres, and hence are given responsibilities of heading the institutions.
Table 2 presents the duration at the current centre.

Table 2

*Duration of Directors at the Current Centre*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration in the centre</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 10 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the duration that the directors had served in the current centre showed
that most had served for a duration of between 5 and 10 years as recorded by 12
(44.4%). This is attributed to the fact that most of teachers usually seek for
greener pastures since they feel that the monetary gains and working conditions at
the NFE centres are not conducive. Those that have been working for longer
durations may have been those that have retired from teaching or are the
proprietors of the institutions and hence would be at the institution for a longer
time.
### 4.3.2 Demographic data of teachers at the NFE centres

The demographic data of the teachers focused on their gender, age, length of service, their marital status, level of education and duration they had been in the centre. The gender of teachers at the NFE centres is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

*Distribution of Teachers’ Gender Across the Cities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data showed that apart from Kisumu where majority of teachers 8 (66.7%) were female; all the other centres had male teachers as the majority. The data implies that males were more dominant in the NFE centres. Over all data indicated that 39 (56.5%) were male while 30 (43.5%) were females. Although there is no specified number of how many males or females should be at the NFE centre, there would be a need to establish why fewer females than males are teaching at the NFE centres.

Teachers’ distribution by age is presented in Figure 5
Figure 5 shows that overall, 13 (18.8%) teachers were less than 25 years of age, 27 (39.1%) were aged between 26 and 30 while 29 (42.0%) were aged between 31 and 40 years. Nairobi had the majority of teachers aged 31 to 40 years as indicated by 21 or 61.8%. In terms of urban centres, majority of the teachers were aged between 31 and 40 years in all the centres followed by teachers aged between 26 and 30 years. Mombasa region had the most of the teachers 11 (47.8%) aged less than 25 years.

The study established that most of the teachers at the NFE centres were teachers who after completing different areas of study at college or university sought for employment at the centres. These are relatively young teachers who may leave the
centres once they found better jobs, hence their high presence at the NFE centres. One of the teachers in Kisumu stated that he had been working at the centre for 10 years since he graduated from a primary Teacher Training College (TTC). Asked why all that time at the centres he told the researcher that he had not found employment with the Teachers’ Service Commission (TSC) where he would immediately move if such an opportunity arose.

The distribution of teachers by length of service is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6

*Distribution of Teachers by Length of Service*

Data on the duration of service that the teachers had in the NFE centres indicated that most of the teachers had been at the NFE for between 5 and 10 years. Nairobi region had the highest number of teachers in that category as indicated by 29 teachers or 82.7%, while Mombasa region had the majority of teachers, 16
(69.6%), who had been in the NFE centres for duration of less than 5 years. This scenario could be attributed to the fact that the NFE centres face high turnover due to among other factors, low salary and hence the search for greener pastures. Only those that have better terms of service or those who may not get better jobs would opt to stay on at the NFE centre. One of the directors indicated that he had lost a number of good and experienced teachers once the government employed primary teachers on contract.

Teachers’ distribution by marital status is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Distribution of Teachers by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>85.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the marital status of the teachers indicated that most of the teachers were married with almost equal representation in Kisumu and Nairobi (85.7% and 88.6%) respectively and a slightly lower representation in Mombasa at 60.9%. Nationally, 15 or 20.3% of the teachers were married against 57 (79.0%) who
were single. The data show that most of the teachers involved in teaching NFE centres are mostly single. This could be attributed to the fact that most of them are relatively young, those who have either completed secondary education or certificate courses and are looking for something to do as they seek further education or employment.

Teachers’ distribution by level of education is presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7

*Distribution of Teachers by Level of Education*

Data on the level of education revealed that most of the teachers at the NFE centres had a P1 certificate, with Kisumu having the highest number, 9 (64.3%) followed by Nairobi with 17 (51.5%) and Mombasa with 5 or 22.7%. It is only Mombasa had teachers who had received training in NFE at 9 teachers (40.9%).
Teachers with technical education followed those with P1 certificate with Nairobi and Kisumu leading with 10 (30.3%) and 4 (28.6%) respectively and no technical teacher at Mombasa urban centre. As applied to the directors of the NFE centres, the same scenario is applicable to teachers where with the availability of many P1 certificate holders or other courses out there, there are those who seek to teach and work at the NFE.

It is interesting to observe that there were teachers who had been trained in NFE. This is attributed to the fact that some of the learners who have completed NFE were later on employed in the same centre as teachers, some of them have been provided with skills at the centres and are presumed to be able to handle this group of learners.

Teachers’ duration at the centre is presented in Figure 8.
Data showed that majority of teachers 33 (49.3%) had been at the centre for between 5 and 10 years with Nairobi having the highest number at 21 (67.4%) followed by Kisumu and Mombasa. There were very few teachers who had been at the centre for above 10 years. This finding could be attributed to the high turnover rate among teachers at the NFE centres.

4.4. Influence of teacher characteristics on NFBE curriculum implementation

The first research objective was to determine how teacher characteristics influenced the implementation of Non-formal basic education curriculum at the non-formal education (NFE) centres in Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa urban centres. The study therefore examined aspects of teacher characteristics among other factors, teachers’ demographic data, teacher adequacy, and attitude that
influenced the NFBE curriculum implementation at the NFE centres. It is in this regard that the directors of the centres were asked to indicate whether they had adequate teachers in their centres. Their responses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

*Directors’ Responses on Adequacy of Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adequacy</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
<td>Mombasa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>90.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the adequacy of teachers at the NFE centres indicated that all the centres had adequate teachers with Kisumu having the highest rating 10 or 90.9%. Nationally, 23 (74.2%) of the centres had adequate teachers. The data shows that there were adequate teachers at the NFE centres. The availability and adequacy of teachers could be attributed to the fact that graduates from different fields at time work as volunteers at the centres.

The directors were also asked to indicate whether there were specific qualifications that the centres required for one to be a teacher. Data indicated that
there were specific qualifications as reported by 29 (96.7%). Asked to indicate the qualifications that were required, they responded as presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9

*Directors’ Responses on Minimum Qualifications Required for Teachers*

Data on the minimum qualifications that were required for teachers indicated that most of the centres required KCSE certificate as indicated by 24 (80%) of the directors. A small percentage (27.3%) of the directors in Nairobi required Form Four certificate holders. It is presumed that pupils who have completed class 8 are able to teach basic reading and writing. More so, those who have completed form four are better placed to do so. However Standard 8 leavers may not be in a position to demand high pay hence they are cost effective in running the
institutions, are able to stay longer unlike Form Four leavers who may wish to go for further studies and certificates holders who may seek for greener pastures.

Asked whether they faced challenges acquiring trained teachers for the centres, majority of the directors 29 (96.7%) indicated that they did with all the directors in Kisumu and Nairobi reporting in the affirmative. Asked to indicate some of the challenges that they faced when accessing teachers, they responded as shown in Table 6.

Table 6

*Challenges Faced by Directors in Acquiring Trained Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ unwillingness to teach at the NFE</td>
<td>8 72.7</td>
<td>8 80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor salaries</td>
<td>3 27.3</td>
<td>1 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0 00</td>
<td>1 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>11 100</td>
<td>10 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the challenges that the directors faced were predominantly teachers unwillingness to teach at NFE centres as recorded by 17 (63.0%). Challenges relating to poor salary was recorded by 9 (33.3%) with Mombasa leading at
83.3% and Kisumu at 72.3%. This situation left directors with no option other than to hire Standard 8 and Form 4 leavers. The research further sought to establish who paid for the teachers’ salaries. The data is presented in Figure 10.

Figure 10

*Directors’ Responses on Who Paid the Teachers*

Responses from the directors indicated that salaries in most of the centres were paid by donors as indicated by 20 (69%). In Nairobi all the directors indicated that the salaries were paid by donors while in Mombasa the institution paid the salaries of the teachers as shown by 5 (62.5%). It is important to note that there is no policy on how much teachers at the NFE centre ought to be paid. The payment depended with the agreement on terms of employment between the centre management and those seeking employment. There were cases where salaries are delayed which de motived teachers hence leading to high teacher turn over.
which ultimately affected curriculum implementation. These findings with the findings of a study by Elimu Kwa Wanakijiji (2004) that Non-Formal school teachers were characterized by low remuneration levels, little benefits, low morale and self esteem, lack of job security, high turnover, low levels of academic and professional training and very limited opportunities for training, including in-service training. Most teachers were sustained by voluntary spirit and not salary.

The study further sought to establish the extent of teacher turn over in the NFE centres. In this regard, the directors were asked to rate the teacher turn over in their institutions. The data is presented in Figure 11.

Figure 11

Directors’ Responses on Teacher Turnover Rates

Data on the rate of teachers turnover was high as recorded by 20 or 71.4%. Regionally, Nairobi recorded the highest number of teacher turnover at 81.8%
followed by Kisumu at 77.8% and lastly Mombasa at 50%. Asked to indicate the reasons for turnover, they responded as shown in Table 7.

Table 7

*Reasons for Teacher Turnover*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Urban centre</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor salary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better employment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on reasons for teachers turn over were mostly poor salaries as indicated by 21 or 77.8%. The same was recorded equally at Kisumu and Nairobi while Mombasa recorded 62.5%. As explained above, salary issues mostly contributed to teachers’ turn over hence affecting curriculum implementation. When asked to indicate the challenges that teachers faced while teaching at the NFE centres, the participants gave the following response presented in Figure 12.
Over across the three cities, lack of training was the major challenge that faced teachers in teaching NFE as was recorded by 24 teachers (88.9%). All the directors in Nairobi region recorded the finding that lack of training was a key challenge, while 9 (90%) in Kisumu reported the same. Teachers, in particular, play a central role in the implementation of a curriculum. If the teacher is to translate curriculum intentions into reality, it is imperative that the teacher understands the curriculum document or syllabus well in order to implement it effectively (Whitaker, 1995).

The fact that lack of training was the greatest challenge that teachers faced during teaching at the NFE, concurs with De Lano et al., (1994), McLaughlin (1987) and
White (1993) who observed that in order that curriculum policy is translated into practice and to ensure that successful implementation exists in the classroom, it is paramount that teachers receive in-service training and provision of ongoing support and professional development.

The teachers were further asked to indicate their professional qualifications. The data is presented in Figure 13.

