

**FACTORS INFLUENCING DEMAND FOR HIGHER EDUCATION
OPPORTUNITIES BY PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS: A CASE OF MATINYANI
DISTRICT, KITUI COUNTY.**

BY

JOHN KASEE MUTHUI

**A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF ART DEGREE IN PROJECT PLANNING AND
MANAGEMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.**

2013

DECLARATION

This research Project report is my original work and has not been submitted or presented for examination in any other university, either in part or as a whole.

Signature.....

Date.....

JOHN KASEE MUTHUI

REG. NO. : L50/74982/2012

APPROVAL

This research Project report has been submitted with my approval as university supervisor.

Signature.....

Date.....

DR. JOASH MIGOSI

DEPARTMENT OF EXTRA-MURAL STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my loving wife Alice and our children for their support and encouragement during my studies. Also my dad and mum for their great role in taking me to school, a journey that has been long but great because they begun it.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am ever grateful to the almighty God for giving me the grace and health to do the work I did. Secondly, I sincerely appreciate my supervisor Dr. Joash Migosi for his unwavering support, understanding and valuable guidance through all the steps of this proposal work. The proposal was successfully completed through his patient scholarly advice and guidance.

I would like to thank the University of Nairobi for availing the precious chance to pursue my Master of Arts course in Project planning and management. It was such an experience.

I further appreciate my head teacher who always understood and allowed me to reschedule some classes so as to do exams or CATS. To my classmates and colleagues at work place for the moral support they gave me, I am so grateful.

I wish to appreciate Mr. Festus Malombe who offered close and invaluable consultation throughout the proposal development.

Finally I wish to acknowledge all those put their incredible contributions to this project proposal work.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of tables.....	ix
List of figures	xi
Abbreviations and acronyms.....	xii
Abstract.....	xiii.

Error! Bookmark not defined.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	5
1.3 Purpose of the study.....	6
1.4 Objectives of the study.....	6
1.5 Hypothesis of the study.....	7
1.6 Significance of the study.....	8
1.7 Delimitations of the study	8
1.8 Limitations of the study.....	9
1.9 Assumptions of the study.....	9

1.10 Definition of the significant terms.....	10
1.11 Organization of the study.....	10
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE.....	12
2.1 Introduction.....	12
2.2 Individual factors' influence on demand for higher education.....	12
2.3 Influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education.....	13
2.4 Influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education.....	18
2.5 Influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education.....	21
2.6 Conceptual framework.....	23
Independent variables.....	23
2.7 Theoretical framework.....	25
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	27
3.1 Introduction.....	27
3.2 Research design.....	27
3.3 Target Population.....	27
3.4 Sample size and sampling procedure.....	28
3.5 Sampling.....	28
3.5 Research instruments.....	29
3.6 Validity of the instruments.....	29
3.7 Reliability of instruments.....	29
3.8 Data analysis plan.....	31

3.9 Ethical Issues.....	31
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION...	34
4.1 Introduction.....	34
4.2 Questionnaire return rate.....	34
4.3 Demographic characteristics of the respondents.....	34
4.1 Individual factors influence on demand for higher education by primary school teachers.....	38
4.4.1 The relationship between job group and education level.....	38
4.4.2 Period in education sector.....	39
4.4.3 Decision to join college.....	39
4.4.4 Higher education; childhood dream.....	40
4.4.5 Personal Experiences influencing demand for higher education.....	41
4.5 Influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.....	45
4.5.2 Motivators to join higher education.....	47
4.5.5 Influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.....	50
4.6 Influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.....	54
CHAPTER FIVE SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION RECOMMENDATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES.....	62

5.1 Introduction.....	62
5.2 Summary of the findings.....	62
5.3 Conclusions of the study.....	63
5.4 Suggestions for further studies.....	65
REFERENCES.....	66
APPENDICES.....	76
APPENDIX I: Transmittal letter.....	76
APPENDIX II: Questionnaire for Head teachers.....	77
APPENDIX III: Questionnaire guide for head teachers.....	85

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Distribution of respondents by position in institution.....	24
Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents by Gender.....	24
Table 4.3 Distribution of respondents by Age bracket.....	24
Table 4.4 Distribution of respondents by marital status.....	25
Table 4.5 Distribution of respondents by Academic qualifications.....	25
Table 4.6 Distribution of respondents by Highest Professional Qualification.....	25
Table 4.7 Distribution of respondents by Current job group.....	26
Table 4.8 Distribution of respondents by Relation of Job Group to Education level.....	26
Table 4.9 Distribution of respondents by period in Education sector.....	27
Table 4.10 Distribution of respondents by individual decision to join college.....	27
Table 4.11 Distribution of respondents by Higher education as a childhood dream.....	27
Table 4.12 Distribution of respondents by experiences motivated to join higher education ...	28
Table 4.13 Distribution of respondents by self efficacy as a reason for joining higher education.....	29
Table 4.14 Responses on expected benefits as a reason for joining higher education.....	29
Table 4.15 Responses on whether prestige is a reason for joining higher education.....	29
Table 4.16 Responses on personal aspirations influence on joining higher education.....	30
Table 4.17 Responses on personal challenges that made teachers join higher education.....	31
Table 4.18 Responses on peers influence on joining higher education.....	31
Table 4.19 Responses on whether family influenced the decision for joining higher education.....	32
Table 4.20 Responses on Secondary school influence on decision to join higher education...	32
Table 4.21 Responses on family influence on the decision to join higher education.....	33

Table 4.22 Responses on whether official acquaintances influenced decision to higher education.....	34
Table 4.23 Responses on whether informal encouragement influenced decision for joining higher education.....	29
Table 4.24 Responses on influence of former college mates on the decision to join higher education.....	35
Table 4.25 Responses on the role of Socio-economic class on joining higher education.....	36
Table 4.26 Responses on the role of Relative functionalism on joining higher education.....	37
Table 4.27 Responses on the role of hope to get better pay on joining higher education.....	37
Table 4.28 Responses on the role of Socio-economic class on joining higher education.....	37
Table 4.29 Responses on whether the prospects to get promoted influenced joining higher education.....	37
Table 4.30 Responses on whether prestige influenced joining higher education.....	38
Table 4.25 Responses on whether availability of institutions determined demand for higher education.....	39
Table 4.25 Responses on whether Government control determined demand for higher education.....	40
Table 4.25 Responses on whether suitable academic programs determined demand for higher education.....	41

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Conceptualization of the Relationship between personal, economic, institutional and expectation factors that influence pursuit of higher education

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CHE	-	Commission for Higher Education
EFA	-	Education for All
GOK	-	Government of Kenya
KIE	-	Kenya Institute of Education
MOE	-	Ministry of Education
MOEHD	-	Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development
MOEST	-	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NGO	-	Non- Governmental Organization
PDE	-	Provincial Director of Education
TIQET	-	Total Integrated Quality Education and Training
TSC	-	Teachers Service Commission
UPE	-	Universal Primary Education
UNESCO	-	United Nations Education Scientific and cultural Organization

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district in Kitui County. Literature was reviewed according to research hypothesis on relationships between individual factors, reference groups, financial considerations and institutional factors and demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district. The research adopted descriptive survey design. Questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect data. Data was analysed by SPSS (chi-square). Most respondents were of the opinion that the said factors are significant influence on demand for higher education by primary school teachers. However the results of the tests were not significant. The study discussed the findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggested areas of further studies.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The majority of developed countries have experienced a process of growth in higher education demand, and in recent years a myriad of studies have emerged in economic literature to analyze the factors that play into this phenomenon. Viewing the results of those studies, there are two basic factors affecting demand including the income and employment expectations that each level of education has to offer, and the family background characteristics of each potential student.

In USA, Education at all levels and institutions, including the training functions of most corporations and government agencies, are facing unprecedented challenges in huge proportions as the 21st century unfolds. At the turn of the century, major international organizations, such as World Bank (2002) reported that the main source of this challenge is a worldwide shift of “emphasis” and center of economic activity from capital, labor and means of production as the primary factors in economic growth and development to knowledge-based problem solving in a high-technology environment made of computers and telecommunication networks. In the industrial economy of the 20th century a high school degree was sufficient to land on an entry level job in manufacturing or trades; a position that invariably evolved to a life-time career for most workers, often with the same company. Today, state governors, industry leaders, and educators agree that a secondary school diploma is not sufficient to thrive in the post-industrial economy of the United States. Manufacturing and trades positions also require some level of post high school study in science, technology, engineering or math; a group of disciplines referred to by the US Department of Education.

As a result, it is becoming obvious that individuals (and organizations) who are best able to leverage their knowledge advantage will increasingly account for a greater portion of total output. They also become the recipients of a consistently greater portion of relative earnings. In short, for developed economies, knowledge work –activities that involve complex problem identification, problem solution, or high-technology design that result in innovative new products and services or create new ways of exploiting markets – has quickly become the focus of economic growth and individual and organizational prosperity.

Since the early seventies, Spain has experienced a steady growth in the demand for higher education. Not only has this demand not been affected by economic cycles, but it does not seem to be slowing in the medium term. Higher education in Spain in the last eighteen years has been influenced by two previously mentioned groups of factors, family background and employment expectations; however, income expectations seem to play a key role. It should be noted that the educational decisions of young people determine labour supply qualifications in the medium and long term, and if the behavior of these young people and their families is very sensitive to market signals.

Further examination on the factors influencing the demand for higher education in Cyprus showed some of the factors that have an influence on the student intention to pursue higher education included reference groups (friends acquaintances), parents/relatives, financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry), the subjects / specialization selected at secondary school, the non-financial benefits of education (e.g. the betterment of the individual), secondary school teachers, secondary school career counsellors, grades and overall secondary school

performance, professional considerations (e.g. the ability to obtain employment faster), and personal considerations (desires, needs, plans etc.). (Jimenez & SalasVelasco, 2000).

Tertiary education has played a vital part in Korea's knowledge accumulation strategy. As far back as the 1950s, tertiary public education began to grow, with students responsible for tuition payments. In the 1960s, the government began to offer incentives for the expansion of private tertiary education. The 1970s and 1980s saw a focus on the promotion of science and engineering programs, while emphasis in the 1990s shifted to quality assurance, research and development, accountability, and performance-based funding. In 1999 the government adopted the "Brain Korea 21" project, an effort to channel research funds to a relatively narrow set of institutions and graduate students, in an attempt to create world-class research universities in Korea. Recent evidence suggests, however, that higher education can produce both public and private benefits. The private benefits for individuals are well established, and include better employment prospects, higher salaries, and a greater ability to save and invest. These benefits may result in better health and improved quality of life. Public channels, though less well studied, also exist. One possible channel through which higher education can enhance economic development is through technological catch-up. In knowledge economy, tertiary education can help economies gain ground on more technologically advanced societies, as graduates are likely to be more aware of and better able to use new technologies. Our analysis supports the idea that expanding tertiary education may promote faster technological catch-up and improve a country's ability to maximize its economic output. Education is widely accepted as a leading instrument for promoting economic growth for Africa.

Where growth is essential if the continent is to climb out of poverty, education is particularly important. For several decades, development agencies have placed great emphasis on primary

and, more recently, secondary education. But they have neglected tertiary education as a means to improve economic growth and mitigate poverty. The Dakar summit on “Education for All” in 2000, for example, advocated only for primary education as a driver of broad social welfare. It left tertiary education in the background.

