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**AN ASSESSMENT OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE  
FUNCTIONING OF NON-FORMAL SCHOOLS IN KIBERA  
INFORMAL SETTLEMENT, NAIROBI**

**By**

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**A Project Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Award of Degree in Masters  
of Arts in Rural Sociology and Community Development**

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## DECLARATION

This project is my original work. It has not been submitted for a degree in this or any other university.

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ELIAS NGARI IRERI

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DATE

This project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the university supervisor.

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DR. MUTSOTSO

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DATE

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this project to my beloved wife Bibiana Ngare and son, Brian Mureithi.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, I would like to give a special thank to my supervisor, Dr. Mutsotso, for his professional guidance throughout the process of writing this project.

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## ABSTRACT

Since the early 1990s Kenya has witnessed a rapid proliferation of non formal education (NFE) programmes, which has radically altered the contours of the educational field. There has been an increase in the number of non-formal and alternative approaches to basic education programmes despite the introduction of free primary and secondary education by the government as many children are still out of school. The enrolment of NFE increased from 99,979 in 2003 to 143,409 pupils in 2008, an increase of 43.4 percent. Factors which have been found to influence increased enrolment in NFE are lack of parents' ability to meet the high and often prohibitive cost of educating their children such as provision of transport, hidden costs, physical and socio-cultural constraints, such as cultural attitudes and gender bias, low retention, low completion rates and school dropouts. The study sought to determine factors affecting the existence of non-formal education in Kenya with focus on Kibera slum. The objectives were to establish the state of learning conditions, forms and patterns of community participation in the management of NFE culture, socio-economic factors and the level and forms of participation by the learners on non-formal education in Kenya. The study adopted a survey research design in which all the 9,854 learners and 280 teachers in the non formal education centres in Kibera slum were targeted. The study used stratified random sampling method to select 336 pupils from the three locations of Kibera slum. Purposive sampling was used to select 8 headteachers, 8 teachers, one District Education Officer, one County Education Officer 3 chiefs and 3 community members from the sampled centers. The researcher also interviewed the key informants. Data was collected both quantitatively and qualitatively using observation guides, questionnaires and interview schedules. The researcher self administered the research instruments. Data was analysed using both descriptive statistics and content analysis. The study established that the community comprised of community members, parents, NGOs, churches and to a small extent the government. The participation by the community was in forms of building classrooms, buying of school furniture and land for establishment and learning materials. The study further established that most of the schools have classrooms and learners are provided with meals. The study established that the formal and the non-formal education shared in examination, syllabus, co-curricular activities among others. Most of the respondents believe that the poverty has to a large extent influenced the NFE in Kibera as the community view formal education as beyond their reach and therefore believed in overdependence on aids which come in the form of NFE. The study recommended increased government support towards NFE to ensure realization of education for all children, the government should harmonize the formal and the non-formal education, and finally, the government and other stakeholders need to work to support to improve learning conditions for the learners by providing learning facilities

## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<b>AABE:</b>	Alternative Approaches to Basic Education
<b>ADEA:</b>	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
<b>ASAL:</b>	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
<b>CBO:</b>	Community Based Organization
<b>EFA:</b>	Education for All
<b>GER:</b>	Gross Enrolment Rates
<b>GTZ:</b>	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (German Technical Cooperation)
<b>KESSP:</b>	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
<b>MOEST:</b>	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
<b>NFE:</b>	Non Formal Education
<b>NFEC:</b>	Non formal education centre
<b>NGO:</b>	Non Governmental Organizations
<b>OVC:</b>	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
<b>SFRTF:</b>	Street Families Rehabilitation Trust Fund
<b>TIVET:</b>	Technical, Industrial, Vocational, Entrepreneurship Training
<b>UNESCO:</b>	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
<b>UNICEF:</b>	United Nations Children's Fund