Figure 13

*Teachers’ Professional Qualifications*

Data on the professional qualification of the teachers indicated that most of the teachers at the NFE were professionally trained as presented in Figure 14.
Teachers’ Responses on Training Received

Data showed that most of the teachers were trained as P1 but not in NFE. Lack of training in NFE implied that teachers could not adequately implement the NFE curriculum. The teachers were also asked to indicate whether they had received in-service training on the NFE curriculum. The data is tabulated in Figure 15.
Data revealed that 52.7% teachers in the NFE had not been in-serviced on the NFE curriculum. As noted by Fullan and Pomfret (1977) in-service training is a factor in curriculum implementation. Brindley and Hood (1990) argued that ongoing in-service training and professional development constitute important components of any projected implementation. In-service training focuses on teachers’ responsibilities and is aimed toward short-term and immediate goals (Richards & Farrell, 2005). As Stenhouse (1975) put it, without teacher professional development there can be no curriculum implementation.

The teachers were further asked to indicate who had in-serviced them. The data is presented in Table 8.
Table 8

*Teachers’ Responses on Providers of the In-Service Training*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In-service training</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data indicated that in-service training on NFE curriculum had been conducted by KIE in Kisumu and Mombasa (50% versus 66.8%) while in Nairobi it had been provided by NGOs (70.6%). Asked whether the in-service provided prepared teachers in the use of the syllabus, they responded as indicated in Figure 16.
Data revealed that the in-service training offered prepared teacher for the use of the curriculum as indicated by 36 (58.1%). This finding indicate that teachers who had received in-service training were in a better position to implement the curriculum as Fullan and Pomfret (1977) puts it that in-service training is a factor in curriculum implementation. Teachers were further asked to indicate whether they used the NFBE curriculum. Their responses are presented in Table 9.
Table 9

*Teachers’ Use of NFE Curriculum in the NFE Centres*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Curriculum use</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data indicated that most of the teachers used the NFE curriculum as shown by 57 (81.4%) while 13 (18.6%) did not use it. This finding could be attributed to the fact that most of the centres were using the NFE curriculum while others were using the 8-4-4 curriculum. Contrary to the common opinion that NFE centres had stopped using the NFE curriculum, this study established that the NFE curriculum was actually in use. However, it was observed during the research that the centres were slowly reverting to formal curriculum due to the cost implications.

In a specific example in Mombasa, the researcher observed that the curriculum was best in use when the donors funded the centres by provision of technical subjects’ resources but once over, it was difficult to teach those subjects hence adopting the 8-4-4 curriculum. It was also observed that most of the centres preferred the latter since the centres were slowly adopting the formal schooling,
with centres embracing formal schooling within the centre rather than graduates transiting to formal schools outside the centre.

The researcher further sought to establish whether the teachers taught technical or academic subjects. The data is presented in Figure 17.

Figure 17

*Subjects that Teachers Taught*

Data indicated that majority of the teachers taught academic subjects as reported by 52 (70.3%) teachers. Nairobi had the highest number of teachers teaching technical subjects as indicated by 11 (32.4%) while Mombasa had the highest number of teachers teaching both subjects. The fact that most of teachers taught academic subjects is due to the reason that most of the NFE centres had dropped technical subjects due to high running cost.
Asked whether they had been trained in the subjects that they taught, they indicated as presented in Figure 18.

Figure 18

*Training in the Subjects Taught*

Findings indicated that 62 teachers (82.7%) had been trained in the subjects that they taught. All teachers in Kisumu had been trained. This fact is attributed to the fact that teachers who taught academic subjects were primary level 1 teachers hence had been taught in all the subjects that are taught at primary schools which are the same taught at NFE centres. Asked whether they were comfortable teaching the subjects in the syllabus, they responded as indicated in Figure 19.
Data on whether teachers were comfortable teaching the subjects in the syllabus indicated that 6 (16.7%) and 5 (22.7%) teachers in Nairobi and Mombasa respectively were not comfortable. All teachers in Kisumu were comfortable since they had received training. These findings agree with Cheng and Wang (2004), Li (1998), Wang and Han, (2002) who deemed in-service training as critical in successful curriculum implementation. The study further sought to establish the challenges that teachers faced while teaching. They responded as indicated in Figure 20.
Data showed that inadequate teaching and learning materials was the greatest challenge in the urban centres: 70.6% in Kisumu, 83.3% in Nairobi, and 65% in Mombasa; and rated by 55 (75.3%) across the cities. These findings concur with Rogan and Grayson’s finding (2003) which indicated that successful implementation is also affected by the nature of the particular school’s physical and human resources. Carless (1999a) and Li’s (1998) study also supports Rogan and Grayson demonstrating that human, material, and financial resources have been considered indispensable in determining the successful implementation of a curriculum.
Hargreaves (1989) claimed that “change in the curriculum is not effected without some concomitant change in the teacher”. It is on the basis of this that the researcher sought to determine teachers’ attitude towards NFE curriculum implementation. To determine the teachers’ attitude towards the NFE curriculum implementation, the teachers were required to indicate how they agreed or disagreed with the statements on a Likert scale of strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). These were scored as SA = 4, A = 4, U = 3, D = 2 and SD = 1. The total sum of the responses for the Likert questions in one item were counted from SA to SD. These were added up and then divided by 5 which was the number of the options in the Likert. The scores obtained were multiplied by the value in each category and then divided by the total sum. Dividing the sum by 5 revealed the mean. The data is presented in Table 10.
Table 10

*Teachers’ Attitude Towards NFE Curriculum*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean rating</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum is of lower quality than the formal curriculum</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>58.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum does not address the needs of the learners</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The curriculum has no difference with the formal one in terms of content</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The lifestyle of the learners hinder their learning</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lack of training affects the NFE curriculum implementation</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The lifestyle of the learners hinder curriculum implementation</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The learners appreciate the NFE curriculum</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teachers at the NFE centres are able to fully implement the curriculum</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum should be rolled out to other towns to cater for learners who require NFE</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>82.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teachers at the centres were involved in the NFE curriculum development</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Most learners feel the NFE curriculum is helpful to them</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum has enabled learners join the formal schools</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It is difficult to teach all the subjects as stipulated in the syllabus</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The community around the centre approve of the NFE centre</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Lack of teaching materials hinder the curriculum implementation</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The community fully supports the NFE centres</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The mode of learning in levels is not realistic</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Most of the learners are able to join the formal system after completion at the NFE centres</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The curriculum content should be re-designed to fit the learners needs</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The community around does not support the NFE curriculum</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total mean score</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the attitude of the teachers towards the NFE indicated that the teachers were positive towards the NFE curriculum. This was indicated by a coefficient of 4.0 which was agree (A) or an equivalent of 73% who were positive towards the NFE curriculum.
Punch and McAtee (1979) explored teachers’ attitudes toward the new Achievement Certificate System in Western Australia among 841 secondary school teachers. They established that teachers’ knowledge about, and participation in the change, and their general attitude to education served as independent variables while implementation served as the dependent variable.

In a major review of teachers’ attitudes towards innovation, Stern and Keilslar (1977) noted that teachers involved in the curriculum planning process had more favourable attitudes towards the implementation of the subject courses than those who were required to represent programmes over which they had no control.

To establish whether teacher characteristics such as gender, age, length of service, marital status, level of education and duration of service at the centre influenced curriculum implementation, categorical regression were carried out against learner completion rates (completeall). Table 11 displays the regression results for the teacher characteristics.
Table 11

Correlations of Selected Teacher Characteristics against Completion Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordered probit regression</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>[95% Confidence Interval]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of obs = 602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR chi2(6) = 55.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob &gt; chi2 = 0.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood = -1981.4632</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R2 = 0.0138</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completeall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.010606</td>
<td>0.088256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.180287</td>
<td>0.076878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>0.169785</td>
<td>0.08034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>0.115097</td>
<td>0.107952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>-0.01733</td>
<td>0.022124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration at the centre</td>
<td>0.141482</td>
<td>0.060812</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data shows Prob>chi2 = 0.000. The p-value of the model is shown in the table above for each of the variables regressed against completion rate. It indicates the reliability of X to predict Y. For a statistically significant relationship the p-value should be lower than 0.05. R-square shows the amount of variance of Y explained by X. In this case the model explains 1.38% of the variance in completion rate.

The data showed that gender has a p value of 0.01 which is lower than 0.05, (significant level) hence was statistically significant in explaining completion rates. The coefficient for gender was 0.18028 which meant for a one unit increase
in completion rates there was a 0.180 increase in gender. It should be noted that gender is binomial where we used 1 for males and 2 for females. The nature of the variable and the notation therefore suggested that the increase in females favoured completion rates. Females are more likely to influence completion rates.

As per the age, it has a \( p \) value of 0.03 which is lower than significant level (0.05) hence it was revealed that age was statistically significant in explaining completion rates. The coefficient was determined to be 0.169 which means for every increase in age at 0.169 there was a one unit increase in completion rates. This implies the regression model definitively determined a relationship between the age and completion rate.

For the variable that teachers had served at the centre, the data dealt with a categorical variable. The data showed that the length of service had a \( p \) value of 0.28 which was higher than 0.05 hence length of service was not statistically significant in determining completion rates. This implied that the regression model did not definitively determine a relationship between the completion rate and the teachers’ service.

It was further observed that marital status was not statistically significant with \( p \) value of 0.43 which implies that the regression model cannot definitively determined a relationship between the completion rate and the marital status. The duration at the centre was statistically significant. This was shown by a \( p \) value of 0.02 which was lower than 0.05. This implied that the regression model
definitely determined a relationship between the completion rate and the said variable. The coefficient was determined to be 0.14148 which meant that for a one unit increase in completion rates you will need a 0.14148 increase in duration at the centre.

4.5. Influence of adequacy of resources and materials on the NFBEC implementation

Rogan & Grayson, (2003) state that successful implementation is affected by the nature of the particular school’s physical and human resources. This position is affirmed by Carless (1999) and Li (1998) who states that resources in terms of human, material, and financial has been considered indispensable in determining the successful implementation of a curriculum. It is on this basis that the study sought to establish the how adequacy at the NFE centres influenced NFBE curriculum. To establish the adequacy of resources and materials at the centres, the observation checklist was used together with an item in the teachers’ questionnaire which sought teachers’ responses on adequacy of resources and materials. The data is presented in Table 12.
Table 12

Teachers’ Responses on Availability and Adequacy of Materials and Resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material and resource</th>
<th>Available</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFE basic education syllabus</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers' guide</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School timetable</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ text books/writing slates</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boards and chalk</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>93.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pens/pencils</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>89.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ exercise books</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall charts</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall maps</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desks/chairs</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural area</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural equipment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art and craft tools</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodwork tools</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding and fabrication equipment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garment making tools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicles mechanics equipment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home science equipment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data showed that most of the centres did not have facilities for technical subjects, for example only 1 (1.3%) had agricultural land, 2 (5%) had agricultural equipment, 5 (6.3%) had Art and Craft tools, 6 (7.5%) had wood work tools, 6 (7.5%) had welding and fabrication equipment and only 1 (1.3%) centre had motor vehicle mechanic and equipment. While it is a requirement by the NFBEC that the centres have these equipments, it implies that the curriculum cannot be implemented in the centres since the facilities were missing.