Part of the reason for the inattention to higher education within development initiatives lies in the shortage of empirical evidence that it affects economic growth and poverty reduction.

After World War II, several economists, including Jacob Mincer, developed the “human capital” theory to examine the benefits of education for individuals and society. On the contrary, they hypothesized that higher education may promote “social unrest and political instability.”

The majority of children in sub-Saharan Africa do not make it to Universities. Analysis of Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) shows that two-thirds of all countries with University education GER of 40% and below are in Africa. Current statistics demonstrate that in SSA, only a small minority participates in and finishes secondary schooling.

Financing higher education is a great challenge to both governments and households. Higher education in most African countries tends to be the most neglected, receiving on average 15-20% of state resources. Household burden in financing secondary education is also high. In Kenya, whereas households meet only 20% of primary and 8% of university education costs, they shoulder 60% of secondary education costs. Thus, cost is a key barrier to transitioning to higher education for the poor, who form the majority in sub-Saharan Africa.

Perceptions of curricular inadequacies and low quality of higher education across many nations has given rise to apathy, school disaffection, and antisocial behavior on the part of students, often leading to low transition. Such students tend to focus on other forms of economic investments that are likely to give them and their families immediate economic returns.

The increase in the demand for higher education recorded in the second half of the twentieth century and the associated expansion of higher education systems have resulted in an interest in the study of factors influencing student demand for higher education.

The psychological/individual factor, the second occupational factor, and secondary school specialization were shown to have a significant effect on the intention to pursue third level education. Kenya is not an exception and it is against this background that this study will seek to establish the factors influencing the demand for higher education among primary school teachers in Matinyani District in Kitui County.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Over the last one decade, university enrolment in Kenya has experienced rapid expansion. Few studies have been done to establish the factors leading to this situation of university enrolment in Kenya. A number of recent studies have shown that conditions in the labour market for university graduates influence higher education enrolment. Specifically, an attempt is made to determine the extent to which factors like reference groups (friends, acquaintances), parents/relatives, financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry), the subjects / specialisation selected at secondary school, the non-financial benefits of education (e.g. the betterment of the individual), secondary school teachers, secondary school career counsellors, grades and overall secondary school performance, professional considerations (e.g. the ability to obtain employment faster), and personal considerations (desires, needs, plans etc.) influence demand for higher education.

The issue of those already employed seeking higher education has been given little attention. Further the factors influencing demand for higher education by teachers has scanty

information making it the quest for this study to establish. Issues like market signals (such as employment opportunities or wage expectations and sociological variables are found to be the ones determining education demand decisions, then the maladjustment between qualified labour demand and higher education demand would persist, and the adjustment in the long run would fall on the demand side and on the corresponding salaries. Based on the present relationship between qualifications and jobs, "over education" becomes an unavoidable evil (or a blessing) in the very near future.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District in Kitui County.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The following objectives guided this study:

- i. To determine the influence of individual factors on demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district.
- ii. To establish the influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district.
- iii. To evaluate the influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district
- iv. To establish the influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district.

1.5 Hypothesis of the study

The study was based on the following hypothesis:

Ho: There is no significant relationship between Individual factors like personal considerations (desires, needs, plans, the subjects specialization, gender and the betterment of the individual have demand for higher education

HI: There is a significant relationship between Individual factors like personal considerations (desires, needs, plans, the subjects specialization, gender and the betterment of the individual and demand for higher education

Ho: There is no significant relationship between reference groups (friends, acquaintances) and parents/relatives and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

HI: There is a significant relationship between Reference groups (friends, acquaintances) and parents/relatives and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

Ho: There is no significant relationship between financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry) and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers

HI: There is a significant relationship between financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry) and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers

Ho: There is no significant relationship between Institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers

HI: There is a significant relationship between Institutional factors and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study of these considerations can allow tertiary education institutions to form an understanding of student motivation and plan higher education programmes and offerings in a more informed manner.

Needs and Opportunities considered to be held by the students at the point of entry into higher education was exposed and therefore become a guide to the individuals seeking for higher education

Moreover, the results of the study can be used to identify opportunities for higher education institutions in that they can allow for the planning of programmes that meet student needs.

The study should be useful to secondary school teachers and counselors in supporting students' decision-making process as they investigate opportunities in higher education. The information will also be useful to higher education admissions personnel and college faculty in their efforts to better understand the influences that may impact students in their decision to attend college.

With educational initiatives now focused on developing higher educational aspirations for all students, it behooves teachers at all levels to be cognizant of the factors that influence students' educational goals.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

The study was designed to investigate factors influencing demand for higher education by teachers in both primary and secondary schools in Matinyani District, Kitui County which has relatively a high number of teachers who are either undertaking their higher education of they are already through.

It was limited to four variables that is; the individual factors like personal considerations (desires, needs, plans, the subjects / specialization, gender and the betterment of the

individual influence demand for higher education, the influence of reference groups (friends, acquaintances) and parents/relatives on the demand for higher education, the influence of financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry) and the influence of supply factors on the demand for higher education by teachers.

1.8 Limitations of the study

The study had afore seen but unavoidable challenge of getting responses those are socially correct to please the researcher. To counteract the effect from such responses a pilot pretest of the questionnaire was done to establish the validity and the reliability of the items.

The district is vast and has a very high population of teachers therefore the challenge of reaching the teachers in the remote areas.

1.9 Assumptions of the study

The following assumptions were made by the researcher in this study:

- i. Matinyani district has enough teachers undertaking or who have undertaken higher education required to make the number of respondents in this study.
- ii. The data collection methods were unbiased and the selected sample was a representative of the population.
- iii. The study will also assume that the respondents were cooperative and will give reliable responses.

1.10 Definition of the significant terms

Higher education-

Peers –Individuals of equal standing who spend time together during or after school, including close friendships, siblings, acquaintances, classmates, teammates, and neighborhood youths during the elementary and secondary grades and/or college

Financial Aid - Any form of formal financial support awarded to college students to help pay for tuition or living expenses, including student loans, grants, scholarships, or work-study programs

Post-Secondary Degree – An award conferred by a college or university as official recognition of successful completion of the requirements of a predetermined program of study

Relative Functionalism – A student’s perceived usefulness of a specific life choice, such as attaining a college education, compared with other available options

Target University – The University where the study is being conducted and where Students who completed the survey attended.

1.11 Organization of the study

This chapter introduces the factors that influence demand for higher education by giving a background on what it is and how it has evolved in the Kenyan and world situation. The chapter also gives the details of the problem addressed in the study, and the specific objectives that guided the study, the research questions, significance purpose, limitations and delimitation of the study, assumptions and definitions of significant terms.

Chapter two reviewed relevant literature to the study under sub themes like influence of individual factors on demand for higher education and finally influence of financial

considerations on demand for higher education, influence of institutional factors on demand for higher education

Chapter three consisted of the research design, target population, sampling procedures and sample size, research instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, ethical issues and Operationalization of the study variables.

Chapter four covered data presentation, analysis and interpretation on the research conducted to investigate the to establish the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District in Kitui County. It focused on the demographic information of the respondents, data presentations, interpretation and discussions of findings.

Finally chapter five consisted of the summary of the study, discussions of the study findings, conclusions of the study, recommendations of the study and suggestions for further studies

CHAPTER TWO:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The decision to attend higher education by teachers is a significant process influenced by numerous internal and external factors. As increasing numbers of teachers pursue higher education, many more first-generation students are making the commitment to attain both diploma and college degrees. While there are increasing numbers of teachers enrolling in higher education, there are both internal and external factors influence the decision-making process

2.2 Individual factors' influence on demand for higher education

Personal experiences, self efficacy, and beliefs about the benefits of college create a foundation from which students approach the college decision-making process. According to Bandura, (1977), Self-efficacy is viewed as the driving force of human behaviour. He defined self-efficacy as an individual's belief that they can exert control over their motivation and behaviour and over their social environment. Bandura (1977) believes that "verbal persuasion" (p. 202) can impact a person's self-efficacy based on how the person perceives the "credibility of the persuaders, their prestige, trustworthiness, expertise, and assuredness" (p. 202). The more the person believes in the veracity of the persuader, the more likely the person is to change their self-efficacy expectations (Bandura, 1977). (Bandura, 1977) observed that success in most areas of human endeavour including pursuit of higher education requires commitment, resourcefulness and perseverance. These are the qualities addressed by self-efficacy. People's confidence in their ability to overcome the difficulties that are inherent in achieving a behaviour are expressed in their assessment of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) observed that efficacy expectations are a major determinant of people's

choice of activities, how much effort they will expend and how long they will sustain effort in dealing with stressful situations.

Part of the reason for the inattention to higher education within development initiatives lies in the shortage of empirical evidence that it affects economic growth and poverty reduction. After World War II, several economists, including Jacob Mincer, developed the “human capital” theory to examine the benefits of education for individuals and society. Friedman and his wife Rose originally suggested that there was no evidence that “higher education yields ‘social benefits’ over and above the benefits that accrue to the students themselves.” On the contrary, they hypothesized that higher education may promote “social unrest and political instability.” In contrast to this early view, recent evidence suggests higher education is a determinant as well as a result of income, and can produce public and private benefits.

2.3 Influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education

Peer influence is dependent upon variables of friendship closeness, high school track placement, race, and gender composition of the relationship (Hallinan & Williams, 1990). Intuition reinforces the finding that peers who are academically-oriented are an asset to academic achievement in school and career aspirations (Garg, Melancson, & Levin, 1990). Not surprisingly, as students enter the college environment, “students who have best friends with relatively high levels of intellectual self-confidence tend to be more self-confident intellectually after two years of college compared to students with less confident friendship groups” (Antonio, 2004, p. 457).

Although young people are more vulnerable to the influence of close friends who share similar experiences and backgrounds (Hallinan & Williams, 1990, p. 130), teachers who are

adults are not spared by this policy. Friends admit to talking about future plans or sharing school-related information with peers (Gandara, 2001). Peer influence may be strong in many areas of life. Choy & Premo (1996) found that the strongest predictors of degree attainment (or remaining enrolled after four years) were: being female, having parents with a bachelor's degree or higher, receiving parental contributions to one's education, and having taken out a loan in at least one year of one's college tenure.

A specific exception may be low-income, urban youths, particularly those in concentrated impoverished neighborhoods (Stewart, Stewart, & Simons, 2007); peer influence for these youth appears to be the most influential factor in the decision about college, even when controlling for variables that may affect post-high school decisions.

Although many individuals can impact a student's decision about college over time, parents have the unique potential to influence positively and directly their children's educational goals (Bers & Galowich, 2002; Ceja, 2006), regardless of their own educational attainment (Horn & Nunez, 2000).

In a study among the lower socioeconomic black and Hispanic youths, peer support for postsecondary aspirations increased likely enrollment by 60%. Among the general high school population, however, students "show an increasing reliance on parents and family members in shaping their postsecondary aspirations as the years progress" (Gandara, 2001, para. 33).