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

#### **1.1Background**

The provision of education and training to all Kenyans is fundamental to the success of the Government's overall development strategy. The long-term objective of the Government is to provide every Kenyan with basic quality education and training, including two years of pre-primary, eight years of primary and four years of secondary/technical education. Education also aims at enhancing the ability of Kenyans to preserve and utilize the environment for productive gain and sustainable livelihoods. Further, development of quality human resource is central to the attainment of national goals for industrial development. More importantly, the realization of universal access to basic education and training ensures equitable access to education and training for all children, including disadvantaged and vulnerable groups. Therefore, education is necessary for the development and protection of democratic institutions and human rights (GoK, 2005)

In Kenya, a great majority of the population perceive education and training as factors that influence development in important ways. The experience of developed countries and world wide research findings bear witness that education and training are positively correlated with development. The role of education can be summarised as assisting the establishment of human resource base necessary for the generation of wealth and, more important, its application to the creation of a higher standard of living and improved standard of life. Although education and training play a major role in imparting skills that complement capital in the production of wealth, the human resource base comprises more than the labour force. Providers of education and training include both the state and the private sector. The Ministry of Education, Human Resource and Development is in charge of Early Childhood Care and Development Education, Primary Education, Secondary Education, University education, vocational and technical training. The

Ministry of Culture and Social Services has general responsibility for Adult and Continuing Education, and is involved in education programmes for out of school youth, and manages the adult literacy programme. Provision of education through non public sector takes two forms. First NGOs (including religious organizations) and donors collaborate with the state in management and financing of public education training system. Second, private entrepreneurs have set up institutions catering for learners at all levels of education and training.

The national education system has evolved over time, with major changes having been instituted in the 1980s. In 1984, the 7-4-2-3 structure and system was replaced with the 8-4-4 structure and system, which introduced a broad-based curriculum at all, levels. The 8-4-4 system was intended to make education more relevant to the world of work and thus produce skilled and high-level manpower to meet the demands of the economy. Delegates at the National Conference on Education and Training, held between 27<sup>th</sup> and 29<sup>th</sup> June 2003, noted that both 7-4-2-3 system and 8-4-4 structure provide 16 years of schooling and emphasized that the content of the curriculum combined with the quality and relevance of education and training, are more important than a structure. In addition, there is debate among most countries offering 'A' Level and General Certificate of Education on reforming their education system. It is apparent from the debate that these systems do not offer the mastery of skills required by employers and universities. These countries including UK are likely to restructure their education system (Nziwa, 2008).

The scope of the 8-4-4 structure and system was expanded to incorporate technical skills and pre-primary education (4-5 year old children). The primary education cycle caters for learners of between 6-13 years; and secondary education targets learners of 14-17 years, while university education targets learners of 18 years and above. The (TIVET) catchments population includes youth who for some reasons or another do not continue to enroll in the regular education system either at primary, secondary school middle level colleges or university levels (Sifuna, 1998).

Although the 8-4-4 structure and system was supposed to be progressive through (TIVET), the system did not prepare the primary level graduates well enough to enter the

self-sector. In addition, it does not cater for the disadvantaged, those with special needs and those outside the formal education system. Consequently, many school age children have remained uncatered for. Other challenges associated with the 8-4-4 education system include; an overloaded curriculum, high cost to parents, limited provision of learning and teaching materials, and limited resources to cater for operational and maintenance costs (Sifuna, 1998). Although the origin of non formal education is not quite documented, there is evidence it began in 1976 but the formal curriculum in the ministry in collaboration with Undugu Society of Kenya was developed in 1987. The curriculum targeted children above the school joining age, who lacked opportunity to join the formal school.

The alarmingly high rate of dropouts from primary and secondary schools and lack of access to basic education opportunities can be explained in part, by lack of parents' ability to meet the high and often prohibitive cost of educating their children such as provision of transport to and from school and buying of other school necessities such as school uniform. Physical and other socio-cultural constraints, such as cultural attitudes and gender bias, as far as low preference for educating girls is concerned, are the other reasons for lack of access, low retention, low completion rates and dropouts. A high proportion of the dropouts end up in non-formal schools which shows that it is a viable alternative or rescue for many Kenyans. Therefore it is an area of national importance towards attainment of Vision 2030 and education for all.