The study also sought to establish the appropriate and availability of the resources and materials. Table 13 presents the data as observed by the researcher.
### Table 13

_Availability and Appropriateness of Physical Facilities_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material and resource</th>
<th>Available</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom roofing</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom lighting</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom ventilation</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom doors</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom windows</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desks/chairs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration block</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staffroom</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing ground</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture land</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art and craft room</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodwork room</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding and fabrication room</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garment making room</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle mechanics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home science room</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data shows that out of 22 (73.3%) of the available classroom roofing, 15 (68.18%) were appropriate. Although 30 (100.0%) of the classroom doors were available, only half 15 (50.0%) were appropriate. It was also noted that 22 (73.3%) available windows, desks, and chairs were appropriate. Data further shows that 26 (86.6%) of the administration blocks available, 25 (96.1%) were appropriate. All the staffrooms which were available were appropriate. Toilets were deemed available as indicated by 30 (100.0%) while 25 (83.3%) were appropriate. Only 1 (3.33%) of the agriculture land, welding and fabrication room and motor vehicle mechanics were available and appropriate. Data further shows that 2 (66.6%) Art and craft rooms were available and all were deemed appropriate. Garment making rooms were available with only 5 (16.6%) deemed as appropriate.

The directors were asked to indicate whether they had the required teaching and learning resources. Data is indicated as shown in Table 14.
Data on the directors’ responses on availability of teaching and learning resources indicated that slightly more than half, 16 directors (57.1%) had the required resources with Kisumu having the highest availability as recorded by 8 (80%). In Mombasa and Nairobi urban centres less than half the directors indicated they did not have the resources (42.9%) and 45.5% respectively. In general the directors were of the feeling that their centres did not have the required resources and materials which affected curriculum implementation.

Instructional materials and resources play an important role in curriculum implementation. Curriculum materials regularly play powerful roles in shaping teaching practice as well as practitioner ideas about teaching and learning. Ball and Cohen (1996) states that curriculum materials are designed to help teachers better enact the curriculum in practice. This implies that if they are lacking, the
curriculum will not effectively be implemented. They add that by contributing to teacher understanding, materials and resources can help facilitate curriculum implementation. These results indicate that the implementation of the NFE curriculum was hampered by unavailability and inappropriateness of the resources.

The findings further agree with Ottevanger (2001) who states that in examining the complex relationship between teacher knowledge, beliefs and contexts with regard to curriculum implementation, use of materials are viewed as a catalyst in a chemical reaction hence contributing to curriculum implementation. To establish how appropriateness of the teaching learning resources influenced curriculum implementations, the teachers and the directors were asked to indicate how appropriate the resources and materials were in their centres. The directors were therefore asked whether the resources and materials were appropriate. Their responses are presented in Figure 21.
Data on whether the centres had the appropriate teaching and learning resources indicated that Mombasa experienced the highest percentage of inappropriate resources and materials as recorded by 6 directors or 85.7% with Nairobi following at 4 (80%). The directors were further asked to indicate whether they had the appropriate teaching learning resources for the technical subjects. The data is presented in Figure 22.
Data on the directors responses on availability of teaching and learning resources for technical subjects indicated that slightly more than half of the centre directors, 12 (52.17%), had the required resources with Kisumu having the highest availability as recorded by 4 (80%). Directors in Mombasa and Nairobi cities indicated they had inadequate resources at (14.3%) and 85.7% respectively.

Teachers also responded to statements that sought to assess how adequacy of teaching learning materials influenced curriculum implementation. They were also asked to indicate who provided for the teaching and learning materials. The data is presented in Figure 23.
Directors’ Response to Provider of Teaching and Learning Resources

Data showed that much of the teaching and learning resources were provided by the NGOs with Kisumu having the highest level of supplies by NGOs as reported by 7 (53.9%) directors followed by Nairobi as recorded by 15 (46.9%) directors and finally Mombasa as reported by 5 (22.7%) directors. Parents followed the NGOs with 23 (34.3%), proprietors and the community with 9 (13.4%) and 6 (6.3%) respectively. The teachers were also asked to indicate whether the teaching and learning resources were adequate for the teachers and learners in the centres. The data is presented in Figure 24.
Data showed that all the centres did not have adequate resources as indicated by 40 (70.2%) teachers. Mombasa and Kisumu were the most affected areas with 90.5% and 80% inadequacy. Asked whether they received the necessary teaching and learning resources when they required them, the teachers responded as presented in Table 15.
Table 15

*Teachers’ Responses on Availability of Teaching and Learning Resources*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Availability</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data showed that majority of teachers 49 (63.6%) did not receive the teaching and learning resources when they required them. Overall, Kisumu recorded the most affected in unavailability of resources at 82.4%, while Nairobi and Kisumu recorded 67.6% and 56.5% respectively.

To establish how facilities influenced curriculum implementation regression was carried out. The results are presented in Table 16.
Table 16

Regression analysis of influence of facilities and curriculum implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ordered probit regression</th>
<th>Number of obs = 20</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>= -304.92257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR chi2(1)</td>
<td>= 0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob &gt; chi2</td>
<td>= 1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log likelihood</td>
<td>= -40.506524</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pseudo R2 = 0.0091
Pseudo R2 = 0.0000

| Coef. | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z|  | 95% Confidence Interval |
|-------|-----------|------|------|----|------------------------|
| facilities | -4.67E-17 | 0.229244 | 0    | 1   | -0.44931 0.44931 |

Data showed that Prob>chi2 =1.000. The p value is -0.44931 which is lower than 0.05. The data implied that availability of facilities which was a categorical variable was statistically significant in increasing completion rates. This implied that the regression model definitively determine a relationship between the completion rate and the said variable. The coefficient is basically 0 meaning that the model defines the facilities have a minimal influence in completion rates.

The above findings have revealed that resources and materials were inadequate in almost all the centres. These findings agree with Tarnate (2001) who noted that facilities and materials, namely: textbooks; teaching guides; chalkboards; and cassette tapes in government and NGO, NFE centres in Catanduanes were inadequate. This was deemed to negatively affect curriculum implementation. The analysis of the data obtained from observation checklists in the current study and
in the study by Tarnate (2001) concur that NFE centres did not have adequate curricula materials which affected implementation.

4.6 Influence of instructional methods on NFBE curriculum implementation

The researcher sought to assess the influence of instructional methods on curriculum implementation. Data for this research objective was gathered by filling in the lesson observation schedule. Findings on the number of lesson observed are presented in Figure 25.

Figure 25

Number of Lessons Observed
Data indicates that 13 lessons (38.2%) were observed in Kisumu, 12 lessons (35.3%) in Nairobi and 9 (26.5%) in Mombasa. The lessons observed are presented in Figure 26.

Figure 26

*Lessons Observed*

![Lessons Observed Chart]

The figure shows that 8 (23.5%) of the lesson observed were Kiswahili, Mathematics, English and Social Studies were frequently observed. The duration of the lessons ranged from 30 to 50 minutes with most lessons taking 35 minutes as presented in Figure 27.
The researcher also observed whether the teachers had the schemes of work. Data indicated that majority 23 (67.6%) of the teachers did not have the schemes of work. The researcher further observed the sequence of the lesson and recorded the following as presented in Figure 28.
It was observed that in 13 (38.2%) lessons, the sequence of the lesson was generally good. The range of teaching and learning activities was good in 13 (38.2%) of the lessons observed with 8 (23.5%) being unsatisfactory.

The researcher also observed that most 16 (47.1%) of the teachers did not use instructional materials. In terms of assessment of the learning outcome, 12 (35.3%) had poor assessment, while 8 (23.5%) were unsatisfactory. This data is presented in Figure 29.
Figure 29

Assessment of Learning Outcomes

The researcher further observed the teaching method that the teachers used. The findings are presented in Table 17.
Table 17

*Observation of Teaching Methods*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method</th>
<th>Inappropriate</th>
<th>Appropriate</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>79.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual presentation</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role play</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question and answer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data shows that the lecturer method as used in teaching was inappropriate as observed in 26 (76.5%) lessons. Group discussion was similarly inappropriate in majority 27 (49.4%) of the lessons observed, while individual presentation was not appropriate in 16 (47.1%) lessons observed. Role play was not used in majority 30 (88.2%) lessons. However, question and answer was observed as appropriately used in majority 27 (79.4%) of the lessons observed while project method of teaching was inappropriate in 25 (73.5%) observations.

To establish the relationship between instructional method and curriculum implementation, the predictor variable (use of scheme of work) was used. The variable was categorical by ‘yes’ and ‘no’ values. This variable was correlated with the criterion variable ‘completion rates’. The data is presented in Table 18.
Data shows that the Pearson correlation of use of schemes of work against completion rates was negative with a value of -0.182. In relation to the values assigned, where 1 was assigned to ‘yes’ and 2 assigned to ‘no’ during data entry, the relationship was positive. In regressing the scheme of work with completion rates, the researcher had to place great emphasis on these values and their “weight” in the regression model. The Binary Logistic Regression Model was therefore used against the completion rates. The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 19.
Table 19

Linear Regression for use Schemes of Work against Completion Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.182a</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>227.80801</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), schemes

b. Dependent Variable: completeall

Data revealed that the R value was .182 which suggests that the use of schemes of work had a positive slope though close to 0, which means that the schemes of work were mostly random with standard error estimate set at 227.808. Figure 30 depicts the distribution of the schemes of work.
Figure 30

*Regression Standardized Residual for Lesson Observation*

Figure 30 shows that the residuals were normally distributed to the extent that the histogram matches the normal distribution. This gives an indication of how well the sample predicted a normal distribution in the population.
4.7 Influence of learner characteristics on NFBE curriculum implementation

It is important to note that curriculum implementation cannot take place without the learner who is the central figure in the curriculum implementation process. Implementation takes place as the learner acquires the planned or intended experiences, knowledge, skills, ideas and attitudes that are aimed at enabling the same learner to function effectively in a society (University of Zimbabwe, 1995).