The home setting is a particularly rich and ongoing source of information for college-educated families (McDonough, 1997). Numerous studies conclude that the influence of family greatly affects the future educational aspiration of students (Jun & Colyar, 2001; Plank

& Jordan, 2001; Gandara, 2002). Parents not only motivate students to achieve their educational aspirations but they also assist them in strategically organizing and managing their lives around educational and occupational opportunities to reach their ambitions. Many studies have connected parent support and encouragement to college plans (Hossler & Stage, 1992). For families to be informational resources, they must be able to provide information which is gained through personal experiences or as in the case of some minority groups, through secondary knowledge about educational experiences and resources. Family members not only offer verbal encouragement, but also provide tangible support, which may include: arranging for visitations, saving money for tuition, guiding the completion of applications and other forms, gathering information from college programs, and attending financial aid workshops (National Postsecondary Education Cooperative, 2007).

Maintaining high parental expectations is influenced by a variety of socioeconomic factors (Terenzini, Cabrera, & Bernal, 2001). Occupational attainment research indicated that parents provide the most encouragement to the child who portrayed the apparent highest academic ability (Hossler, Braxton, & Coopersmith, 1989).

Regardless of ethnicity or socioeconomic status, high-achieving students typically have parents who have provided motivations, expectations, and a home environment conducive to learning (Payne, 2005). Research might suggest that parental encouragement comprises two dimensions. The first deals with motivation: Parents maintain high educational expectations for their children (both young and adult) and talk with them about their college plans (Stage & Hossler, 1989). The second dimension is tangible and proactive; parents plan and cumulatively save for college (Hossler & Vesper, 1993).

College-educated parents tend to be more knowledgeable than low-income parents regarding financial and moral aid (Olson, & Rosenfeld, 1984).

King (1996) discovered that parental encouragement was a deciding factor in postsecondary plans among a sample of 1995 low-income secondary students who had completed the SAT. Unsure of whether their fathers were pleased with their postsecondary plans, the low-income seniors were less likely than the higher-income peers within their cohort to fulfill aspirations to attend a public four-year college or university. Their children can become more reliant upon the advice they receive from guidance counselors, unsolicited college marketing materials, college fairs, or information they specifically requested from colleges (National Postsecondary Education Cooperative, 2007).

Hossler, (1999) defines parental encouragement as the frequency of discussions between parents and students about parents' expectations, hopes, and dreams for their children. Parents' ability to mold initial thinking and aspirations for a college degree tends to be most salient during the early predisposition phase (Hossler & Stage, 1992). This implies that academic achievement goals are forming well before high school. Parental ability to effectively plan for their children's college education also seems depend upon their own collegiate financial experiences. Hossler, (1999) documented an intergenerational effect in which parents' plans of financing their children's college education were shaped by the specific strategies parents themselves employed when financing their own undergraduate education.

Other sources of information tend to replace parents and become more influential during later stages; yet, parents remain the key source of encouragement and guidance during the entire college choice process (Ceja, 2006; NPEC, 2007). During this sequence, there appears to be a mutually-reinforcing influence between the parent(s) and child, as parental encouragement

propels student achievement, and further student achievement earns additional encouragement and the expectation of higher career aspirations (NPEC, 2007).

Readily-accessible, early, deliberate forms of support over the span of multiple years can increase the confidence of teachers who may otherwise shy away from the higher education or college experience. Counselors are in a good position to operate as impartial advisors committed to the students' best interests, rather than as sales agents for any specific institution in influencing students' college decisions” (Chapman & DeMasi, 1991).

For those who cannot depend on parents eagerly disseminating college wisdom, school counselors, college recruiters, and teachers often begin their influence relatively late in the decision-making process (Hossler, Schmit, & Vesper, 1999). Students do report the desire for a quality high school counselor who might guide them through a process that seems daunting, complicated, and time-consuming (Maduakolam, 2000).

Despite the belief held by many in education that guidance counselors should assume primary responsibility for increasing college attendance among high school graduates, “in a conference devoted to counseling and career planning in high schools, several counseling practitioners lamented the difficulties associated with assisting students in career planning” (Maduakolam, 2000). In the Maduakolam study (2000), most low-income students did not believe their guidance counselor was helpful in motivating or preparing them for college. In fact, many were not sure if their school even had a guidance counselor. Unfortunately, guidance counselors have large caseloads and multifaceted responsibilities, only one of which is to act as facilitator of the college planning process (National Association for College Admission Counseling, 2006). Yet, when guidance counselors are consistently and frequently available to provide direct services, they genuinely impact student aspirations, preparations, and knowledge of financial aid (NACAC, 2006).

Students whose parents contact a counselor are more likely to have also contacted the counselor themselves. Chapman & DeMasi (1991) urge parents and school counselors to collaborate in the college advisement process. Parents alone may not have the most current and comprehensive knowledge about college opportunities, but when parents and counselors work together, they can offer more consistent advice to students and initiate college planning well before college recruiters are involved in students' lives.

Teachers also influence students' beliefs about college and stimulate interest in new fields of study. They acknowledge individual students' potential and talents through their interactions with students (Samarge, 2006). College talk is an important vehicle by which teachers can inform students about preparation for college and nuances of the college experience. Teachers have the power to communicate expectations for college, and students respond to teachers' beliefs about their potential.

Renchler (1992) believed the faculty's creation of a strong secondary school culture could, indeed, influence student achievement and the desire to pursue college upon graduation. Other researchers have reinforced this point (Bandura, 1997) in describing how a positive school culture demonstrated significant effects on enhancing student achievement, augmenting student confidence to finish high school, and strengthening student efficacy about their own potential for success if they chose to matriculate to college. These researchers emphasized the overarching role of the school administrators in shaping the dynamics of the school culture. In fact, models of positive school cultures hold the potential to transform and even replace negative ones

2.4 Influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education

Socioeconomic levels were also identified to influence how the process of postsecondary decisions had unfolded for students. In a finding that coincides with later research (Plank &

Jordan; 2001; Gandara, 2002), highest SES-quartile students in a study by Hossler (1999) were nearly one-third more likely than lower SES-quartile students to make the college decision in conjunction with their parents, whereas the lowest-SES students more commonly made this important decision independently of their families. Students whose parents did not attend college have been thought to perceive their parents and siblings as being less supportive in their quest to become a college graduate (Thayer, 2000). However, a more recent look at the complexion of first generation college families reveals a growing trend in which students commonly identify parental encouragement as a primary reason for actually deciding to attend college. In America, colleges and universities are responsible not only for educating students, but also for certifying them; indeed, a bachelor's degree has been described as the passport to America's middle class (Jencks & Riesman, 1968). The institutions in which these students enroll are the gateways to their futures.

More precisely, colleges and universities provide an array of opportunities, depending on the characteristics of the students who enter, the kinds of institutions they attend, how long they remain enrolled, how engaged they become in their education, the nonacademic demands made on them, and the nature of the experiences they have while enrolled.

These gateways lead to an equally varied array of outcomes that help shape students' future circumstances in a range of areas, including personal, financial, educational, intellectual, social, cultural, and civic areas" (Terenzini, Cabrera, & Bernal, 2001, p. 18).

Continuing-generation families tend to be strong proponents of a college education, and they realize the long-term impact of a college education. They share information about these benefits with their children, bolstered by their own sequence of personal and professional experiences. Parents' own familiarity with college through direct experiences was proven to be an influential asset - regardless of their current socioeconomic status (Cabrera & La Nasa, 2000). Longwell-Grice's (2003) qualitative study revealed that first-generation students may

view college differently; they may consider it to be a place where they prepare themselves for work – something to get out of the way instead of a possibly life-altering experience.

While the variety of goals is extensive, and while the degree of importance attached varies from goal to goal, the level of importance for any specific goal appears to be relatively invariant across socioeconomic status. For example, data (Dratt, Whittemore, Wine, et al., 1996) show that all students had similar levels of importance placed upon several of the suggested goals, such as becoming an authority in a given field; being able to find steady work; being a leader in the community; influencing the political structure; being successful in a given line of work; being well-off financially.

Society places weighted value on the educational attainment an individual has achieved, though individuals possess personal reasons for their academic aspirations.

College-attending men and women in a study by Tuma & Geis (1995) indicated their primary reasons for pursuing a college degree. Their top reasons, regardless of gender, were to increase their chance of success in the workplace, to increase knowledge, and to make more money.

When Tuma & Geis (1995) examined labor market participation by socioeconomic status, they found that 1980 high school sophomores in the lowest SES quartile were less likely to be working 12 years later than were those in the middle two or highest-quartiles (79, 86, and 87 percent, respectively). Among bachelor's degree recipients, however, they found no statistically significant SES-related differences in employment rates. This, again, reinforces the benefits first-generation students gain upon obtaining a college degree. In a recent study by Schultz & Higbee (2007), 89% of students interviewed indicated their reasons as being either preparing for the world of work or acquiring knowledge. The relative functionalism of

a college degree is clear; increased education is associated with higher income, prestige, better working conditions, and potential for promotion (Baum & Payea, 2005).

College graduates will earn an average of \$1,000,000 more over the course of their working lives than those with a high school diploma (Baum & Payea, 2005). Degree-holders also present an average lifetime savings to society of \$209,000 per person (Levin, Belfield, Meuninger, & Rouse, 2007). Purely economic benefits, though commonly referenced, are a small component of a larger realm of benefits to those who earn a college degree (Baum & Payea, 2005). Communities with more highly-educated residents experience social benefits; these advantages are a consequence of better employment opportunities, learned decision-making skills, and social relationships that are established (Maine Compact for Higher Education, 2007). This author believes that familiarizing middle and high school students with the array of benefits that are simultaneously conferred upon receiving a college degree may entice many who are otherwise unaware, apathetic or unconvinced.

2.5 Influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education

If educational opportunities are available to a society, a certain segment of that society will take at advantage of opportunities presented to them.

Data on applicants comprise information on all individuals wishing to attend higher education, rather than solely on those having their wishes fulfilled, that is, those who actually enrolled in an institution. This is especially relevant in higher education systems that restrict the number of available places, for in such cases enrolments provide a more clear depiction of supply than of demand. Furthermore, unlike total enrolments, applications are not directly dependent on the duration of study programmes. The reduction of programmes' length, for instance following the adoption of the Bologna guidelines, may lead to a decrease of total

enrolments, even if demand increases or remains unchanged. The use of applications to proxy demand as the dependent variable in the model is thus an important contribution of this paper to the literature on demand for higher education.

The use of data on enrolments is possibly not a deliberate choice, but rather imposed by unavailable information on applicants. In most higher education systems, individuals apply directly to as many distinct institutions as they want. In Portugal, applications are centralized and consistent data have been collected for a long period. To apply to a Portuguese public institution, candidates rank their preferences for six pairs of institution/study programmes and compete for a fixed number of places, assigned in accordance to grades. The Portuguese higher education system is highly regulated, with ministerial approval required, *inter alia*, to create new institutions and study programmes, to define the number of offered places or the interval within which institutions may set tuition fees. The number of available places in the public sector is defined by a system of *numerus clausus*. Private universities and polytechnic schools are, with a few exceptions, still mainly sought out by those unable to enter public institutions.