The dynamics of the Non-Formal Education (NFE) (out-of-school) situation in Kenya cannot be fully understood without an in-depth understanding of the formal basic education sub-sector which has over the years been grappling with a number of challenges that have impacted negatively on the provision of social services, including education. Since the early 1990s Kenya has witnessed a rapid proliferation of non formal education programmes, which has radically altered the contours of the educational field. There has been an increase in the number of non-formal and alternative approaches to basic education programmes. Despite the introduction of free primary and subsidized

secondary education by the government many children are still out of school (Nzomo et al., 2000).

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

The enrolment of NFE increased from 99,979 in 2003 to 143,409 pupils in 2008 representing an increase of 43.4 percent. The increasing number of NFE has been linked to the many challenges facing the formal education that have impacted negatively on the provision of social services, including education. The increasing enrolment shows NFE is a viable opportunity for hundreds of thousands of Kenyans locked out of the formal system. Ouma (2004) revealed that prior to the introduction of FPE, the enrolment rate of children in schools was declining. However the enrolment rate changed with the introduction of FPE implying that enrolment was affected by the policies of cost sharing policies introduced by the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth and Sessional Paper No. 6 of 1988 on Education and Manpower Training for Next Decade and Beyond (Nzomo et al., 2000). The government has also realized that out of school youths were many and the only way to address their educational problems was the support and recognition of the non formal education. Non Formal Education (NFE) was initiated as a means through which the problem of out-of school children and youth would be addressed. NFE is increasingly becoming necessary and complementary component of a comprehensive strategy to provide education for all. In its long term development blue print, the Vision 2030, the government intends to develop educational programmes to upgrade skills on non-formal and out of school operators (GoK, 2007). This shows that NFE is a priority since it has received government recognition hence an important area of social inquiry.

Several studies have been done on non formal education for instance Juma (2011) studied the development of con-formal education programmes in community learning centres in Indonesia where he found that the communities were involved in programme development through the local councils. However, Carron and Carr-Hill (1991) focused on non-formal education information and planning. Ekundayo (2000) on non formal education in urban Kenya established that non formal education in Kenya was

characterized by poverty as most of the centres were found in the slums. The study also established that the large percentage of the non formal pupils were dropouts of formal schools. While these studies highlight the existence of non formal education in various parts of the world, little has been done on the factors influencing the operations of non formal education. Little is known about how the non-formal schools function, their operations and factors that influence how they function. This study is modeled around finding out how the schools operate in a non-formal set-up. Further the involvement of stakeholders, the community and the students in non-formal education in Kenya remains scarcely understood in terms of their contribution and role. This study is designed to access the level and forms of participation of the stakeholders including how non-formal education interacts with formal education structures in the mainstream.

### **1.3 Research questions**

The study seeks to address the following research questions:

- i. What are the learning conditions in non formal education in Kibera?
- ii. To what extent are the communities involved in non formal education?
- iii. Is there any relationship between formal and non formal education?
- iv. What is the effect of socio-economic factors on the existence of non-formal education in informal settlement?

### **1.4 General objective**

To determine factors affecting the existence of non-formal education in Kenya: a case study of Nairobi slums.

#### **1.4.1 Specific objectives**

The specific objectives of the research study were to;

- i. To establish the state of learning conditions on non-formal education in informal settlements
- ii. To find out patterns of community participation in the management of non-formal education

- iii. To establish how the NFE interacts with the formal system of education.
- iv. To examine the effect of socio-economic factors on the existence of non-formal education in informal settlements.

### **1.5 Justification**

The increasing numbers of enrolment shows that it is an important alternative to education for thousands of those locked out of the formal system. The fact that it is an avenue for hundreds of thousands of Kenyans shows it is of national significance hence an important area of study. The research findings may be of significance to the future research bodies as it may add to the existing body of knowledge on the factors influencing the existence of non-formal education in Kenya. The researchers may as well use the document as a reference point for future research. Conversely, the policy makers in the education sectors may also benefit as they will initiate or rather come up with policy that addresses the mentioned factors. The study will generate data information about the status of NFE in Kibera and also bring out issues on how it links with the formal system of education. Since it is largely not within the education mainstream, the study will generate challenges faced by NFE that can be used to address the issues affecting it in future.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study**

The scope of this study is limited to status of non-formal schools, enrolment, identification of stakeholders and their roles, forms and patterns of participation by the learners, concerns of the learners, interactions between non-formal schools and the formal school system and socio-economic factors that influence the functioning of non-formal schools.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews literature that is pertinent to the study. Included in the related literature review are; the concepts of social cultural change, political development, learning materials, financial resources and management/ leadership. The theory used in this study was cultural deprivation theory.