The study therefore sought to determine how learner characteristics influenced curriculum implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum at the non-formal education (NFE) centres. The directors were therefore expected to indicate the category of learners that they had in the centres. The data is presented in Figure 31.
Data indicated that most of the learners in the centres were those that had dropped out of school as shown by in Figure 31. Apart from Mombasa where majority 4 (57.1%) of the directors indicating that pupils had never been to school, in Kisumu and Nairobi all the learners were those that had dropped out of school. The teachers were also asked to indicate the category of learners that they handled. Their responses are presented in Figure 32.
Teachers’ Responses on Learner Characteristics

Data shows that majority of the learners were those that had dropped out of school as indicated by 47 teachers (63.5%), followed by learners who had never been to school and those that had dropped from NFE centres. Regionally, Nairobi recorded the highest of learners who had dropped out of formal schools as reported by 75.7% teachers, while Mombasa recorded the highest number of learners that had never been to school (54.6%). This finding affirms the characteristics of the NFE that takes on board the learners who have either dropped out of school or have, due to various reasons, never been to school.

These findings were confirmed by the focus group discussions with the learners who were asked what they had been doing before they joined the NFE. They gave
many reasons such as being at home, and having dropped out of the formal schools after their parents were not in a position to pay school fees. Others had been working as house helps, herding animals, while others had never been to schools and were too old to join formal schools while others were on the streets. One learner in Mombasa commented during a focus group discussion:

“I was born near the beach and at an early age, I used to accompany my uncle who was a fisherman. I learnt the skill too and so never had time to go to school. I realized later that I needed education when one Mzungu (white lady) wanted to take me away to Europe and assist me but indicated that I needed to have the basic education. I went to formal school but felt out of place due to my age so I joined this NFE centre since there were my age mates with whom we can share experiences and learn together”.

Another shared his experience:

“I grew up in Kwale and did not go to school, but rather used to dance ‘mchechemeko’ (A Giriama traditional dance) where we used to be paid some money by those we entertained. I was approached by one of the centre directors who asked me to join school since he used to teach girls how to dance and learn. At the centre, we used to dance and learn. I gained lots of skills and I enjoy being at this centre. When I complete my training, I want to go back to the village and start my own centre so that I can help other needy children who have had no chance of schooling.”
Kleis (1973) defines non-formal education as any intentional and systematic educational in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the learners. The learners in the focus group discussions were asked whether they liked the education that was offered at the centres. They unanimously indicated that they liked since the NFE was flexible and accommodated learners who would otherwise not be accommodated in the formal schools. In further discussion with the older learners, some indicated that they had dropped out of school and later joined while others had never been to school.

The teachers were also asked to indicate the rate of absenteeism among learners. The data indicated that cases of absenteeism existed as indicated by 65 teachers (87%). Asked to rate the drop out, they reported as presented in Figure 33.
Data indicated that cases of learner-drop out from the NFE centres were high as shown by 52 teachers (71.2%). Nairobi recorded the highest rate at 32 (86.5%) while Kisumu followed at 66.9%. Asked to indicate the reasons for dropping out, teachers responded as presented in Figure 34.
Data on reasons for learner drop-out indicated that involvement in business activities, and truancy were the major cause of learners drop-out. The reasons were evenly distributed over the three regions. The teachers were also asked to indicate whether there were learners who had dropped out but later returned to the centre. The data is presented in Table 20.
Findings on whether there were cases where learners dropped out and later came back showed that such cases existed as indicated by 66 teachers (89.2%). Across cities, Kisumu had all the teachers reported that there were learners who had dropped out and later returned with teachers reporting at 97.1% while Mombasa had a relatively lower percentage of 66.7% of teachers reporting the same. The directors were also requested to indicate whether there were exceptions for some learners to take some subjects. The data is presented in Figure 35.
Figure 35

*Directors’ Responses on Learners’ Exceptions from Some Subjects*

![Bar chart showing exceptions from some subjects across cities.]

Data showed that there were exceptions for some learners to take some subjects and not others as recorded by 19 or 67.9%. Kisumu had the highest number of learner exceptions at 90.9% followed by Nairobi at 72.3% while Mombasa had least at 16.7%. This implies the nature of NFE where learners may be excepted from some subjects.

The teachers were also required to indicate whether learners were supposed to choose what to learn and what not to learn. They responded as indicated in Table 21.
Table 21

*Teachers’ Responses on whether Learners Chose What to Learn*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice of subjects</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f %</td>
<td>F %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4 23.5</td>
<td>20 58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13 76.5</td>
<td>14 41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17 100</td>
<td>34 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirty two (43.2%) teachers indicated that learners chose what to learn and what not to learn. Across the cities, the situation was highest in Nairobi at 58.8%, while Mombasa had 34.8% and 23.5% in Kisumu. Asked what made them make such choices, they responded as indicated in Figure 36.
Data indicated that a relatively high number 29 teachers’ (69.1%) chose what subjects to learn due to individual interest. Regionally, Mombasa had the highest number of respondents reporting this situation with 85.7%; Kisumu with 66.6% and 65.5% in Nairobi. This is another characteristic of NFE where pupils may not need to learn the same subjects as in the formal schools but rather take up subjects that they deem necessary. This was confirmed by the researcher where he found learners taking different subjects and had a choice of attending school when those particular subjects were being taught.
Teachers were asked to indicate their learners’ attitude towards the NFE centre.

The data is presented in Table 22.

Table 22

*Teachers’ Responses on Learners’ Attitude towards the NFE Centre*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learners’ attitude</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on the teachers responses on learner attitude towards NFE centres indicated that majority of them felt that learners were positive about the NFE as indicated by 59 of teachers (76.6%). Apart from Mombasa which recorded the lowest rate of students having positive attitude (45.5%), Kisumu and Nairobi recorded very high percentage of learners’ positivity towards the centre at 16.8% and 33.8% respectively.

These findings were corroborated by the focus group discussions with the learners who indicated that they enjoyed being at the centres. They liked it since they were taught well, they had been given a chance to get education and that they could
learn at their own pace. They also indicted that they were taught technical subjects at the centre, which were not offered at the formal schools. These they believed would enable them acquire a skill to become productive members of the society. Further probed on whether they liked their teachers, they indicated that they liked them since they were kind and understanding. They also respected their teachers though some students were older than the teachers.

Asked whether the learners were willing to learn at the centre, majority 69 (92%) of the teachers indicated that they were willing. This was shown by Kisumu having 17 teachers (94.4%), Nairobi with 33 (94.3%) and Mombasa with 19 (86.4%). This data is presented in Figure 37.

Figure 37

*Teachers’ Responses on Learners’ Willingness to study at the NFE Centres*
Teachers were also asked to indicate the extent of absenteeism in the NFE centres in a day. The data is presented in Figure 38.

Figure 38

*Teachers’ Responses on Percentage of Absenteeism*

Findings on the rate of absenteeism among learners at the NFE centres indicated absenteeism was rated at between 1 – 25% as indicated by 75 (97.4%) teachers. These findings indicate that the learners had a positive attitude towards the centre.

Asked to indicate the reasons for absenteeism, the teachers responded as shown in Figure 39.
Data from teachers responses on reasons for learners absenteeism indicated that majority were absent due to truancy as indicated by 38 (49.4%). Other reasons included disinterest in learning as recorded by 17 (22.2%) and working to earn a living as indicated by 19 (24.7%). In a focus group discussion with the learners, they indicated that they were sometimes absent from school since they had to take care of other issues such as their businesses. However, learners who were formally street children were absent due to truancy.
The teachers were further asked whether learners fully participated in the classroom. The findings are presented in Figure 40.

Figure 40

*Teachers’ Responses on whether Learners Fully Participated in Class*

Findings on teachers’ responses on learners’ participation in class revealed that majority 65 (85.5%) of the teachers indicted that learners fully participated during class. Nairobi recorded the highest percentage participation recorded by teachers at 91.9%, Mombasa at 82.6% while Kisumu recorded a participation recorded by teachers at 75%. These findings could be corroborated with the researchers observation during lesson observation where learners actively participated during learning. These findings further indicated that the teachers were of the opinion
that learners had a positive attitude towards the centres due to their high levels of participation. Asked to rate learners’ involvement during teaching, teachers responded as indicated in Table 23.

Table 23

*Teachers Rating on Level of Involvement in Classroom*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class participation</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very actively involved</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less involved</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings on the level of involvement of learners indicated that learners were very actively involved during the learning process as rated by majority 67 of the teachers (88.2%). This was confirmed by observation that learners were involved during the lesson. Unlike the formal school, learners at the NFE centres participated during the teaching and learning process. This shows that they knew what they want to achieve.

To establish how learner characteristic influenced curriculum implementation, selected variables from the teacher characteristics were selected and regressed with completion rates. The results are presented in Table 24.
Table 24

Regression Analysis of Selected Teacher Variables

|                           | Coef.  | Std.    | Err.  | z     | P>|z| | 95% Confidence Interval |
|---------------------------|--------|---------|-------|-------|------|------------------------|
| ordered probit regression  |        |         |       |       |      |                        |
| Number of obs             | 706    |         |       |       |      |                        |
| LR chi2(7)                | 48.43  |         |       |       |      |                        |
| Prob > chi2               | 0.0000 |         |       |       |      |                        |
| Log likelihood            | -2357.3954 |     |       |       |      |                        |
| Pseudo R2                 | 0.0102 |         |       |       |      |                        |
| complete all              |        |         |       |       |      |                        |
| Teachers’ rating of learners’ attitude towards NFE | -0.18748 | 0.050153 | -3.74 | 0 | -0.28578 | -0.08918 |
| Teachers’ response to pupils willingness to learn | 0.132175 | 0.174102 | 0.76 | 0.448 | -0.20906 | 0.473409 |
| Teachers’ response to learner absenteeism | 0.1867 | 0.261748 | 0.71 | 0.476 | -0.32632 | 0.699717 |
| Teachers’ response to percentage of pupils absent | 0.033626 | 0.095268 | 0.35 | 0.724 | -0.1531 | 0.220348 |
| Teachers’ response to reasons for absenteeism | -0.19988 | 0.055542 | -3.6 | 0 | -0.30873 | -0.09102 |
| Teachers’ response to learner participation in class | -0.37974 | 0.128586 | -2.95 | 0.003 | -0.63176 | -0.12771 |
| Teachers’ rating of learner involvement in learning | 0.364778 | 0.124515 | 2.93 | 0.003 | 0.120733 | 0.608823 |
Data shows that all the variables were categorical. The table shows that learner characteristics except ‘Teachers’ rating of learner involvement in learning” were all statistically significant since they are all below 0.05. This implied the regression model definitively determined a relationship between the completion rate and the said variables except ‘Teachers’ rating of learner involvement in learning”.