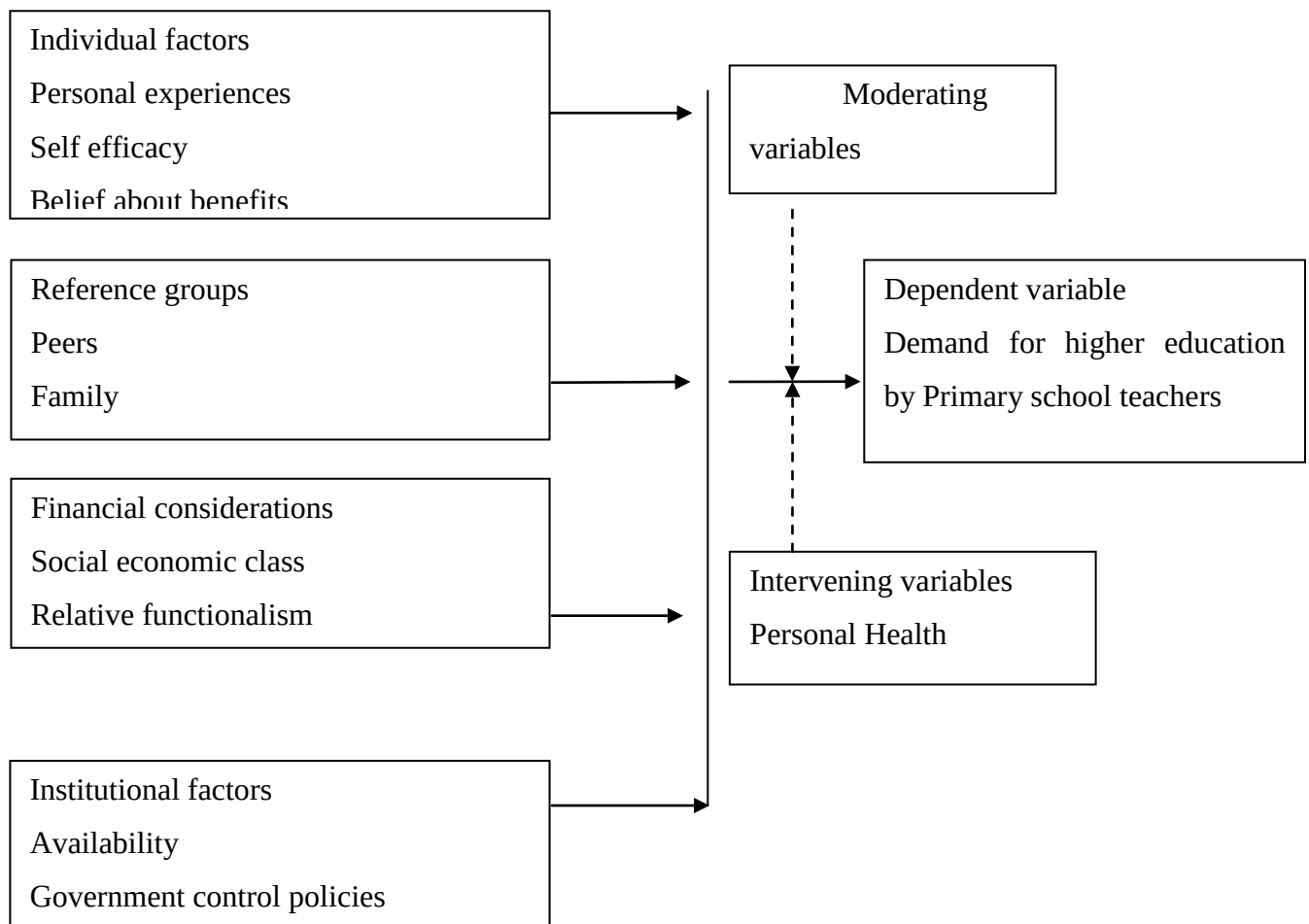
Applications for higher education soared and had to be restrained by a numerous clauses system and other admission restrictions. By 1979, a binary higher education structure was implemented, distinguishing between university and polytechnic education. In the following years, a continuously increasing demand, not fulfilled by the public university sector, opened the way to many new private institutions and polytechnic schools. In 2006, the government imposed the Bologna guidelines, a gradual process whose implementation took three years and compressed the length of most first degree programmes from five or four to three years. Such, mostly demand-driven, quantitative and qualitative changes gradually shaped the Portuguese system of higher education, currently characterized by a multiplicity of public and

privately offered degrees, scattered by a large network of around 150 higher education institutions.

2.6 Conceptual framework

The study problem was conceptualized as the interrelationships of study variables in Figure

2.1.Independent variables



In the study it was conceptualized that the independent variables influence the dependent variable the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

Individual factors: Personal experiences, self efficacy, and beliefs about the benefits of college create a foundation from which teachers/students approach the decision to pursue higher education.

Reference groups: Although young people are more vulnerable to the influence of close friends who share similar experiences and backgrounds (Hallinan & Williams, 1990, p. 130), teachers who are adults are not spared by this policy. Friends admit to talking about future plans or sharing school-related information with peers (Gandara, 2001). Again, parents have the unique potential to influence positively and directly their children's educational goals (Bers & Galowich, 2002; Ceja, 2006), regardless of their own educational attainment (Horn & Nunez, 2000).

It is also true that For those who cannot depend on parents eagerly disseminating college wisdom, school counselors, college recruiters, and teachers often begin their influence relatively late in the decision-making process (Hossler, Schmit, & Vesper, 1999). Students do report the desire for a quality high school counselor who might guide them through a process that seems daunting, complicated, and time-consuming (Maduakolam, 2000).

Financial considerations: Socioeconomic levels were also identified to influence how the process of postsecondary decisions had unfolded for students. More precisely, colleges and universities provide an array of opportunities, depending on the characteristics of the students who enter, the kinds of institutions they attend, how long they remain enrolled, how engaged they become in their education, the nonacademic demands made on them, and the nature of the experiences they have while enrolled.

These gateways lead to an equally varied array of outcomes that help shape students' future circumstances in a range of areas, including personal, financial, educational, intellectual, social, cultural, and civic areas" (Terenzini, Cabrera, & Bernal, 2001).

Institutional factors: Educational opportunities are available to a society; a certain segment of that society will take at advantage of opportunities presented to them. This is especially relevant in higher education systems that restrict the number of available places, for in such cases enrolments provide a more clear depiction of supply than of demand. Furthermore,

unlike total enrolments, applications are not directly dependent on the duration of study programmes.

2.7 Theoretical framework

The traditional approach of human capital theory, which considers direct and opportunity costs (foregone incomes) and future incomes as the principle determinants of education demand, has been extended in order to consider three additional factors: 1) the role consumption factors play in education demand (Blaug, 1976), 2) capital market imperfections (Parson, 1974), and 3) uncertainty about future incomes (Levhari & Weiss, 1974; Eaton & Rosen, 1980). As is widely accepted, forgone incomes and future incomes remain determinant factors in education demand. However, in cases where there is unemployment in the labour market, the income differential between groups of people with different educational levels does not entirely cover the information which individuals will utilize in order to make their decisions. Employment prospects, naturally, become a relevant factor.

For this reason, the work by Kodde (1988) where a model of education demand is developed and estimated, taking into account forgone incomes, future incomes, the general unemployment level of the economy, and the different employment opportunities available for the different educational levels.

2.8 Summary and research gap

The literature reviewed shows that most of the studies were done on the demand for higher education generally and at higher levels. There seems to be little done on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers. Since the phenomenon is such an impact issue much is left undone and as such this study would bring knowledge on the specific factors that cause the teachers in primary schools to pursue higher education at any cost and explain the

soaring numbers of those joining and even the increase of university branches targeting mostly the primary school teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher presents the methodology that was used in carrying out the study. The chapter consists of the research design, target population, sampling procedures and sample size, research instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, ethical issues and Operationalization of the study variables.

3.2 Research design

The research adopted descriptive design, which is used in preliminary and explanatory studies to allow research, gather, summarize, present and interpret data for the purpose of clarification (Orodho, 2002). (Orodho, 2002) defines a research design as “the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived so as to meet the study objectives and to control variance.” This research adopted a descriptive design to describe the state factors that influence the demand for higher education. This design was aimed at collecting information from teachers, on their opinion on the demand for higher education by teachers in Matinyani district. It allowed the researcher to gather data, summarize, analyze, present and interpret for the purpose of clarification.

3.3 Target Population

Population is a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement. The target population was 75 teachers and 30 head teachers from 30 public primary schools in Matinyani district in Kitui County.

3.4 Sample size and sampling procedure

Mugenda & Mugenda (1999) defines sample as a smaller group obtained from the accessible population. This sub – group is representative of the whole population with the relevant characteristics. Sample is a small position of a target population. He continues to define sampling as a means of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population. The minimum sample for a survey of a small population is 20% and that a large population is 10% (Orodho & Kombo 2002).

The sample was made of one hundred and twenty teachers and twenty head teachers from Matinyani district.

3.5 Sampling

Sampling is a procedure a researcher use to gather people, places or things to study. It is a process of selecting individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group.

Mugenda & Mugenda (1999) defines sampling as a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found the entire group. The sample for this study was selected using a simple random sampling design this is because the research was conducted on Primary schools which are in the same geographical area. Purposive sampling was also done so that both urban and rural schools are included in the study

Table 1.1 Names of sample schools in Matinyani district

Name of zone	Schools	No. of teachers
Kathivo Zone	10	25
Matinyani Zone	10	25
Kauma Zone	10	25
TOTAL	30	75

3.5 Research instruments

The study made use of questionnaires and interview guides to collect data. There was questionnaire for the teachers and interview guide for the head teachers. According to Moore (1988), questionnaires give detailed answers to complex problems and they are most effective for use in surveys. Mugenda & Mugenda (1999) observes that the use of questionnaire is a popular method for data collection in education because of the relative ease and cost effectiveness with which they are constructed and administered to large samples. Questionnaire gives a relatively objective data and enriches them to the survey research design of this kind. The interview guide however was used to get opinions and attitudes of Head teachers on the demand for higher education.

3.6 Validity of the instruments

Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the inferences a researcher makes. The process of drawing the correct conclusions based on the data obtained from an assessment is what validity is all about.

Mugenda (1999) defines validity as the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on the research results. Orodho & Kombo (2002) further defines validity as a measure of how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure. Content validity of the instrument was determined by the researcher's supervisors who are experts in the area of study.

3.7 Reliability of instruments

Mugenda (1999) defines reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trial. However, there are several methods of

estimating reliability which requires only a single administration of an instrument. They are; the split-half method, the Kuder- Richardson approaches and the alpha coefficient method.

This research made use of the split half method. The split- half methods involves scoring two-halves of a test separately for each person and then calculating a correlation coefficient for the two sets of scores. In most cases researchers will split the instrument into the odd items and the even items. The resulting coefficient indicates the degree to which the two halves of the test provide the same results, and hence describes the internal consistency of the test.

Mugenda (1999) defines reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trial. However, there are several methods of estimating reliability which requires only a single administration of an instrument. They are; the split-half method, the Kuder- Richardson approaches and the alpha coefficient method.

However reliability in the research is influenced by random error. Random error is the deviation from a true measure due to factors that have not been effectively addressed by the researcher. As random error increases, reliability decreases. These errors might arise from inaccurate coding, ambiguous instructions to the subjects, interview fatigue and interview bias. The researcher in designing and administering of his instruments took care to avoid such errors.