#### **2.1 Education in Kenya**

In Kenya, both government and great majority of the population perceive education and training as factors that influence development in important ways. The experience of developed countries and world wide research findings bear witness that education and training are positively correlated with development. The role of education can be summarised as assisting the establishment of human resource base necessary for the generation of wealth and, more important, its application to the creation of a higher standard of living and improved standard of life. Although education and training play a major role in imparting skills that complement capital in the production of wealth, the human resource base comprise more than the labour force. Providers of education and training include both the state and the private sector. The ministry of education, Science and Technology is in charge of early childhood care and development education, primary education, secondary education, University education, vocational and technical training. The ministry of culture and social services has general responsibility for adult and continuing education, is involved in education programmes for out of school youth, and manages the adult literacy programme. Provision of education through non public sector takes two forms. First NGOs (including religious organizations) and donors collaborate with the state in management and financing of public education training system. Second, private entrepreneurs have set up institutions catering for learners at all levels of education and training.

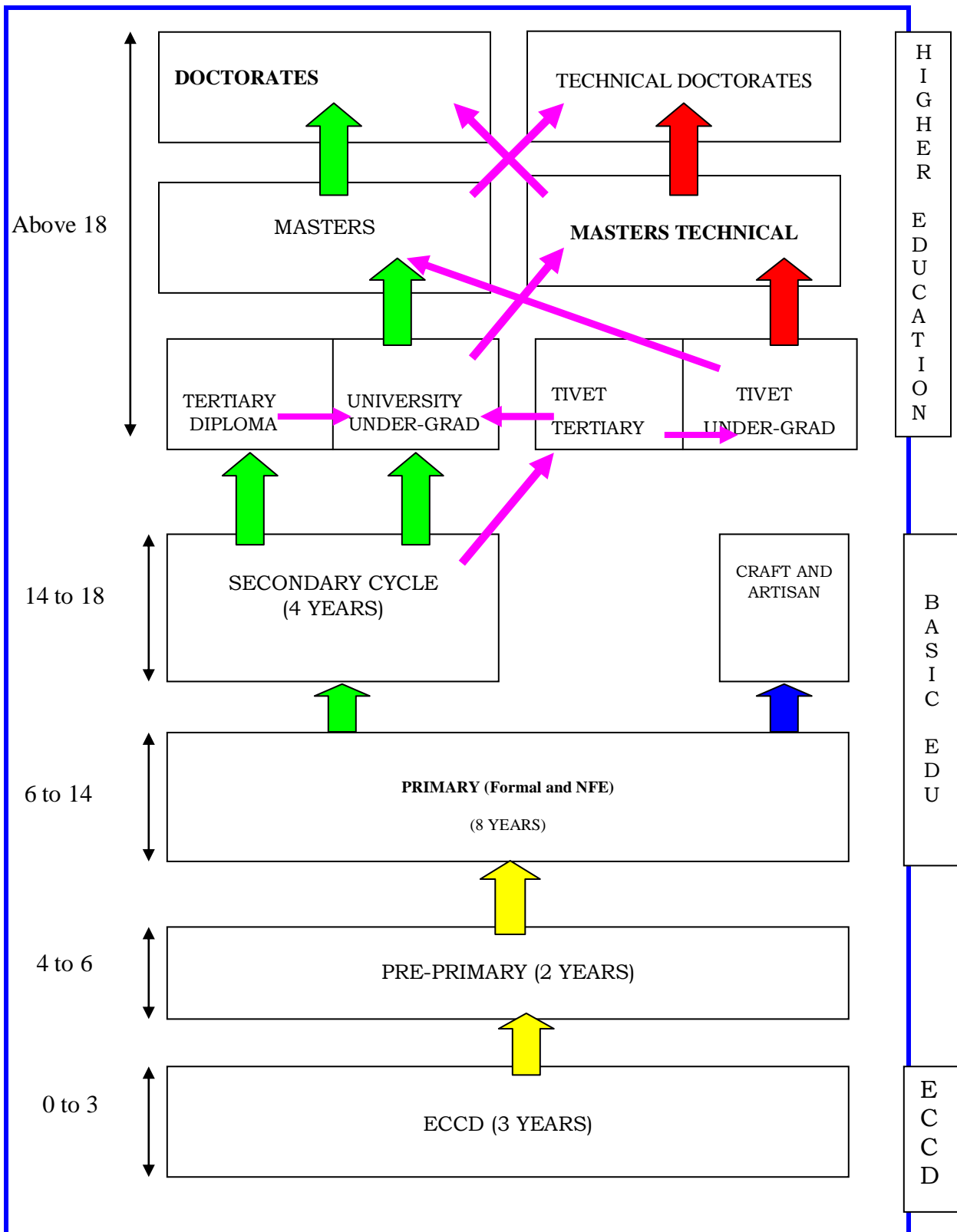
The national education system has evolved over time, with major changes having been instituted in the 1980s. In 1984, the 7-4-2-3 structure and system was replaced with the 8-4-4 structure and system, which introduced a broad-based curriculum at all levels. The 8-4-4 system was intended to make education more relevant to the world of work and thus produce skilled and high-level manpower to meet the demands of the economy. Delegates at the National Conference on Education and Training, held between 27<sup>th</sup> and 29<sup>th</sup> June 2003, noted that both 7-4-2-3 system and 8-4-4 structure provide 16 years of schooling and emphasized that the content of the curriculum combined with the quality and relevance of education and training, are more important than a structure. In addition, there is debate among most countries offering ‘A’ Level and General Certificate of Education on reforming their education system. It is apparent from the debate that these systems do offer the mastery of skills required by employers and universities. These countries including UK are likely to restructure their education system.