4.8 Influence of community characteristics on NFBE curriculum implementation

The study sought to establish how community characteristics influenced curriculum implementation. The centre directors were asked to indicate the roles that the community played in the centre. The data is presented in Table 25.
Table 25

*Directors’ Responses on the Role of the Community in the NFE centre*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu F %</td>
<td>Nairobi F %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of food</td>
<td>3 30</td>
<td>5 50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of teaching</td>
<td>0 00</td>
<td>1 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and learning materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling services</td>
<td>0 00</td>
<td>0 00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer work</td>
<td>7 70</td>
<td>4 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9 100</td>
<td>10 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data shows that the community participated mainly in volunteer work and provision of food as indicated by 11 (40.7%) and 7 directors (25.9%) respectively. Nairobi region had the highest level of provision of food by the community as shown by 5 directors (50%) while Kisumu had the highest level of volunteer work as indicated by 7 directors (70%).

Teachers were also asked to indicate whether the community approved the NFE curriculum. Their responses are reported in Table 26.
Data indicated that the community around the centre approved of the NFE curriculum as indicated by 62 teachers (86.1%). Across the cities, Kisumu had the highest approval at 94.4%, followed by Nairobi at 85.7% while Mombasa had 78.9%.

The teachers were also asked to state whether the NFE was appropriate for the out-of-school learners. Their responses are presented in Table 27.

**Table 26**

*Teachers’ Responses on whether the Community Approve of the NFE Curriculum*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Kisumu</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Nairobi</th>
<th>Mombasa</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>94.4%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data indicated that the community around the centre approved of the NFE curriculum as indicated by 62 teachers (86.1%). Across the cities, Kisumu had the highest approval at 94.4%, followed by Nairobi at 85.7% while Mombasa had 78.9%.
Data indicate that majority of the teachers 61 (83.6%) viewed the curriculum as appropriate for the learners. Overall, Kisumu recorded the highest approval at 88.9%, followed by Nairobi at 85.7% while Mombasa had the lowest at 75%. The data implied that teachers deemed the NFE as important in making OOS children access education.

The teachers were asked to indicate whether the community provided the necessary facilities and resources to the centre. The data are presented in Table 28.
Table 28

*Teachers’ Responses to Community Provision of Facilities and Resources*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provision resources</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kisumu</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data on provision of facilities and resources by the community to the NFE centres whether the community indicated that it did as shown by 43 (59.7%) teachers. Nairobi had the highest reported community provision (94.1%) while Mombasa had the lowest as reported by 17 (85%) teachers.

To establish how community characteristics influenced curriculum implementation, the researcher selected variables from the teachers’ questionnaire. The data is presented in Tables 29.
### Table 29

*Regression Analysis on Community Characteristics and Curriculum Implementation*

Ordered probit regression

|                | Coef. | Std. Err. | z    | P>|z|  | 95% Confidence Interval |
|----------------|-------|-----------|------|------|--------------------------|
| Teachers’ response to community perception of NFE | 0.108541 | 0.050017 | 2.17 | 0.03 | 0.010509-0.206573         |

Teachers’ response to community perception of NFE showed that the *p* value was 0.0105 which was lesser than 0.05 hence it was concluded that they can definitively determine a relationship between teachers perception to community perception and completion rates. The coefficient was 0.108541 which means for a 1 unit increase in teachers’ response to community perception in NFE we get a 0.108541 increase in completion rates. The model showed that community perception had a relationship with completion rates characterised by a coefficient of 0.108541 with a standard error of 0.050017.
4.9 Multiple regression analysis of teacher and director variables in relation to completion rates

The researcher conducted multiple regression analysis for selected teacher and director variables in a bid to develop regression models. In doing this, the researcher selected a number of predictor variables for the teacher and directors to establish how these director variables influenced curriculum implementation. The measure for the criterion variable was the ‘completion rates’ of learners at NFE. The choice of the completion rates as the measure for the dependent variable was used based on the fact that, although there are many outcomes for the NFE, learners are expected to complete the cycle before they could engage themselves in other activities. For example, for learners to transit to formal schooling, they had to complete the NFE cycle. Likewise they have to complete the cycle before they could engage themselves in different enterprises.

4.9.1 Multiple regression analysis for teacher variables against completion rates

To perform regression analysis for the teacher variables, the researcher selected the variables he considered important in the implementation of NFBE curriculum. These were teachers’ response on attitude of learners towards NFE (Item 19), pupils’ participation in class (Item 22a), teachers’ perception on the community’s attitude on education offered at the NFE centre (Item 27) and teachers’ response on whether the community around the centre approved of the NFE curriculum
(Item 28). These selected variables were correlated against the completion rates.

The correlation coefficients are presented in Table 30.

Table 30

*Correlations for Selected Teacher Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>completeall</th>
<th>qualification</th>
<th>_19</th>
<th>_22a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pearson</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>completeall</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>-.156</td>
<td>-.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qualification</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.136</td>
<td>-.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_19</td>
<td>-.156</td>
<td>-.136</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_22a</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>-.102</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_27</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>-.056</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_28</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>-.091</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sig. (1-tailed)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completeall</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.109</td>
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<tr>
<td>qualification</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
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<td>_19</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_22a</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
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<td>_27</td>
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<td>.391</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td>_28</td>
<td>.309</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>qualification</td>
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<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>_22a</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
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<td>_27</td>
<td>705</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>_28</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
<td>705</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finding on the correlations of the selected variables as presented in Table 25 demonstrates the only Item 19 and Item 27 were significant that is they demonstrated a strong relationship between the independent and dependent
variable (completion rate) at -.156 and .084 respectively. These two variables were used to carry out multiple regression with completion rates to provide a cumulative effect of the selected teacher variables against completion rates. The results are presented in Table 31.

Table 31

Model for Multiple Regression for Teacher Selected Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>233.65249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictor: (Constant), _28, _27, qualification, _19, _22a.

Data in Table 31 shows that the adjusted R Square value was 0.27 which shows that the model accounts for 27.0% of variance in the scores. This model describes the cumulative effect of qualification, teacher resources, teacher induction, and community support over the completion rates. The model has an R value of .184 which suggests that the correlation coefficient of the combination of all the variables to completion rates was 0.184. Figure 41 presents a plot to check for normality.
The histogram which assessed the quality of the regression showed that the deviation was normally distributed. The bell shaped histogram indicated that the assumption was likely to be true.

Figure 42 presents a PP plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Teachers Selected Variables.
Figure 42

*Normal PP plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Teachers Selected Variables*

The PP plot of Regression standardized residual for teachers selected variables indicates that the residuals or error terms were normally distributed. Scatter plot for selected teacher variables is presented in Figure 43.
The scatter plot showed that the residuals were likely to be true.

4.9.2 Multiple regression for selected director variables against completion rates

To perform multiple regression analysis for the directors’ variables, the researcher selected the variables the he considered as important in the implementation of NFBE curriculum. These were the director’s responses to adequacy of teachers (Item 7 in the director questionnaire), whether teachers had been inducted (Item 13a) in the director questionnaire, and the community supported the NFE (Item
25 in the same questionnaire). These selected variables were correlated against the completion rates of the learners at the NFE. The results are presented in Table 32.

Table 32

*Correlations for Selected Directors’ Variables Against Completion Rates*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>teacherinduction</th>
<th>communitysupport</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacherinduction</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communitysupport</td>
<td>-.500</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (1-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completeall</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adequateteachers</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacherinduction</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communitysupport</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completeall</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adequateteachers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacherinduction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communitysupport</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple Linear regression was computed from the selected variables against completion rates hence the results presented in Table 33.
Table 33

*Simple Linear Regression for Selected Directors’ Variables Against Completion Rates*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R$ Square</th>
<th>Adjusted $R$ Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.816$^a$</td>
<td>.665</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>149.90664</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Predictors: (Constant), community support, adequate teachers, teacher induction

- Dependent Variable: complete all

The analysis shows that $R$ was at .816. This value was quite close to one and thus it can be concluded that the relationship between director variables and completion rates is linear and positive. The data further imply that a 1 degree increase in the director variables would result in a .816 increase in the completion rates. An increase of teacher induction, community support, and adequacy of teachers by one unit would have a corresponding increase of completion rates of .816 units or 81.6 percent of the increase in the completion ‘rates’.

To establish the cumulative effect of the director variables, multiple regression analysis for selected director variables was carried out. The data is presented in Table 34.
Table 34

*Multiple Regression Summary for Selected Director Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.070^a</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>109.991</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), communitysupport, requiredmaterials, adequateteachers, teacherinduction

b. Dependent Variable: completeall

The model shows that the R value is set at .070 meaning that the cumulative effect of the independent ordinal and categorical variables of community support, required materials, adequate teachers as well as teacher induction were random. The closer the R value is to 1 the more linear, or positive or stronger is the relationship the variables are. The closer R is to 0 the more weaker or random the values are. It would be suggested that the PLUM ordinal regression can be carried out on 2 of the independent variables in order to get a more conclusive R value closer to 1. By observing the coefficients of the model, there is a better understanding of the individual effects of the independent variables on the completion rates as observed in Table 35.
Table 35

*Model Coefficients for Selected Director Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>139.064</td>
<td>41.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequacy of teachers</td>
<td>5.911</td>
<td>16.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher induction</td>
<td>8.140</td>
<td>15.486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community support</td>
<td>-1.395</td>
<td>4.270</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: complete all