Data collection took one and half month's period from mid April – to end of May 2013. The researcher obtained a permit from the National Council for Sciences and Technology in order to be allowed to collect data. A copy of the permit was as submitted to the DEOs Office in Matinyani District. The researcher pre-visited schools to build rapport before the actual data collection date. This ensured familiarity with respondents in advance. The questionnaires were personally administered to the teachers and head teachers in the selected school the researcher. The researcher after one month had collected all questionnaires.

3.8 Data analysis plan

The study used both qualitative and quantitative analysis. In qualitative analysis descriptive statistics was the main tool. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), the purpose of descriptive statistics is to allow for meaningful description of a distribution of scores or measurements using a few indices or statistics. Data from the questionnaires and interview guides was first coded and entered in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software for windows program to enable analysis. Inferences from analyzed data were made and this was used to answer the four research questions. Tables were used to present the information from which interpretation was done by comparing the frequencies and percentages.

The quantitative research produces data which uses measurements like amount, volume, quantity and so on. Analysis mainly uses inferential statistics where the information used in quantitative research is mainly numerical and it can be used for deductive explanation and generalisation for application throughout the target population.

3.9 Ethical Issues

The researcher obtained a permit for conducting the study from the National Council of Sciences and Technology in Nairobi. The respondents informed in advance of the data collection process. Ethical issues were observed during the data collection as ensuring confidentiality of respondents and requests was made before interviewing the respondents. The researcher avoided influencing the responses by avoiding asking leading questions. The informant were only be identified according to their roles i.e teacher or head teacher. Thus it was not be easy to compromise their position. Permission to become a participant in the study was always sought before administering a questionnaire. (Orodho & Kombo, 2002).

3.10 Operational definition of variables

To achieve the objectives of the study the researcher assessed the factors that influence the demand for higher education. The design selected was aimed at collecting information from teachers, on their opinion on the demand for higher education by teachers in Matinyani district. The dependent variable was: the demand for higher education by teachers and the independent variables were the: influence of individual factors, reference groups, financial considerations and institutional factors. The operationalization of the variables was as given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Operationalization of the study variables

Objectives	Variables		Indicators	Measurements	Level of scale	Tools of analysis
	Independent	Dependent				
To determine the influence of individual factors on the demand for higher education	Individual factors	Demand for higher education	Personal experiences, self efficacy and expected benefits	sponsorship	Interval Nominal Interval	Frequency distribution tables. Mean scores of 5-point likert scale.
To determine the influence of reference groups on the demand for higher	Reference groups	Peers, Family and secondary school support	The role of reference groups in joining higher education	Encouragement Input	Nominal	Frequency distribution tables. Mean scores of 5-point likert

education						scale.
To determine the influence financial considerations on the demand for higher education	Financial considerations	Social economic class Relative functionalism	Influence financial considerations	-Grades Promotions Salary increment	Nominal Ordinal	Frequency distribution tables. Mean scores of 5-point likert scale.
To establish the influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education	Institutional factors	Availability Government control Academic programmes	Institutional factors on the demand for higher education	-Degree programmes Diploma programmes Masters programmes	Nominal	Frequency distribution tables. Mean scores of 5-point likert scale.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers data presentation, analysis and interpretation. The research was conducted to investigate the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District in Kitui County.

This chapter focuses on the demographic information of the respondents, data presentations, interpretation and discussions of findings. The presentations were done based on the hypothesis. The research findings on factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers were subjected to statistical analysis aided by a computer package SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to establish the measures of central tendency (Mean, Frequency and percentages). The data presentation is made in form of tables.

4.2 Questionnaire return rate

All of the issued questionnaires were 75, where each of the three divisions in the district produced twenty five respondents. Of the expected questionnaires, 90.7 per cent were received from the 75 sampled respondents because of the vast area that was under study, which represented excellent response rate. This participation rate implied that the researcher would have a valid and reliable conclusion and recommendations for the study.

4.3 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

The teachers' demographic information is discussed by their gender, age, education level, professional qualifications, position held in the institution, marital status and job group. The questions were asked and the results were obtained as indicated in the table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Distribution of respondents by Position in Institution

	Frequency	Percent
Assistant Teacher	49	75.4
Deputy	10	15.3
E.C.D Teacher	6	9.2
Total	65	100.0

The study used more assistant teachers than the deputy head teachers and the early childhood teachers. The assistant teachers represented 75.4 per cent while the deputies and E.C.D teachers represented 15.3% and 9.2 per cent respectively.

Table 4.2 Distribution of respondents by Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	25	38.4
Female	40	61.5
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.2, shows that most of the respondents were female compared to the male. The female respondents were 61.5% while the male respondents were 38.4%. This can be interpreted to mean that there are more female teachers in the primary schools going for higher education than the male.

The ages of the teachers were also considered and the results were obtained as shown in the table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Distribution of respondents by Age Bracket

	Frequency	Percent
25-30	15	23.1
31-40	35	53.8
41-50	10	15.4
Above 50	5	7.6
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.3 clearly indicates that most of the teachers participating in the study were aged between 31 and 40 years being represented by 53.8% of the respondents while 15.4% of the respondents were aged 41-50 years, 23.1% 25-30 years and 7.6% above 50 years.

Table 4.4 Distribution of respondent by Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent
Single	4	18.2
Married	14	63.6
Widowed	3	13.6
Separated	1	4.5
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.4 shows that 63.6% of the respondents were married, 18.2% were single, 13.6% were widowed and 4.5% were separated.

Table 4.5 Distribution of respondents by Academic Qualification

	Frequency	Percent
Secondary	11	16.92
College/Diploma	23	35.38
University	27	41.5
Any Other	4	6.15
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.5, it is clear that 41.5% were university grandaunts, 35.38% diploma or collage grandaunts, 16.92% were secondary grandaunts while 6.15% had other qualifications. This clearly indicates that most of the teachers in primary schools are highly qualified with most of them attaining diploma and higher.

Table 4.6 Distribution of respondents by Highest Professional Qualification

	Frequency	Percent
Technical Teacher	3	4.5
S1 Diploma	21	31.8
Graduate	35	54.5
Any Other	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.6 indicates that 54.5% of the respondents were graduates in terms of professional qualifications, 31.8% S1 Diploma, 4.5% technical and 9.1 other qualifications. As noted earlier this shows most of the teachers in primary school are highly qualified with most of them going beyond S1 diploma.

Table 4.7 Distribution of respondents by Current Job Group

	Frequency	Percent
H	6	9.1
J	18	27.3
K	23	36.4
L	12	18.2
M	3	4.5
N	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.7 it is clear that 36.4% of the respondents were in job group K, 27.3% in job group J, 18.2% in job group L, 9.1% in job group H, 4.5% in job group M and 4.5% in job group N. this indicates that most of the teachers in primary schools are in job group K and below.

4.1 Individual factors influence on demand for higher education by primary school teachers

4.4.1 The relationship between job group and education level

The study considered the relationship between the teacher's job group and the level of education attained by the teacher and the results are presented in the table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Distribution of respondent by Relation of Job Group to Education Level

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	53	81.8
No	12	18.2
Total	65	100.0

From the table 4.8, 81.8% of the respondents indicated that there is a relationship between the level education and the job group while 18.2 % indicated that there is no relationship.

4.4.2 Period in education sector

The researcher asked questions in relation to the length of time the respondents have been in the education sector. The responses were presented in the table 4.9

Table 4.9 Distribution of respondents by Period in Education Sector

	Frequency	Percent
1-5	9	13.6
6-10	27	40.9
11-15	17	27.3
16-20	6	9.1
21-25	3	4.5
Above 25	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

The table 4.9 shows that 40.9% of the respondents were in education sector for 6-10 years, 27.35 11-15 years, 13.6% 1-5 years, 4.5% 21-25 years and 4.5% above 25 years. It is clear therefore that most of the respondents were in education sector for less than 15 years. This can be attributed to their age as it was noted that most of the respondents are below 40 years.

4.4.3 Decision to join college

The study also considered whether it was a personal decision for the teachers to join colleges for higher education and the responses were recorded in the table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Distribution of respondents by Individual Decision to Join College

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	56	86.4
No	9	13.6
Total	65	100.0

The table 4.10 shows that 86.4% of the respondents make an individual decision to join college while 13.6% did not make an individual decision to join college. This indicates that most teachers make an individual or personal decision to join college.

4.4.4 Higher education; childhood dream

The study sought to find out whether higher education was a childhood dream for the teachers joining higher education colleges. The results obtained were represented in the table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Distribution of respondents by Higher Education; Childhood Dream

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	26	40.9
No	39	59.1
Total	65	100.0

From the table 4.11 59.1% of the respondent indicated that higher education was not their childhood dream while 40.9% indicated that higher education was their childhood dream. This indicates that the need for higher education id not a dream for most of the primary school teachers and might be motivated by other factors.

4.4.5 Personal Experiences influencing demand for higher education

The study sought to find factors influencing demand for higher education for primary school teachers and obtained results as presented in the table 4.12

Table 4.12 Distribution of respondents by Personal Experiences Motivated to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	33	50.76
Agree	32	49.24
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.12, 50.76% of the respondents agreed strongly to the statement that personal experiences motivated teachers to join higher education while 49.24% agreed. This shows that personal experience influences demand for higher education among the primary school teachers.

Table 4.13 Distribution of respondents by Self Efficacy; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	30	45.5
Agree	17	27.3
Disagree	15	65.7
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.13, 45.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that self efficacy is a reason for joining higher education, 27.3% agreed, and 65.7% disagreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. This shows that majority of the respondent agree that self efficacy is a reason for joining higher education colleges.

Table 4.14 Responses on Expected Benefits; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	44	68.2
Agree	12	18.2
Disagree	6	9.1
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.14, 68.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that expected benefit is a reason for joining higher education, 18.2% agreed, 9.1% disagreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. This shows that majority of the respondent agree that expected benefits is a reason for joining higher education colleges.

Table 4.15 Responses on whether Prestige Made teachers Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	18.2
Agree	20	31.8
Undecided	3	4.5
Disagree	12	18.2
Strongly Disagree	18	27.3
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.15, 18.2% of the respondents strongly agreed that prestige is a reason for joining higher education, 31.8% agreed, 18.2% disagreed, 27.3% strongly disagreed while 4.5% were undecided. This shows that prestige is not a major reason for joining higher education.

Table 4.16 Responses on Personal Aspirations Influenced Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	47	72.7
Agree	15	65.7
Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.16, 72.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that personal aspirations is a reason for joining higher education, 65.7% agreed while 4.5% disagreed. This shows that majority of the respondent agree that personal aspirations is a reason for joining higher education colleges.

Table 4.17 Responses on Personal Challenges that made teachers Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	21	31.8
Agree	38	59.1
Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.17, indicates that 31.8% of the respondents strongly agreed that personal challenges made them join higher education, 59.1% agreed while 9.1% disagreed. This shows that personal challenges influence teachers to join higher education.

Table 4.18 Responses on Peers Caused Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	38	59.1
No	27	40.9
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.18, indicates that 59.1% of the respondents agreed that peers caused their decision to join higher education while 40.9% said peers did not cause them to join higher education. It is clear therefore that peers have an influence on teachers' decision to join higher education.