The scope of the 8-4-4 structure and system was expanded to incorporate technical skills and pre-primary education (4-5 year old children). The primary education cycle caters for learners of between 6-13 years; and secondary education targets learners of 14-17 years, while university education targets learners of 18 years and above. The TIVET catchments population includes youth who for some reasons or another do not continue to enroll in the regular education system either at primary, secondary school or university levels.

Although the 8-4-4 structure and system was supposed to be progressive through TIVET, the system did not prepare the primary level graduates well enough to enter the sub-sector. In addition, it does not cater for the disadvantaged, those with special needs and those outside the formal education system. Consequently, many school age children have remained uncatered for. Other challenges associated with the 8-4-4 education system include; an overloaded curriculum, high cost to parents, limited provision of learning and teaching materials, and limited resources to cater for operational and maintenance costs.



Figure 1.1: Structure and Organization of Education and Training



Source: Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 on education and training.

## 2.2 Concept of Non-Formal Education

The widely held assumption in the 1960s about education being the master key to unlock the doors of *development* and *modernisation* mostly relied on formal schooling as the sole vehicle of education. It was believed that formal schooling was the major determinant in the development process in the existing advanced and modern societies. Therefore, the adoption of a western model of formal education would, presumably, provide the best answers to the third world's development and are still allocating a large part of their national budget to formal education. Along the same lines, most donor agencies and countries, either through bilateral or multilateral assistance programmes, focused their efforts on the development of formal education. In almost all third world countries there was a complete and indiscriminate adhesion to the educational forms, methods and rituals of western advanced societies. But schools everywhere in emerging countries failed to meet their developmental promises. Thus, Coombs (1968) talked about the crisis in world education. The crisis took several forms of expression, such as lack of educational equality, shortages of funds, and problems of unemployment among school leavers. According to Ahmed (1975) one of the major elements of the crisis was the increasing rise of educational costs.