It is observed from Table 35 that only one variable (community support) has a negative coefficient. All the rest of the other variables had a positive coefficient B., meaning that each has a positive effect in increasing the completion rates. Adequacy of teachers has a coefficient of 5.91 meaning that in order to increase the completion rates by 1 unit, it would require 5.91 units of adequacy of teachers. The significance of this variable is .712 meaning that it had about 71.2 percent probability of increasing the completion rates. Teacher induction had an 8.14 coefficient meaning that in order to increase the completion rates by 1 unit it would require 8.14 units of teacher induction. The significance of teacher
induction was .600 (with 1 being the most significant), meaning that it had about 60.0 percent probability of increasing the completion rates. Required materials had a coefficient of 9.225 meaning that in order to increase the completion rates by 1 unit it would require 9.23 units of required materials. The significance of this variable is .521 (with 1 being the most significant), meaning that it has about 52.1 percent probability of increasing the completion rates. Community support has a 1.395 coefficient meaning that in order to increase the completion rates by 1 unit it would require 1.395 to reduce 1 units of community support. The significance of this variable is .744 (with 1 being the most significant), meaning that it has about 74.4 percent probability of increasing the completion rates. Community support has a negative effect on completion rates, according to the data.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter also presents the suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu cities. Five research objectives were formulated to guide the study. The study sought to: determine how teacher characteristics influenced the implementation of non-formal basic education curriculum; establish how adequacy of physical facilities, resources and materials influenced implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum; examine how instructional methods influenced the implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum; determine how learner characteristics influenced the implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum; and lastly establish how community characteristics influenced the implementation of the non-formal basic education curriculum.
The study employed cross-sectional survey. Cross-sectional design was preferred because of its ability to deal with various cases and variables, and its suitability in quantitative and qualitative methods. The study employed purposeful sampling using maximum variation which involved purposefully picking a wide range of variation on dimensions of interest. The sample size comprised all the 36 directors, 96 teachers and 30 community members. Data were collected by use a mixed methods approach through triangulation of seven data collection methods which included: questionnaire for the teachers and directors of the NFE centres, focus group discussion guide with community members, focus group discussion guide for learners, observation checklist for physical resources and materials, lesson observation schedule and documents analysis. Data were analyzed by use of descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics were done by use of frequencies and percentages while inferential statistics was done by use of multiple regressions. Models were developed by use of Epi Info, STATA 11 SE, and PASW statistical applications.

The first objective was to determine the influence of teacher characteristics on the implementation of NFBE curriculum. The study therefore examined how selected teacher variables such as teachers’ demographic data, teacher adequacy, and attitude influenced the NFBE curriculum implementation at the NFE centres. Data indicated that all the centres had adequate teachers with a rating of 23 (74.2%). The minimum qualifications that were required for one to teach at the NFE centres was class 8 certificate as indicated by 24 (80%) of the directors. However,
the centres had teachers who had other qualifications such as Form Four certificate diploma and technical based qualifications. The findings also revealed that acquiring teachers was a challenge as reported by majority 29 (96.7%) of the directors. The study further revealed that the directors faced the challenge of teacher unwillingness to teach at NFE as recorded by 17 directors (63.0%) and poor salaries. Teacher turnover was reported as high in all the centres as indicated by 20 directors or 71.4%. This was mostly due to poor salaries they were paid at the NFE centre. Nationally, lack of training was the major challenge that faced teachers in teaching NFE as was recorded by 24 directors (88.9%). Data further revealed that most of the teachers in the NFE had not been in-serviced on the NFBE curriculum.

Findings also revealed that most of the teachers partially used the NFBE curriculum as shown by 57 (81.4%). However, majority of the teachers 74 (100%) had not been in-serviced in the use of the curriculum. Data on the attitude of the teachers towards the NFE curriculum revealed that teachers were positive towards the NFE curriculum. This was indicated by a coefficient of 4.0 or an equivalent of 73% teachers who were positive towards the NFE curriculum. Regression of teacher characteristics and completion rates revealed that there was a significant relationship between gender ($p = 0.01$), age ($p = 0.03$) and duration at the centre ($p = 0.02$) and completion rates.
The second research objective aimed at establishing how adequacy of resources at the NFECs influenced the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum at the NFE centres in Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa cities, Kenya. Findings indicated that most of the centres did not have facilities for technical subjects, for example only 1 (1.3%) had agricultural land, 2 (5%) had agricultural equipment, 5 (6.3%) had Art and Craft tools, 6 (7.5%) had woodwork tools, 6 (7.5%) had welding and fabrication equipment and only 1 (1.3%) centre had a motor vehicle workshop. Majority of teachers 49 (63.6%) did not receive teaching and learning resources when they required them. Across the cities, Kisumu recorded the highest in unavailability of resources at 82.4%, while Nairobi and Kisumu recorded 67.6% and 56.5% respectively.

The findings implied that the centres could not implement the curriculum without the necessary teaching learning resources. The teaching and learning materials and resources in the centres were also deemed as inappropriate. For example, of 22 (73.3%) of the available classroom roofing only 15 (68.18%) were appropriate. Only 1 (3.33%) of the agriculture land, welding and fabrication room and motor vehicle mechanic that were available were appropriate. Data further showed that 2 (66.6%) of the Art and craft rooms were available and all were deemed appropriate. Only 5 (16.6%) garment making rooms were available and appropriate. In general the directors were of the opinion that their centres did not have the required resources and materials which affected curriculum implementation. Regression analysis of availability of resources and completion
rates revealed that there was a significant relationship between availability of facilities and completion rates ($p = -0.44931$).

Research Objective Three was to assess the appropriateness of the instructional methods employed by teachers, influence the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum at the NFE centres in Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa cities, Kenya. Data for this research objective was gathered by filling in the lesson observation schedule. The Binary Logistic Regression Model was used against completion rates. To perform regression analysis for the lesson observation variables, the researcher selected ‘schemes of work’ variables as the predictor variable. The R value was .182 which implied that schemes of work had a positive slope though close to 0.

Research Objective Four aimed at determining how learner characteristics influenced curriculum implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum at the non-formal education (NFE) centres in Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya. Findings indicated that most of the learners at the centres were those that had dropped out of schools, apart from Mombasa where majority 4 directors (57.1%) reported that learners had never been to school. Across the three cities, Nairobi recorded the highest number of children who had dropped out of formal schools at 75.7% while Mombasa recorded the highest number of learners that had never been to school (54.6%). This finding affirmed
the characteristics of the NFE that takes on board learners who have either
dropped out of school, or have, due to various reasons, never been to school.

These findings were confirmed through the focus group discussions with learners
who gave many reasons for not having been to schools, which included: being at
home, having dropped out of the formal schools after their parents’ inability of
pay school fees, others had been working as domestic workers, herding animals,
or had never been to schools since they viewed themselves as too old to join
formal public schools. There were cases of learners who had previously been on
the streets. Data indicated that cases of drop out from the NFE centres were high
as shown by 52 (71.2%) with Nairobi recording the highest rate of learner drop
out at 32 (86.5%).

The major reason for dropping out included but not limited to involvement in
business activities and truancy. These reasons were common in the three urban
centres. Findings also revealed that there were exceptions for some learners to
select some subjects and not others as recorded by 19 (67.9%) of them. Kisumu
had the highest number of learner exceptions at 90.9% followed by Nairobi at
72.3% while Mombasa had least at 16.7%. Findings on the teachers’ responses on
learners’ attitude indicated that majority of them felt that the learners were
positive about the NFE as indicated by 59 (76.6%). Learners were also willing to
learn at the centre as recorded by 69 (92%) of the teachers. Class participation
was recorded as high by 91.9% of the teachers.
Regression analysis of teachers’ rating of learners’ attitude towards NFE, pupils’ willingness to learn, learner absenteeism, percentage of pupils absent from school and reasons for absenteeism learner participation were all statistically significant since they had a $p$ value lesser than 0.05. This implied the regression model definitively determined a relationship between the completion rate and the said variables.

Research Objective Five aimed at establishing how community characteristics influenced the implementation of the Non-formal basic education curriculum at the non-formal education (NFE) centres in Kisumu, Nairobi and Mombasa cities, Kenya. The findings indicated that the community participated in volunteer work and provision of food as indicated by 11 directors (42.3%) and 7 directors (26.9%) respectively. It was also revealed that the community around the centre approved of the curriculum as indicated by 62 (86.1%) with majority of the teachers 61 (83.6%) indicating that the community felt that the curriculum was appropriate for the learners. The community also provided the facilities and resources to the NFE centres. These responses were confirmed by the focus group discussion with the community members who reported such involvement in the running of the NFE centres. Teachers’ response to community perception of NFE revealed a $p$ value of 0.0105 which was lesser than 0.05 hence it was concluded that community perception had a relationship with completion rates characterised by a coefficient of 0.108541 with a standard error of 0.050017.
Multiple regression analysis for the teacher and director variables revealed that all teacher variables had strong correlations with completion rates. The model can be used to perform future predictions of completion rates of learners at the NFE centres. All director variables had strong correlations and the model can be used to perform future predictions of completion rates of learners at the NFE centres. For lesson observation, the variable could not be conclusively used to perform future observations.

5.3 Conclusions

Findings from the research objective one showed that all the centres had adequate teachers, however they were not trained. The NFE could pick on anybody to teach in the centres provided one had a Class 8 certificate. For any successful implementation of a curriculum, professional qualification is important hence it was concluded that inadequate teacher qualification was a hindrance to effective curriculum implementation. Teachers had not been in-serviced in the use of the curriculum. This resulted to teachers not implementing the recommend NFBE curriculum. Analysis further revealed that it was difficult to find teachers to teach in the NFE centres. The centres faced high turnover, teachers were also unwilling to teach in the NFE centres. The study therefore concluded that inability to get trained teachers was a hindrance to effective curriculum implementation.

Analysis of the second research objective revealed that most of the centres did not have the resources and facilities required for learning at the NFE centres.
Specifically, the centres lacked resources that were meant to facilitate the teaching of technical subjects. It was also revealed that the facilities that were available at the centres were not usable. This was therefore a major hindrance to curriculum implementation. For any effective implementation, facilities and resources are of great importance. The curriculum especially for the technical subjects requires that centres are well equipped with the facilities such as technical rooms and tools for specific subjects. Lack of such facilities and resources resulted to centres opting to concentrate on academic subjects, leaving out the technical area and hence hindering full implementation of the curriculum. The study therefore concluded that inadequacy and inappropriateness of resources and materials hindered the curriculum implementation.

Analysis of Research Objective Three revealed that teachers used different methods of teaching which were not appropriate. For example, most teachers used question and answer methods and lecturer method which were deemed inappropriate for the lessons that were observed. The study concluded that inability for teachers to use the appropriate methods of teaching was as a result of lack of professional qualifications and also lack of in-servicing. The study therefore concluded that inappropriate instructional methods were a hindrance to curriculum implementation. The use of schemes of work by the teachers had a positive influence on completion rates, according to the data collected. The study therefore concluded that this could as a result of inadequate professional
training making teachers unable to prepare and to use schemes of work hence, affecting curriculum implementation.