Hypothesis testing

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.065 ^a	4	.194
Likelihood Ratio	8.425	4	.077
Linear-by-Linear	1.578	1	.209
Association			
N of Valid Cases	65		

a. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.00.

The hypothesis posed was that there is no significant relationship between Individual factors like personal considerations (desires, needs, plans, the subjects) specialization, gender and the betterment of the individual and demand for higher education. From this testing, we do not reject the hypothesis.

4.5 Influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers

The researcher considered the role of family members and colleagues both during schooling and the work place and their influence on the demand of education. The responses of the various aspects explored are presented in the tables as shown.

Table 4.19 Responses on whether Family influenced the Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	53	81.8
No	11	18.2
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.19, indicates that 81.8% of the respondents agreed that family caused their decision to join higher education while 18.2% said family did not cause them to join higher education. It is clear therefore that family has an influence on teachers' decision to join higher education.

Table 4.20 Secondary School Support Caused Your Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	36	54.5
No	29	45.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.20, it shows that 54.5% of the respondents agreed that secondary school support caused their decision to join higher education while 45.5% felt that secondary school support did not cause them to join higher education. This therefore shows that secondary support has an influence on teachers' decision to join higher education.

4.5.2 Motivators to join higher education

The study sought to find the biggest motivators towards joining higher education for primary school teachers and obtained results as presented in the tables 4.21.

Table 4.21 Responses on influence of Peers to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	29	45.5
Strongly agree	21	31.8
Disagree	9	13.6
Strongly Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.21, 45.5% of the respondents agreed that peer is a biggest motivator to join higher education, 31.8% strongly agreed, 13.6% disagreed while 9.1% strongly disagreed. It is clear that majority of the respondents agree that peer is a biggest motivator for them to join higher education.

Table 4. 65 Responses on Family; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	27	40.9
Strongly agree	14	65.7
Disagree	21	31.8
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From table 4. 65, 40.9% of the respondents agreed that family is a reason for joining higher education, 65.7% strongly agreed, 31.8% disagreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. It is clear

that majority of the respondents agree that family is a reason for them to join higher education.

Table 4.23 Response on Secondary School Support; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	26	40.9
Strongly agree	12	18.2
Disagree	12	18.2
Strongly Disagree	15	65.7
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.23, shows that 40.9% of the respondents agreed that secondary school support is a reason for joining higher education, 18.2% strongly agreed, 18.2% disagreed while 65.7% strongly disagreed. This indicates that majority of the respondents agree that secondary school support is a reason for them to join higher education.

Table 4.24 Distribution of responses on whether Official Acquaintances influenced Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	26	40.9
Strongly agree	12	18.2
Disagree	18	27.3
Strongly Disagree	9	13.6
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.24, shows that 40.9% of the respondents agreed that secondary school support is a reason for joining higher education, 18.2% strongly agreed, 27.3% disagreed while 13.6% strongly disagreed. This indicates that majority of the respondents agree that official acquaintances caused them to join higher education.

Table 4.25 Responses on whether Informal Encouragement influenced Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	29	45.5
Strongly agree	18	27.3
Disagree	12	18.2
Strongly Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.25, shows that 45.5% of the respondents agreed that informal encouragement caused them to join higher education, 27.3% strongly agreed, 18.2% disagreed while 9.1% strongly disagreed. This indicates that majority of the respondents agree that informal encouragement caused them to join higher education.

Table 4.26 Responses on influence of Former College mates on the Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	41	63.6
Strongly agree	21	31.8
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5

Total	65	100.0
-------	----	-------

Table 4.26, shows that 63.6% of the respondents agreed that former college mates caused them to join higher education, 31.8% strongly agreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. This indicates that former college mates have a great influence in causing teachers to join higher education.

4.5.5 Influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

The researcher endeavored to establish the influence of economic considerations on the decision to pursue higher education. The results of the respondents are presented in the tables that follow.

Table 4.27 Responses on Social-Economic Class Played a Role in Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	29	90.9
No	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.27, shows that 90.9% of the respondents agreed that socio-economic class played a role for them to join higher education while 9.1% did not think that socio-economic class played a role for them to join higher education. This shows that socio-economic class plays a role in causing teachers to join higher education.

Table 4.28 Responses on whether Relative Functionalism Played a Role in Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	51	77.3
No	14	65.7
Total	65	100.0

From table 4.28, we see that 77.3% of the respondents agreed that relative functionalism played a role for them to join higher education while 65.7% did not think that relative functionalism played a role for them to join higher education. This shows that relative functionalism plays a role in causing teachers to join higher education.

Table 4.29 Responses on whether Social-Economic Class Determined Demand for Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	35	54.5
Strongly agree	27	40.9
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.29, shows that 54.5% of the respondents agreed socio-economic class determines demand for higher education, 40.9% strongly agreed while 4.5% disagreed. This is a clear indication that socio-economic class determines demand for higher education.

Table 4.30 Responses on whether there was hope of Pay Increase as the Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	24	36.4
Strongly agree	29	45.5
Disagree	9	13.6
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.30, indicates that 36.4% of the respondents agreed that hope for pay increase was a reason for joining higher education, 45.5% strongly agreed, 13.6% disagreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. This is a clear indication that hope of pay increase is a reason for joining higher education among the primary teachers.

Table 4.31 Responses on Prospects to Get Promoted; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	27	40.9
Strongly agree	21	31.8

Disagree	14	65.7
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.31, indicates that 40.9% of the respondents agreed that prospect to get promoted was a reason for joining higher education, 31.8% strongly agreed, 65.7% disagreed while 4.5% strongly disagreed. This clearly shows that prospect to get promoted is a reason for joining higher education among the primary teachers.

Table 4.32 Responses on whether Prestige Caused Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Agree	41	63.6
Strongly agree	9	13.6
Disagree	9	13.6
Strongly Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.32, indicates that 63.6% of the respondents agreed that prestige caused them to join higher education, 13.6% strongly agreed, 13.6% disagreed while 9.1% strongly disagreed. This clearly shows that prestige caused the decision to join higher education among the primary teachers.

The hypothesis advanced was that there is no significant relationship between financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry) and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

Hypothesis testing

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2sided)
Peason Chi-Square	4.792 ^a	3	.188
Likelihood Ratio	4.772	3	.189
Linear-by-Linear	4.154	1	.042
Association			
N of valid cases	65		
a.4 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .65			

The chi square calculation indicates that the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative one be accepted.

4.6 Influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers

The researcher also embarked on establishing whether availability, accessibility, government control policies and availability of suitable courses influenced demand for higher education and the results were as presented in the tables 4.33 – 4.42.

Table 4.33 Responses on whether availability of Institutions Influenced Demand for Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	48	72.7
No	17	27.3
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.33, shows that 72.7% of the respondents agreed that availability of institutions influenced demand for higher education, while 27.3% indicated that availability of institutions does not influence the demand to join higher education. This shows that majority of the respond are for the opinion that availability of institutions influence demand for higher education among the primary teachers.

Table 4.34 Responses on Government Control Policies Influenced Demand for Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	51	77.3
No	14	21.7
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.34, majority of the respondents, 77.3% were for the idea that government control policies influenced demand for higher education, while 21.7% were opposed to the idea.

Table 4.35 Responses on Suitable Academic Programs Influenced Demand for Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	59	90.9
No	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.35, majority of the respondents, 90.9% were for the idea that suitable academic programs influenced demand for higher education, while only 9.1% were opposed to the idea.

Table 4.36 Responses on Availability of Institutions Determined Demand for Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	18.2
Agree	35	54.5
Disagree	18	27.3
Total	65	100.0

From the table 4.36, it was established that majority 54.5% agreed that availability of institutions determined demand for higher education while an additional 18.2% strongly agreed. However, a minority of 27.3% disagreed.

Table 4.37 Responses on Government Control Policies Caused Your Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	12	18.2
Agree	38	59.1
Disagree	15	65.7
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.37, 59.1% of the respondents agreed that government control policies caused them to join higher education, 18.2% strongly agreed while 65.7% disagreed. This verifies that government control policies cause teachers to join higher education.

Table 4.38 Responses on Suitable Academic Programs; Reason for Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	41	63.6
Agree	21	31.8
Strongly Disagree	3	4.5
Total	65	100.0

From the table 4.38, it was established that majority 63.6% strongly agreed that suitable academic programs was a reason for joining higher education while an additional 31.8%

agreed. However, an insignificant minority of 4.5% strongly disagreed. This clearly shows that suitable academic programs are a reason for teachers joining higher education.

Table 4.39 Responses on Accessibility of Institutions Caused Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	21	31.8
Agree	38	59.1
Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

From the table 4.39, it was established that majority 59.1% agreed that accessibility of institution caused decision to join higher education while an additional 31.8% strongly agreed. However, an insignificant minority of 9.1% disagreed. This clearly shows that accessibility to institutions caused teachers to join higher education.

The researcher went further to establish whether flexibility of academic programs and tuition charges caused the teachers to join higher education and obtained result represented in the table 4.40.

Table 4.40 Responses on Flexibility of Academic Programs Caused Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	38	59.1
Agree	21	31.8

Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.40, shows that majority 59.1% strongly agreed that flexibility of academic programs caused decision to join higher education while an additional 31.8% agreed. However, an insignificant minority of 9.1% disagreed. This clearly shows that flexibility of academic programs caused teachers to join higher education.

Table 4.41 Responses on Flexibility of Tuition Charges Caused Decision to Join Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	15	65.7
Agree	32	50.0
Disagree	12	18.2
Strongly Disagree	6	9.1
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.41, shows that majority 50.0% agreed that flexibility of tuition charges caused decision to join higher education while an additional 65.7% strongly agreed. However, an insignificant minority of 9.1% disagreed. This clearly shows that flexibility of tuition charges caused teachers to join higher education.

The researcher went further to establish whether acquaintance with previous institutions played a role in joining higher education and obtained result represented in the table 4.42.

Table 4.42 Responses on Acquaintance with Previous Institutions Played a Role in Joining Higher Education

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	14	18.2
Agree	33	50.0
Disagree	12	18.2
Strongly Disagree	6	13.6
Total	65	100.0

Table 4.42, shows that majority 50.0% agreed that acquaintance with previous institutions played a role in joining higher education while an additional 18.2% strongly agreed. However, 18.2% disagreed while 13.6% strongly disagreed. This show that majority of the respondents agreed to the opinion that acquaintance with previous institutions played a role in joining higher education.

Finally the hypothesis posed on this objective was that there was no significant relationship between Institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers. The chi square calculations are as presented in the table 4.43

Hypothesis test

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.393 ^a	2	.498
Likelihood Ratio	1.707	2	.426
Linear-by-Linear	1.266	1	.261

Association

N of Valid Cases 69

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .33.

From this test, we do not reject the null hypothesis.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

5.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of the summary of the study, discussions of the study findings, conclusions of the study, recommendations of the study and suggestions for further studies

5.2 Summary of the findings

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District in Kitui County.

The study adopted four objectives from which the hypotheses were formed. These objectives included; To determine the individual factors influence on demand for higher education by primary school teachers, to establish the influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers, to evaluate the influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers and finally to establish the influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani district.