In an attempt to solve the “crisis”, Coombs (1968) advocated the adoption of non-formal education programmes and practices as a substitute or a complementary form of education to permit developing countries to “catch up, keep up and get ahead” by firstly, reaching the maximum of people with applicable knowledge and skills; secondly, upgrading the competence of partially qualified individuals, and thirdly, salvaging the investment in primary and secondary unqualified and unskilled school-leavers. Teaching, by itself, does not constitute learning; neither does passive listening. Learner's must decide to incorporate any knowledge, skill or attitude into their own set of values and behaviors (lifestyle), or the learning is not meaningful. Learning happens outside the classroom as well as within. Some learning results from teachers and some does not. Some learning is intended and some is accidental.

Most of the general population assume that education and schooling are interchangeable terms. Many educators seem to feel that any education that happens outside of school is somehow inferior, usually dubious, and certainly uncontrolled. Other educators and many philosophers point out that learning takes place inside and outside of classrooms. I believe that learning occurs in formal, nonformal, and informal educational settings and that the learning experience can be equally powerful in each of those settings. Formal education is properly associated with schools. A more precise definition is supplied by Coombs (1973), the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded educational system running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programs and institutions for full-time technical and professional training.

Nonformal (NFE) has been defined (Kleis, 1973) as any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside of traditional schooling) in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the pupils (or unique situations) in order to maximize learning and minimize other elements which often occupy formal school teachers (i.e. taking roll, enforcing discipline, writing reports, supervising study hall, etc.). Nonformal education is more learner centered than most formal education. It has to be. Learners can leave anytime they are not motivated. NFE tends to emphasize a cafeteria curriculum (options, choices) rather than the prescribed, sequential curriculum found in schools. In NFE human relationships are more informal (roles of teachers and pupils are less rigid and often switch) than in schools where pupil-teacher and teacher-administrator roles are hierarchical and seldom change in the short term. NFE focuses on practical skills and knowledge while schools often focus on information which may have delayed application. Overall NFE has a lower level of structure (and therefore more flexibility) than schools.

Even less structured is informal education which deals with everyday experiences which are not planned or organized (incidental learning). When these experiences are interpreted or explained by elders or peers they constitute informal education (Kleis, 1973). Some examples will help clarify formal, nonformal, and informal education.

Formal education occurs in a typical public high school classroom. Nonformal education occurs with such organizations as 4-H and Scouts which are less structured than schools, allowing youth more choices, providing less curricular sequencing, and enforcing it even less.

Learning is controlled by the learners who may drop out any time without penalties. As a result educators must emphasize those skills, knowledge, and attitudes which are desired by the learners. Content is more practical, therefore, and responsibility for discipline shifts from teacher to learner. An example of informal education is when infants and young children are learning to speak. They learn by listening and imitating (Ekundayo, 2001). Their trial and error efforts are augmented by parents, siblings, and friends who encourage correct sounds and spontaneously correct errors. Extension education is non-formal education with only a few exceptions. Although extension agents may take advantage of learning opportunities which arise serendipitously, to call extension work “informal education” is inaccurate (Ekundayo, 2001).

A secondary vocational agriculture program is difficult to fit into one of the three categories because it has elements of all three. Work in class which is tested and graded is typical of formal education. Much of the EFA and supervised occupational experience activities are typical of non-formal education. When pupils’ everyday experiences are interpreted and augmented by their peers or parents this is typical of informal education. All three types of education provide powerful learning opportunities. The most effective teacher is one who allows and helps learning to take place during situations which fit all three types of education. This may be done intentionally or instinctively. While formal and non-formal educations are different, they are not opposites. Both emphasize organized and intentional learning. Both involve structure, professional educators, and choices by learners. Responsibility for learning is shared among educators and learners. The differences are more a matter of degree in each of these types of education (Ekundayo, 2001).