Findings of the fourth research objective indicated that most of the learners in the centres were those that had dropped out of schools and those that had never been to school. Some of the learner characteristics that affected curriculum implementation were dropping out and truancy which affected the implementation of curriculum. Some positive aspects that may be deemed to facilitate curriculum implementation included learners’ positive attitude towards the centre and high class participation. The study therefore concluded that although there were some factors that negatively affected curriculum implementation, there were also positive aspects that facilitated curriculum implementation. The model summary showed that learners positive attitude towards the NFE had a linear relationship with completion rates at the NFE. It was therefore concluded that learner attitude should be enhanced for effective curriculum implementation.

Findings from the fifth research objective showed that the community participated in the running of the NFE in various ways which included volunteer work, provision of food and provision of facilities. The community members had a positive attitude towards the curriculum and felt that it was appropriate for the learners. The study concluded that community participation in the running of the NFE had a positive contribution to effective curriculum implementation.
Regression analysis for the teacher and director variables revealed that all teacher variables had strong correlations and the model can be used to perform future predictions of completion rates of learners at the NFE centres. All selected director variables had strong correlations and the model can be used to perform future predictions of completion rates of learners at the NFE centres. For lesson observation the variable cannot be conclusively used to perform future observations, further study needs to be carried out to capture more details for schemes of work in relation to completion rates.

5.4 Recommendations

The following were the recommendations based on the findings and conclusions of the study

i. The study recommends that KIE which developed the curriculum should set minimum qualifications for teachers supposed to teach and the NFE centres. Since NFE has been recognized as a viable means of reaching the out of school the government should put in place specialised institutions for training teachers meant to implement the curriculum.

ii. The study has established that inadequate resources and materials at the NFE hindered curriculum implementation. The study recommends that the government and other stakeholders such as the community, NGOs and well wishers should come up with ways of providing such facilities. The
government should have a clear policy on financing NFE centres for example, payment of teachers so as to minimise teacher turnover.

iii. The study has also established that poor teaching methodologies were a hindrance to effective curriculum implementation. It is therefore recommended that KIE should organize workshops or seminars to empower teachers in a way that they are able to use the NFE curriculum.

iv. The study has also revealed that learner characteristics such as absenteeism and truancy were a hindrance to curriculum implementation. It is therefore recommended that the community and centre organizers provide a conducive learning atmosphere that will deter absenteeism and truancy. The centre could, for example, be organized in such a way that those who have to work as they learn have a flexible time schedule as that is one of the characteristics of NFE. There should also be provision for learners of different ages.

v. The study has revealed that the community had a positive contribution towards NFE curriculum implementation. The study recommends that the community should be encouraged to participate more in the running of the centres. For example, organizations working with NFE can organize capacity building seminars and workshops to create awareness among the community members on their role in centres.
5.5 Suggestions for further research

i. The research has established that some selected variables had a relationship with completion rates of the learners at the NFE centres. A further study should be conducted to establish how other teachers’ variable related to completion rates of the learners.

ii. The study did not develop a model for learner factors and how they influence curriculum implementation. A study on how selected learner factors influence completion rates should be conducted to provide future prediction on what is needed to be done by the learners for effective curriculum implementation.

iii. A study on how NFE director characteristics affect curriculum implementation should be conducted to provide models which would predict what the directors ought to do to effectively implement NFE curriculum.

iv. Considering that this study was conducted in urban areas, a similar study should be conducted in rural areas to establish what factors influence curriculum implementation in the rural areas.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

University of Nairobi,
School of Education,
Department of Educational Administration and Planning,
P.O. Box 30197,
Nairobi.
10th December, 2011

The Director,
_______________NFE centre,

Dear Sir/Madam

Re: Factors influencing implementation of Non-formal basic education curriculum in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu cities

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a post-graduate student pursuing a PhD degree in curriculum studies at the University of Nairobi. I am conducting research on Factors Influencing Implementation of Non-formal Basic Education Curriculum in Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu Cities, Kenya. Your centre has been selected for the study. I am kindly requesting your assistance in collection of data for the purpose of this study.

____________________________
Gathumbi Anthony Mungai
APPENDIX II

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DIRECTORS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on the Evaluation of the Implementation of Non Formal Basic Education Curriculum in urban centres of Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu. You are asked to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. The researcher would like to assure you that your identity will be confidential.

Section A: Personal information  (Tick Appropriately)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Length of teaching (years)</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Duration of teaching in the centre (years)</th>
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</thead>
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<td>□ Below 5</td>
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<td>□ NFE</td>
<td>□ Below 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>□ 5-10</td>
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<td>□ 16-20</td>
<td>□ Divorced</td>
<td>□ Technical</td>
<td>□ 16-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ 51-60</td>
<td>□ 21-25</td>
<td>□ Separated</td>
<td>□ Higher Diploma</td>
<td>□ 21-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ 26 &amp; above</td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>□ 26 &amp; above</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Masters</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Others (Specify)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section B: Centre characteristics

1. What is the name of your centre? _________________________________

2. When was the centre established? _________________________________

3. For what reasons was the centre established?
4. In which category or ownership is your institution?

- Individual [ ]
- Religious organisation [ ] Specify ____________________
- NGO [ ] Specify ____________________
- Community [ ]
- Individual and community [ ]
- Others, specify ______________________________________

5. Apart from education, what other services does your centre offer?

- Shelter [ ] Food provision [ ]
- Health services [ ] Counselling [ ]
- Rehabilitation [ ] Protection [ ]
- Others, specify ______________________________________

Section C: Influence of teacher factors on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

6. How many teachers do you have in your centre, their qualifications and terms of service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Full time</th>
<th>Part time</th>
<th>Volunteer</th>
<th>Temporary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class 8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school drop out</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form Four</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. (a) Are the teachers adequate for the learners you have?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

(b) On average what is the pupil-teacher ratio in your centre? ______

8. a) Are there specific qualifications that you consider when sourcing for teachers?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes, what qualifications ______________________________

9. What is the minimum qualification that is required for one to teach at the centre?

Class 8 [ ] Form Four [ ]
Certificate [ ] Others, specify __________

10. a) Do you find challenges getting teachers for your centre?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes, what are some of the challenges?

Unwilling to teach at the NFE centres [ ]
Poor salaries [ ]
Lack of proper training [ ]
Negative attitude towards NFE [ ]

Others, specify ______________________________

11. Who pays the salaries of teachers?

Institution [ ] Donors [ ]
Well wishers [ ] Others, specify __________

12. (a) What would you comment on the teacher turn over in your centre?
Very high [   ]    High   [   ]    Low   [   ]    Very low [   ]

(b) What are some reasons for teacher turn over?

- Poor salary [   ]
- Search for greener pastures [   ]
- Challenges due to curriculum content [   ]
- Challenges in class control [   ]

Others, specify_______________________________________________

13. (a) Are your teachers inducted into the teaching of the NFE curriculum?

Yes [   ]    No [   ]

14. (b) If who inducts them? ________________________________

c) How are they inducted? ________________________________

15. What challenges do your teachers face in teaching the NFE learners

- Lack of training in NFE curriculum [   ]
- Inability to handle NFE learners [   ]
- Inability to translate the curriculum content [   ]

Others, specify_____________________________________________

Section D: Influence of materials and resources on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

16. Who provides for the teaching and learning materials for your centre?

____________________________________________________

17. a) Do you have the required teaching and learning materials in your centre?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If no, what measures do you take to ensure that teaching and learning goes on? ____________________________________________

18. What challenges do you face in terms of accessing the teaching/learning materials? ____________________________________________

19. a) Do you have appropriate teaching/learning resources for the academic subjects?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If no, what measures do you take? __________________________

a) Do you have appropriate teaching/learning resources for the technical subjects?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If no, what measures do you take? __________________________

Section E: Influence of learner characteristics on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

20. Tick the category of your learners in the following characteristics

Learners who have dropped out of school [ ]

Learners who have never been to school [ ]

Learners who cannot fit in the formal school [ ]

Learners with special needs (e.g. street children) [ ]

21. a) Are learners interested in the NFE?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) Please explain ____________________________________________

(a) Do you have learners who drop out of the centre?
Yes [ ]  No [ ]

b) If yes, what are the reasons for dropping out? ____________________________

Are there exceptions for some learners to take some subjects and not others?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]

b) Please explain your answer ____________________________

Section F: Influence of community factors on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

22. What is the role of the community in facilitating learning at the centre?

____________________________________________________________

(a) Does the community support the centre?

Yes [ ]  No [ ]

b) If yes, in what ways does the community support?

Provision of food [ ]

Provision of teaching facilities [ ]

Provision of counselling services [ ]

Provision of teaching learning/resources [ ]

Volunteer work [ ]

Any other, specify ____________________________

23. What challenges do you face from the community that affect teaching and learning in your centre?

____________________________________________________________

24. What would you suggest as solution to above mentioned challenges?
25. What suggestions would you make for effective implementation of NFE basic education curriculum?

End

Thank you for your co-operation
APPENDIX III

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TEACHERS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on the implementation of Non Formal Basic Education Curriculum in urban centres of Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu. You are asked to participate in the study by filling in this questionnaire. The researcher would like to assure you that your identity will be treated confidentially.

Thank you!