The findings established that majority 86.4 per cent of the teachers were influenced by the expected benefits to join higher education. The other established personal factors included prestige 50 per cent, personal aspirations 85.4 per cent and personal challenges rated at 90.9 per cent. These findings established that there was a significant relationship between demand for higher education and personal factors.

The research also established that peers had significant influence on the demand of higher education. Of the respondents 59.1 per cent supported, family influence was rated at 81.8 per cent. Further the peers' were rated to have the greatest influence when it comes to decision to join higher education by teachers at 77.3 per cent. The teachers also supported the informal encouragement as having significant influence with 82.8 per cent supporting. The research also established that the former college mates highly influenced the decision to pursue higher education with 95.4 per cent.

On the economic factors, economic social class, expectation of pay rise, expectation of promotions and the prestige that comes with it were all rated as to have significant influence on the decision to pursue higher education. For instance social economic class was cumulatively rated at 95.4 per cent; expected pay rise was supported by 81.9 per cent. Teacher's expectations and prospects for promotion and prestige were rated at 71.7 per cent and 77.2 per cent respectively.

The fourth objective was on the influence of institutions of higher learning. It was established that availability of institutions, government control policies, suitable programmes, accessibility of institutions and flexibility were all positively identified as to have significant positive influence on the choice to join higher education. Availability was supported by 72.7 per cent, government control policies scored 77.3 per cent, and availability of suitable programmes at 90.9 per cent, accessibility supported by 90.9 per cent and lastly flexibility of the programmes were supported by 90.0 per cent. Though most respondents were of the opinion that the stated factors had influence on demand for higher education by primary school teachers, the results were not significant.

5.3 Discussions of the study

The study considered four objectives from which four hypotheses were postulated. All the null hypotheses were not rejected after the Chi square tests.

The study established, on the first null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between individual factors and demand for higher education. These results did not agree with the findings of Bandura (1977) who found that individual factors significantly influenced the demand for higher education. Although most of the respondents agreed that there was a significant influence of individual factors on demand for higher education, the results after the tests showed that there was no significant relationship between individual factors and demand for higher education by primary school teachers. Thus the null hypothesis was not rejected.

On the second hypothesis on influence of reference groups, according to studies done by Gandara (2001) and Cohen (1983) reference groups were established to have a significant influence on choices to do with higher education and college. This study did not agree with these studies to a great extent since, although it established that majority of the respondents agreed to have been influenced by their friends and peers, the results after the hypothesis test showed that there was no significant relationship between influence of reference groups and demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

Financial considerations were established by Plank (2001) and Gandara (2002) to influence college choice this does not agree with this study that socio-economic status influence demand for higher education by primary school teachers. Plank (2001) and Gandara (2002) established that financial considerations had a significant influence on demand for higher education. The findings of this study did not agree with their findings since although most of the respondents agreed that there was a significant influence of financial considerations on demand for higher education by primary school teachers, the results were not significant.

5.4 Conclusion

From the study findings it was concluded that: individual factors, reference groups, financial considerations and of institutional factors all have a positive influence on the demand by the primary school teachers. This therefore makes the researcher confirm the study hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between Individual factors, reference groups (friends, acquaintances) and parents/relatives, Financial considerations (the economic benefits of additional education as compared to those of direct labour market entry) and Institutional factors and the demand for higher education by primary school teachers.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings the researcher wishes to make the following suggestions:

- i) The government should sensitize teachers to be self motivated to go for higher education for the sake of bettering service delivery.
- ii) The teachers should consider higher education as a means of adding value to themselves towards achieving self actualization.

5.6 Suggestions for further studies

Based on the findings the researcher wishes to recommend that more studies be done on the demand for higher education by other public servants who equally seem to have their numbers soaring in the institutions of higher learning.

There is need also to have research on comparison between the urban population and the rural population in terms of demand for higher education.

A study to establish the gender establishments in terms of the demand for higher education would be good.

Finally the researcher wishes to suggest further studies on the comparison between the demand of education and the other social goods across the newly established Counties.

REFERENCES

- Alba, A. & San Segundo, M. (1995). "The Returns to Education in Spain", *Economics of Education Review*, 14 (2), 155-166.
- Amemylla, T. (1981): "Qualitative Response Models: a Survey." *Journal of Economic Literature* XIX(4), 1483-1536.
- Antonio, A.L. (2004). The influence of friendship groups on intellectual self-confidence and educational aspirations in college. *Journal of Higher Education*, 75(4). 446-471.
- Bandura, A. (1993). *Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Basko, A. (2005). Financial aid: *The tough questions. Campus Life*, 64(1), 48-52.
- Baum, S. & Payea, K. (2005). College pays 2004: The benefits of higher education for individuals and society. College Board. Retrieved July 21, 2009, from http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/press/cost04/EducationPays2004.Pdf
- Bers, T.H. & Galowich, P.M. (2002). Using survey and focus group research to learn about parents' roles in the community college choice process. *Community College*

Review, 29: 67.

Baum, S. & Payea, K. (2005). College pays 2004: *The benefits of higher education for individuals and society*. College Board. Retrieved July 21, 2009.

Bowles, S. & Gintis, H. (1976). Schooling in capitalist America. New York: Basic Books.

Blaug, M. (1976): "The Empirical Status of Human Capital Theory: A Slightly Jaundiced Survey." *Journal of Economic Literature* 14(3), 827-55.

Borus, M. E. & Carpenter, S. A. (1984). Factors associated with college attendance of high school seniors, *Economics of Education Review* 3, 169-176.

Cabrera, A.F. & La Nasa, S.M. (2000). On the path to college: Three critical tasks facing America's disadvantaged. *Research in Higher Education*, 42(2).

Ceja, M. (2006). Understanding the role of parents and siblings as information sources in the college choice process of Chicana students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 47(1), 87-104.

Chapman, D.W. & DeMasi, M. (1991). Parents' perception of the effectiveness of public school counselors in college advising. *School Counselor*, 38(4).

Choy, S.P. (2001). Students whose parents did not go to college: Post-secondary access, persistence, and attainment. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Choy, S.P., Horn, L.J., Nunez, A.M., & Chen, X. (2000). At-risk students and students whose parents did not attend college. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 2000(107), 45-64. 87

- Choy, S.P. & Premo, M.D. (1996). How low-income undergraduates financed postsecondary education 1992-1993. Statistical Analysis Report, NCES 96-161.
- Coleman, J.S. (1988). *Social capital in the creation of human capital*. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, S95-S120.
- Department of Statistics and Research (2003) *Statistics of Education 2002-2003 Nicosia*: Nicosia Printing Office.
- Eaton, J. & Rosen, H.S. (1980): "Taxation, Human Capital, and Uncertainty", *The American Economic Review* 70(4), 705-15.
- Education 20, 175-196. Kodde, D. & Ritzen, J. (1988). Direct and indirect effects of parental education level on the demand for higher education, *The Journal of Human Resources XXIII*, 356-371
- Gandara, P. (2002). A study of high school Puente: What we have learned about preparing Latino youth for postsecondary education. *Educational Policy*, 16(4), 474-495.
- Gandara, P. & Bial, D. (2001). Paving the way to postsecondary education: K-12 intervention programs for underrepresented youth. Washington, D.C.: *National Postsecondary Education Cooperative*.
- Garg, R., Melanson, S., & Levin, E. (1990). Educational aspirations of male and female adolescents from single-parent and two biological parent families: *A comparison of influential factors*. *Journal of Youth & Adolescence*, 36(8), 1010-1023.
- Griliches, Z. (1977): "Estimating the returns to Scholing: *some Econometric Problems*" *Econometrica*. 45,1, 1-22.

- Guppy, N. & Pendakur, K. (1989). The effects of gender and parental education on participation within post-secondary education in the 1970s and 1980s, *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education XIX*, 49-62.
- Hallinan, M.T. & Williams, R.A. (1990). Students' characteristics and the peer-influence process. *Sociology of Education*, 63(2), 122-132.
- Horn, L. & Nunez, A. (2000). Mapping the road to college: First-generation students' math track, planning strategies, and context of support. *Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics*.
- Hossler, D., Braxton, J., & Coopersmith, G. (1989). "Understanding student college choice." In J. Smart (ed.), *Higher Education: Handboook of Theory and Research*, Vol. 5. New York: Agathon.
- Hossler, D. & Gallagher, K. (1987). Studying college choice: A three phase model and the implication for policy makers. *College and University*, 2, 207-221.
- Hossler, D., Schmit, J., & Vesper, N. (1999). *Going to college: How social, economic, and educational factors influence the decisions students make*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Hossler, D. & Stage, F.K. (1992). *Family and high school experience influences on the postsecondary educational plans of ninth grade students*. American Educational Research Journal, 29, 225-251.
- Hossler, D. & Vesper, N. (1993). An exploratory study of the factors associated with parental saving for postsecondary education. *Journal of Higher Education*, 64(2), 140-165.
- Jencks, C. & Riesman, D. (1968). *The academic revolution*. New York: Doubleday.

- Jimenez, J. D. D. & Salas-Velasco, M. (2000). Modeling educational choices. A binomial logit model applied to the demand for higher education, *Higher Education* 40, 293-311.
- Jun, A., & Colyar, J. (2001). Parental guidance suggested: Family involvement in college preparation programs. In W.G. Tierney & L.S. Hagedorn (Eds.), *Increasing access to college: Extending possibilities for all students* (pp.195-216). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Kerlinger (1973) *Qualitative Data – Research Technique Wikipedia Media*.
- King, J.E. (1996). The decision to go to college: Attitudes and experiences associated with college attendance among low-income students. Washington, D.C.: *The College Board*.
- Kodde, D.A. (1988): "Unemployment Expectations and Human Capital Formation" *European Economic Review* 32, 1645-1660.
- Kodde, A. & Ritzen, J. (1985): "The Demand for Education Under Capital Market Imperfections." *European Economic Review* 28, 347-62.
- Kodde, A. & Ritzen, J. (1994): "Direct and Indirect Effects of Parental Education Level on the Demand for Higher Education." *The Journal of Human Resources* XXVIII (4), 356-71.
- DK & Tromp DLA (2006) *proposal and theses writing*. An introduction. Paulines publications. Africa Nairobi.
- Levhari D. & Weiss, Y. (1974): "*The Effect of Risk on the Investment in Human Capital*."

The American Economic Review 64(6), 950-63.

Levin, H., Belfield, C., Meuninger, P., & Rouse, C. (2007). The costs and benefits of an excellent education for all of America's children. Retrieved October 2, 2008, from http://www.cbcse.org/media/download_gallery/Leeds_Report_Final_Jan2007.pdf

Longwell-Grice, R. (2003). Get a job: Working class students discuss the purpose of college. *The College Student Affairs Journal*, 23(1), 42-53.

Maddala, G.S. (1983): *Limited-dependent and Qualitative Variables in Econometrics*. Cambridge University Press.

Maduakolam, I. (2000). Career development theories and their implications for high school career guidance and counseling. *High School Journal*, 83(2), 28. Retrieved July 3, 2008,

Maine Compact for Higher Education. (2007). Indicators of higher education attainment in Maine: College as a right and responsibility of all Maine people. Retrieved May 9, 2008, from http://www.collegeforme.com/pdf/HigherEdIndicators_aug07.pdf

McDonough, P.M. (1997). *Choosing colleges: How social class and schools structure opportunity*. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press. 95

Manski, C.F. & Lerman, S.R. (1977): "The Estimation of Choice Probabilities from Choice Based Samples." *Econometric* 45(8), 1977-88.