### **2.3 Non-Formal Education in Kenya**

The dynamics of the non-formal education (out-of-school) situation in Kenya cannot be fully understood without an in-depth understanding of the formal basic education sub-sector which has over the years been grappling with a number of challenges that have impacted negatively on the provision of social services, including education (Ekundayo, 2000). These challenges are a consequence of low economic growth, and the effects of the structural adjustment programme which has necessitated reduction of expenditure on education and other social services. Consequently, parents and households have had to assume more responsibility for the education of their children (Ekundayo, 2000). This additional responsibility has come at a time of escalating costs, reduced incomes and widespread poverty. The alarmingly high rate of dropouts from primary and secondary schools and lack of access to basic education opportunities can be explained in part, by lack of parents' ability to meet the high and often prohibitive cost of educating their children (Ekundayo, 2000). Physical and other socio-cultural constraints, such as cultural attitudes and gender bias, as far as low preference for educating girls is concerned, are the other reasons for lack of access, low retention, low completion rates and dropouts. Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) dropped from 95 per cent in 1989 to 75.9 per cent in 1998 (6-14 cohort). Completion rates were less than 50 per cent. It is estimated that approximately 55 per cent of the 5.8 million primary school pupils drop out before completing the 8 year primary cycle (Yildiz, *Situational Analysis of Basic Education in Kenya, 1999*).

**Table 1: Primary Education Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) per Year Between 1990-1999**

<b>Year</b>	<b>GER</b>
1990	101.8
1991	91.4
1992	91.0
1993	87.8
1994	88.5
1995	86.5
1996	86.4
1997	87.7
1998	88.8
1999	87.1

Source: Ouma, 2004

As a consequence of high dropouts and low retention, transition rates declined with less than 45 per cent of the completers of primary schooling transiting to secondary schools. The arid and semi-arid lands (ASAL) are badly affected by the situation described above in view of the general situation of marginalisation and poverty prevalent. It is a scenario of a bad situation getting worse with completion rates between 12 per cent and 35 per cent (Yildiz, *op. cit.*), and an acute under-participation of girls. These problems are compounded by such critical issues as low quality provision and questionable relevance of the curriculum, given the cultural ethos of the ASAL.

According to the 2009 population and Housing Census, 4.2 million persons had never been to school. (cf. Central Bureau of Statistics, 2009 Population and Housing Census) This has tremendous implications for non-formal education.

Over the last few years, a number of significant developments have taken place in the domain of non-formal education (NFE) and alternative approaches to basic education (AABE). The Jomtien Conference of 1990 was a motivator but the realization of the need for action in response to the growing number of out-of-school children and youths was the real catalyst for action. In the early '90s the Kenyan Ministry of Education set up a

non-formal education desk which has subsequently been upgraded to a non-formal education unit. It is expected that a department with responsibility for non-formal education will soon evolve. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in collaboration with bilateral partners has formulated draft policy guidelines on NFE which are currently being discussed with a view to finalizing them.

Under the aegis of the Government of Kenya – UNICEF Programme of Cooperation in Non-Formal Education, non-formal schools and centers have received various types of support towards quality provision of education. Significant progress has also been made in the area of partnership and collaboration (Ekundayo, 2000). The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ), United Nations Children's Fund, (UNICEF), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development through the Department of Adult Education, NGOs, CBOs, Universities and the print media have collaborated to influence policy with regard to NFE and AABE through capacity building, research and studies and analysis of successful experiences (Ekundayo, 2000). The Maralal Stakeholders' Forum in March 2000, examined NFE and AABE in Kenya<sup>1</sup>. It was followed by a national symposium in April at which the Kenya Country Working Group on NFE was launched. Several follow-up meetings of the Working Group have been held to operationalize its terms of reference and to formulate a plan of operation. The support of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) towards the formation and consolidation of the Working Group is significant in the development of NFE, in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2005). In December 2000, Kenya hosted an experts' meeting on a NFE Information System; it was jointly sponsored by UNESCO and ADEA. Efforts are now underway to establish a database on NFE in Kenya.