Section A: Personal Information (Tick Appropriately)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Highest level of Education</th>
<th>Length of Service at the centre</th>
<th>Duration in the centre (Years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ Male</td>
<td>□ 25 &amp; Below</td>
<td>□ Single</td>
<td>□ NFE</td>
<td>□ Below 5 yrs</td>
<td>□ Below 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Female</td>
<td>□ 26-30</td>
<td>□ Married</td>
<td>□ PI Certificate</td>
<td>□ 5-10 yrs</td>
<td>□ 5-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ 31-40</td>
<td>□ Widowed</td>
<td>□ Diploma</td>
<td>□ 11-15 yrs</td>
<td>□ 11-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ 41-50</td>
<td>□ Divorced</td>
<td>□ Technical education</td>
<td>□ 16-20 yrs</td>
<td>□ 16-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>□ 51-60</td>
<td>□ Separated</td>
<td>□ Higher Diploma</td>
<td>□ 21-25 yrs</td>
<td>□ 21-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>□ 26 yrs &amp; above</td>
<td>□ 26 &amp; above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>□ Others (Specify)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section B: Information about the centre

1. When was it established? __________________________

2. Who established the centre?
   Community [    ]
   NGO [    ] Specify __________________________
   Religious institution [    ] Specify __________________________
3. Who runs the centre?
Community [ ] NGO [ ]
Religious institution [ ] Individual [ ]
Others (specify) ________________________________

4. How many learners do you have in the following age bracket?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age bracket in years</th>
<th>Number of learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- 15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21- 25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section C: Influence of teacher characteristics on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

5. What is your professional qualification?
Teacher [ ] Social workers [ ]
Any other, Specify_________________________

6. (a) Are you a trained teacher?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

(b) Have you received any in-service training on NFE curriculum?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

b) If yes, who provided the in-service training?
KIE [ ] NGO [ ]
Others, specify ________________________________
c) Do you think the in-service that you received adequately prepared you in the use of the NFE basic education syllabus?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

7. Do you use the NFE basic education syllabus in your centre?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

8. Have you received in-service training from the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) on the syllabus use?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

9. Do you teach technical or academic subjects?
   Technical subjects [ ] Academic subjects [ ]
   Both [ ]

10. Are you trained in academic/technical subjects that you teach?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. Are you trained in the technical subjects that you teach?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. Do you feel comfortable in teaching the subjects in the syllabus?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]

13. a) Do you face challenges in teaching the subjects in the syllabus?
    Yes [ ] No [ ]
    b) If yes, what are some of the challenges that you face?
        Lack of training in the subjects [ ]
        Lack of teaching learning-materials [ ]
        Entry behaviour of the learners [ ]
        Inability in handling the learners [ ]
        Any other, Specify ____________________________

Section D: Influence of adequacy and appropriateness of teaching learning resources on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

14. Who provides the teaching and learning resources for your centre?
    Community [ ] Parents [ ]
15. Are the teaching-learning resources in your centre enough for the teachers and the learners?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

16. To what extent do you have the following materials in your centre? (Tick as appropriate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material and resource</th>
<th>Available</th>
<th>Not available</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Not adequate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFE basic education syllabus</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ guide</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School time table</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ text books / writing slates</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boards and chalk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pens/pencils</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupils’ exercise books</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall charts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wall maps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desks/chairs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art and craft tools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodwork tools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding and Fabrication equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garment making tools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle mechanics equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home science equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
17. a) Do you receive the necessary teaching/learning resources when you need them?
Yes [ ] No [ ]
b) If no, what measures to you take so that learning is not hampered?

Section E: Influence of learner characteristics on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

18. Indicate with a tick (✓) if you have learners with the following characteristics
   a. Learners who dropped out of formal school [ ]
   b. Learners who have never been to school [ ]
   c. Learners who were formally from NFE centres [ ]

19. How do you rate the attitude of the learners toward the NFE centre?
   Positive [ ] Negative [ ] Neutral [ ]

20. Are learners willing to learn at the centres?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

21. a) Do you have cases of absenteeism among learners?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
b) If yes, what is the average percentage of learners who are absent in a day?
   Between 1 – 25 % [ ] Between 26 – 50 % [ ]
   Between 51 – 75 % [ ] Over 75 % [ ]
c) If yes, what reasons among those stated below contribute to absenteeism?
   Disinterest in education [ ] Truancy [ ]
   Working to earn a living [ ]
   Others, specify _____________________________
22. (a) Do the learners fully participate during the lessons?
   Yes [   ]  No [   ]

   (b) If yes, how do you rate their involvement?
   Very actively involved [   ]
   Somehow involved [   ]
   Not involved at all [   ]

23. (a) Do you have cases of drop out of the learners?
   Yes [   ]  No [   ]

   (b) If yes, how would you rate the drop out?
   Very high [   ]  Moderately high [   ]
   Low [   ]  Very low [   ]

   (c) What are some of the reasons for dropping out?
   Disinterest in education [   ]
   Involvement in business activities [   ]
   Truancy [   ]
   Working to earn a living [   ]
   Others specify __________________________

24. Do you have learners who drop out and come back?
   Yes [   ]  No [   ]

25. a) Do learners choose what to learn and what not to learn?
   Yes [   ]  No [   ]

   (b) If yes, what makes them have such choices?
   Individual interests [   ]  Age [   ]
   Education background [   ]  Gender [   ]

26. The following section seeks your opinion on the implementation of NFBE curriculum. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements
### Key

SA = Strongly agree  
A = Agree  
U = Undecided  
D = Disagree  
SD = Strongly disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum is of lower quality than the formal curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum does not address the needs of the learners</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The curriculum has no difference with the formal one in terms of content</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The lifestyle of the learners hinder curriculum implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lack of training affects the NFE curriculum implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The learners appreciate the NFE curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum was implemented without prior preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teachers at the NFE centres are able to fully implement the curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum should be rolled out to other towns to cater for learners who require NFE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teachers at the centres were involved in the NFE curriculum development</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Most learners feel the NFE curriculum is helpful to them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The NFE curriculum has enabled learners join the formal schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It is difficult to teach all the subjects as stipulated in the syllabus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The community around the centre supports the NFE centre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Lack of teaching materials hinder the curriculum implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The community fully supports the NFE centres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The mode of learning in levels is not realistic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Most of the learners are able to join the formal system after completion at the NFE centres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The curriculum content should be redesigned to fit the learners needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The community around does not support the NFE curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section G: Influence of the community characteristics on NFE basic education curriculum implementation

27. How does the community perceive the education offered at the centre?
   Very helpful [ ] Helpful [ ]
   Not helpful [ ]

28. Does the community around the centre approve the NFE curriculum?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

29. a) As a teacher at the NFE centre, do you think the NFE curriculum is appropriate for the kind of the learners you have?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b) Please explain your answer ________________________________

30. Does the community provide the necessary facilities and resources to the centres?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

31. What challenges do you face in the implementation of NFE Basic Education Curriculum? ________________________________

32. What would you recommend to the following stakeholders in order to facilitate NFE basic education curriculum implementation?
   Government ________________________________
   Ministry of Education ________________________________
   Community ________________________________
   Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) ________________________________

32. What suggestions would you recommend for effective NFE Basic education curriculum implementation?
   ________________________________

End

Thank you for your co-operation
APPENDIX IV
FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR LEARNERS

The following semi-structured questions constitute the items in the focus group discussion with the learners at the NFE centres

Name of the centre ____________________________________________

Town _________________________________________________________

Number of discussants  Male ______________________
                       Female_______________

Name of recorder ______________________________________________

1) Why did you join the centre (probe for reasons for joining NFE)
2) Where were you before you joined the centre (previous schooling?)
3) Do you like what you are taught here? (probe for relevance NFE)
4) What subjects do you like most? (probe for interest in curriculum content)
5) Do you like your teachers? (probe for ways that teachers handle them)
6) Are you provided with the materials you need for learning? (probe for availability of T/L materials)
7) Why are you not in the formal schools (probe for reasons for NFE)
8) What things don’t you like in your centre? (probe for challenges in the centre)
9) Do you think what you learn will be helpful for you in the future? (probe for future expectations)
10) How do you apply what you learn in the day to day life? (probe for use of the skills and knowledge acquired)
11) What do you think should be done to make you learn better? (suggestions for effective implementation)
## APPENDIX V

### OBSERVATION CHECKLIST FOR MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

| Name of centre | ____________________________ |
| Date of establishment | ____________________________ |
| Service provider | ____________________________ |
| Number of teachers | ____________________________ |
| Number of learners | ____________________________ |

Available = A; Not available = NA; Adequate = AD; Not adequate = NAD; Not appropriate = NP; appropriate = AP. These will apply only where it is appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material/facilities</th>
<th>AVAILABILITY</th>
<th>APPROPRIATENESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom roofing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom floor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom location</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom lighting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom floor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom ventilation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom doors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom windows</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Facilities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desks/chairs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration block</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staffroom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Playing ground</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art and craft room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodwork room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding and fabrication room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garment making room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor vehicle mechanics room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home science room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX VI

### LESSON OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the centre</th>
<th>________________________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Town</td>
<td>________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson observed</td>
<td>________________________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of the lesson</td>
<td>________________________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Is there a scheme of work

- Yes [ ]
- No [ ]

1= Unsatisfactory, 2=Satisfactory, 3= good, 4=Very good 5 = excellent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SN</th>
<th>Lesson development</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sequence of lessons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Range of teaching and learning activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Instructional materials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Assessment of learning outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Instructional methods employed**

The researcher will observe the teaching method applied and record in the table below using the following key:

Appropriate = A  Not appropriate = NA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching method employed</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Lecturer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Group discussion and presentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Individual presentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Role play</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Question and answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX VII

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS GUIDE

Name of the centre ____________________  Town __________________

Year of establishment of the centre ____________________________

Number of learners at the inception of the programme

Male ________________  Female ________________

Number of learners who completed the programme since its inception

Male ________________  Female ________________

Number of learners who have dropped out since its inception _____________

Number of learners who transited to formal education since its inception

Male ________________  Female ________________

Number or learners who established businesses using skills they acquired from the centre

Male ________________  Female ________________

Types of businesses that that learners who have graduated from the centres are involved in

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

The researcher will record any other relevant information gathered related to study

________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX VIII

LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegram: "SCINCETECH", Nairobi
Telephone: 354-020-241349, 2213102
254-020-310571, 3213122
Fax: 254-020-312213, 318245, 318249
When replying please quote

Our Ref: NCST/RRI/12/1/SS-011/865/4

7th July, 2011

Anthony Mungai Gathumbi
University of Nairobi
P. O. Box 30197
NAIROBI

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on
“Evaluation of the implementation of non-formal basic education
curriculum at the non-formal education centres in Nairobi, Mombasa
& Kisumu, Kenya” I am pleased to inform you that you have been
authorized to undertake research in Nairobi, Mombasa & Kisumu for a
period ending 31st August, 2012.

You are advised to report to the Director(s) of the selected Non-Formal
Education Centres before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit one hard
copy and one soft copy of the research report/thesis to our office.

Said Hussein
For: Secretary/CEO

Copy to:

The Director(s)
Selected Non-Formal Education Centres in Nairobi, Mombasa & Kisumu
APPENDIX IX

RESEARCH PERMIT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Anthony Mungai Gathumbi
of (Address) University of Nairobi
P.O BOX 30197, Nairobi
has been permitted to conduct research in
Location
All Nairobi, Mombasa & Kisumu
District
Province
on the topic: Evaluation of the implementation of non-formal basic education curriculum at the non-formal education centers in the above Provinces.

for a period ending 31st August, 2012

Applicant’s Signature

Secretary
National Council for Science and Technology