Manski, C.F. & Wise, D.A. (1983): *College choice in America*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge, Massachusetts, an London, England.

McFadden, D. (1974): "Conditional Logit analysis of Qualitative Choice Behaviour", in

- Economic Theory and Mathematical Economics*, Ed. Paul Zarembka, Academic Press
New York, San Francisco.
- McFadden, D. (1981): "*Econometric Models of Probabilistic Choice*" in *Structural Analysis of Discrete Data with Econometric Applications*, Ed. By Manski and McFadden.
- Menon, E. M. (1998). Factors influencing the demand for higher education: *the case of Cyprus*, *Higher Education* 35, 251-266.
- Meyer, J. H. (1970). High school effects on college intentions, *American Journal of Sociology* 76, 59-70.
- Mincer, J. (1974): Schooling, Experience, and Earnings, National Bureau of Economic Research, New York.
- Mugenda O.M & Mugenda A.G (1999) Research Methods; *Quantitative and Qualitative approaches*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Mugenda O.M & Mugenda A.G (2003) Research methods: *Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: ACTS Press
- Moore, H. L. (1988). *Feminism and anthropology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- National Association for College Admission Counseling. (2006). *Effective counseling in schools increases college access*. Retrieved July 9, 2008,
- National Postsecondary Education Cooperative. (2007). Deciding on postsecondary education: Final report. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
Retrieved July 7, 2008, from

- Nelson, J. I. (1972). High school context and college plans: *the impact of social structure on aspirations*, *American Sociological Review* 37, 143-148.
- Okumbe, J. A (2007) *Educational Management, theory and practice* Nairobi University Press.
- Olson, L. & Rosenfeld, R.A. (1984). Parents and the process of gaining access to student financial aid. *Journal of Higher Education*, 55(4), 455-480.
- Orodho, A. J & Kombo, D. K (2002). *Research Methods*. Nairobi: Kenyatta University, Institute of open learning.
- Pasacharopoulos, G. (1981). "Return to Education an Updated International Comparison" in *The Economic Value of education*, Blaug M. *The International Library of Critical Writings in Economic*,, 52-80. '
- Pasacharopoulos, G. (1985). "Returns to Education: a Further International Update and Implications" *The Journal of Human Resource*, XX, 4, 583-604.32
- Pasacharopoulos, G. (1994). "Returns to Investment in Education: A Global Update" *World Development*. 22,9, 1325-1343.
- Parsons, D. (1974). "The Cost of School Time, Foregone Earnings, y Human Capital Formation." *Journal of Political Economy* 82(2), 251-66.
- Payne, R. K. (2005). A framework for understanding poverty. *Highlands, TX: Aha! Process, Inc.*

- Plank, S.B., & Jordan, W.J. (2001). Effects of information, guidance, and actions on postsecondary destinations: A study of talent loss. *American Educational Research Journal*, 38(4), 947-980.
- P.J., Whittemore, R.W., Wine, J.S., et al. (1996). Beginning postsecondary Students longitudinal study second follow-up (BPS:90/94) technical report. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Pratt, P.A. & Skaggs, C.T. (1989). First-generation college students: *Are they at greater risk for attrition than their peers?* *Research in Rural Education*, 6(2).
- Renchler, R. (1992). School leadership and student motivation (ERIC Digest No. 71).
- Samarge, S.P. (2006). Creating a college culture at the elementary school level. University of California Los Angeles, 2006. *(Doctoral dissertation)* Retrieved July 8, 2009,
- Sander, W. (1992). The effects of ethnicity and religion on educational attainment, *Economics of Education Review* 11, 119-135.
- Schultz, J.L. & Higbee, J.L. (2007). Reasons for attending college: *The student point of view.* *Research & Teaching in Developmental Education*. Retrieved June 2, 2009,
- Stage, F. K., & Hossler, D. (1989). Differences in family influences on college attendance plans for male and female ninth graders. *Research in Higher Education*, 30, 301-315.
- Stewart, E.B. Stewart, E.A., & Simons, R.L. (2007). The effect of neighborhood context on the college aspirations of African-American adolescents. *American*

Educational Research Journal, 44 (4).

Terenzini, P.T., Cabrera, A.F., & Bernal, E.M. (2001). Swimming against the tide: *The poor in American higher education*. College Board Research Report No. 2001-1. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Thayer, P.B. (2000, May). Retention of students from first generation and low income backgrounds. (ERIC ED446633). *Opportunity Outlook*.

Tuma, J. & Geis, S. (1995). Educational attainment of 1980 high school sophomores by 1992. *Statistical Analysis Report, NCES 95-304*. Washington, D.C.: U.S.

Venti, S.F. & Wise, D.A. (1983). "Individual Attributes and Self-Selection of Higher Education." *Journal of Public Economics* 21, 1-32.

Williams, J.T. (1979) "Uncertainty and the Accumulation of Human Capital over the Life Cycle." *Journal of Business* 52(4), 521-48.

Willis, R.J. & Rosen, S. (1979): "Education and Self-Selection." *Journal of Political Economy* 87(5).

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

John Muthui

P.O Box 474

Kitui

The Respondents

All teachers in Matinyani District,

Kitui County

Kenya

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: TRANSMITTAL LETTER

I am a Post graduate student at the University of Nairobi pursuing a Masters Degree in Project Planning and Management. As part of the requirements for the award of this degree I am conducting a study on the factors influencing demand for higher education by teachers in Matinyani District, Kitui County. Your school is one of the schools chosen for this study. Therefore I humbly request you to co-operate and assist in filling in the questionnaire. The information you will provide was strictly used for the purpose of this study and your identity was kept confidential. I was very grateful for your co-operation.

Thank you in advance.

Yours faithfully,

John Kasee Muthui

Date

University of Nairobi

APPENDIX II

Questionnaire for Head teachers and teachers

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information on the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District, Kitui County, Kenya. Your response was accorded great confidentiality and will only be used for the purpose of this study. I request you to cooperate in this exercise. Please indicate your option by putting a tick (☑) against one of the multiple choices and in the provided space write your chosen opinion(s).

SECTION A

What is the name of your Zone.....

What is your current position in the institution.....

What is your gender?

Male []

Female []

What is your age bracket in years?

25-30 []

31-40 []

41-50 []

51 and above []

What is your marital status?

Single []

Separated []

Married []

Divorced []

Windowed []

What is your academic qualifications level?

Secondary []

Any other (specify)

College (Diploma) []

.....

University []

.....

What is your highest professional qualification?

Technical teacher []

Masters (M.ED) []

SI/Diploma []

Any other (Specify) []

Graduate (B.ED) []

What is your current job group.

H []

L []

J []

M []

K []

N []

Any other (specify)

.....

Do you belief it is related to your education level?

Yes []

No []

Comment and give reasons for the belief of relationship between your job group and education level.

How many years have you worked in the education sector?

1-5 []

6-10 [] 21-25 []

11-15 [] Above 25 []

16-20 []

Would you attribute your position today with length of service or education level? Give reasons.

The individual factors that influence demand for higher education.

Did the decision to join college come with you as an individual?

Yes []

No []

Was joining higher education a childhood dream? Give reasons for your answer.

The table below has statements which describe the individual factors that influence demand for higher education. To what extent are they agreeable to you?

A- Agree SA –Strongly Agree.

D- Disagree SD – Strongly Disagree.

STATEMENT	A	SA	D	SD
Personal experiences are the biggest motivator to join higher education				

Self efficacy is the main reason for joining higher education				
Belief about expected benefits is the main reason for joining higher education				
Prestige played a key role in making the decision to join higher education				
Personal aspirations have a great influence on the decision to join higher education				
Personal challenges play a big role in joining higher education				

The influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education.

Did the following play any role on your decision to join higher education institution

Peers: Yes []

Family Yes []

No []

No []

Secondary school support

Yes []

No []

The table below has statements which describe the influence of reference groups on the demand for higher education. Tick one that best rates the influence of each.

A- Agree

SA –Strongly Agree.

D- Disagree

SD – Strongly Disagree.

STATEMENT	A	SA	D	SD
Peers are the biggest motivator to join higher education				
Family is the main reason for joining higher education				
Secondary school support is the main reason for joining higher education				
Official acquaintances play a big role in the decision to join higher education				
Informal encouragement play a role in the decision to join higher education				
Former college mates played a role in the decision to join higher education				

Among Peers, Family members and secondary school contacts who played the biggest role in your joining higher education? Give reasons for your answer.

The influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education.

Do you think the following aspects of life play a role in joining higher education?

Social economic class Yes []

No []

Relative functionalism Yes []

No []

The table below has statements which describe the influence of financial considerations on the demand for higher education. Tick one that best rates the influence of each.

A- Agree SA –Strongly Agree.

D- Disagree SD – Strongly Disagree.

STATEMENT	A	SA	D	SD
Social economic class determines the individuals demand for higher education				
The hope of getting pay increase is the main reason for joining higher education				
The prospects to get promoted are the main reason for joining higher education				
Prestige plays a key role in the decision to join higher education				

The influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education

Do you think the following factors influence the demand for higher education?

Availability of institutions Yes []

No []

Government control policies Yes []

No []

Suitable Academic programmes Yes []

No []

The table below has statements which describe the influence of institutional factors on the demand for higher education. Tick one that best rates the influence of each.

A- Agree

SA –Strongly Agree.

D- Disagree

SD – Strongly Disagree.

STATEMENT	A	SA	D	SD
Availability of institutions determines the individuals demand for higher education				
Government control policies are the main reason for joining higher education				
Suitable Academic programmes are the main reason for joining higher education				
Accessibity of the institutions plays a key role in the decision to join higher education				
Flexibility of academic programmes plays a role in the decision to join higher education				
Flexibility of tuition charges by institutions plays a role in the decision to join higher education				
Acquaintance with the institutions previously plays a role in the decision to join higher education				

Why did you choose the university you joined? Give factual reasons.

Thanks for cooperating

APPENDIX IV

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

The purpose of this interview guide is to gather information on the factors influencing the demand for higher education by primary school teachers in Matinyani District, Kitui County, Kenya. Your responses were accorded great confidentiality and will only be used for the purpose of this study. I request you to cooperate in this exercise.

1. Do you think individual factors influence demand for higher education?
2. What are some of the individual factors that you think influence demand for higher education? Give reasons for your answers.
3. In your own opinion which are the three most influential factors influencing demand for higher education? Give some reasons for your answers.
4. Do you believe reference groups have influence on the demand for higher education?
5. In your opinion who among these reference groups has the greatest influence on the decision to join higher education?
6. To what extent do you believe financial considerations influence the demand for higher education?
7. Do you believe that without financial constraints most of the teachers would join higher education? Give reasons for your opinion.
8. In your own opinion, do you think the prospects of getting pay rise are the motivation behind joining higher education? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Do you believe institutional factors like accessibility and flexibility of programmes influence the demand for higher education by primary school teachers?
10. Do you think there is a University of choice by teachers in your school or area while joining higher education? Give reasons for this.

Thanks for your cooperation.