**Table 2: Number of Non-formal Education Enrolment by Province**

	2003			2007			2008		
	Boys	girls	Total	Boys	girls	Total	Boys	girls	Total
Coast	4,198	3,544	7,742	4,985	5,405	10,930	5,020	5,463	10,483
Central	582	422	1,004	643	876	1,539	720	950	1,670
Eastern	443	397	840	789	758	1,547	834	765	1,599
Nairobi	40,518	36,790	77,308	46,830	44,167	90,997	52,345	59,450	11,1795
Rift Valley	1,615	1,680	3,295	1,642	2,804	4,446	1,723	3,120	4,843
Western	1,308	547	1,855	875	1,298	2,173	920	1,287	2,207
Nyanza	2,195	1,886	4,081	2,405	2,907	5,312	2,542	3,010	5,552
North Eastern	2,489	1,365	3,854	1,661	3,320	4,981	1,720	3,540	5,260
Totals	53,348	46,631	99,979	59,830	58,555	12,1385	65,824	77,585	14,3409

Source: Ministry of Education (2009)

Under the aegis of the GTZ-assisted Post-Literacy Project, a study of eighty-eight non-formal schools and centers was conducted by Ekundayo Thompso (2001) in three urban areas. The findings of the study have been widely disseminated and are being used to advocate for policy in favour of NFE, and to take programmatic action to respond to the learning needs of the NFE clientele. A national conference on Children in Need of Special Protection and Care was organized by the Kenya Government in August 2001. Provision of education for all children was one of the topics discussed. This conference was preceded by two conferences on basic education, and youth organized earlier in the year. All of the above-mentioned activities indicate the importance of action, at both the global and local levels, to call attention to the need for non-formal education and alternative approaches to basic education in pursuit of the goal of education for all.

### 2.3.1 Education Act

According to the Kenya Education Policy, the government does not provide direct support to the majority of non-formal schools and non-formal education centres-based programmes; rather it provides a policy and broad framework for a wide range of non-governmental and community-based education service providers. The Government set up



a Street Families Rehabilitation Trust Fund (SFRTF) under the Office of the Vice-President and the Ministry of Home Affairs. The SFRTF, comprising of key ministries, the private sector, and development partners, moved street children and families from Nairobi city streets with a plan to rehabilitate them and re-integrate them back to society. The aim was also to enable school-age children and youth to benefit from FPE (MOEST, 2005).

In the past two years, 250 children have joined public schools, while over 1,000 youth, including teenage mothers, have gained vocational and HIV/AIDS life skills training. Under the same Ministry, a national steering committee has been established and is developing a Cabinet Memorandum on Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs). The MOEST is represented in both the SFRTF and the national committee. In addition, the MOEST has piloted FPESP support funding in 59 NFSs and NFECs in Nairobi and plans to expand coverage (MOEST, 2005).

The Government encourages all school age children to enrol in formal primary schools but due to the various challenges, such as overcrowded informal urban settlements, HIV/AIDS pandemic, child labour, nomadic livelihoods and harmful cultural practices, not all children are able to enroll in formal schools. This calls for the provision of quality complementary education for the un-reached children and youth using both formal and NFE curriculum (currently under finalization by KIE). Thus, the MOEST plans to support community-based NFSs (using formal curriculum) and NFECs (using MOEST NFE curriculum) to provide quality education to disadvantaged and vulnerable children throughout the country. This commitment is articulated in the National Action Plan on Education For All 2003-20157 and in the Sessional Paper (MOEST, 2005).

The MOEST has also developed NFE Policy Guidelines to be finalized, approved and disseminated in the first year of KESSP. The aim is to enhance current efforts with stakeholders so as to guide the sub-sector and ensure that quality education and training is provided through registered NFSs and NFECs across the country (MOEST, 2005).

The MOEST plans to put an institutional framework and systems in place to facilitate mainstreaming of quality education in NFSs and NFECs for 1.5 million school-age children and 200,000 youth by addressing the following key issues:

- i. Finalization, approval and national implementation of the NFE curriculum (pilot testing and evaluation report have been completed);
- ii. Development, approval and implementation of the proposed alternative curriculum for secondary schools. This includes the development of syllabus and relevant teaching and learning materials, as well as teacher orientation/training on the curriculum;
- iii. Approval and dissemination of the national NFE policy guidelines;
- iv. Strengthening the capacity of the MOEST for coordination, monitoring, evaluation and assessment of NFSs and NFECs;
- v. Mainstreaming and enhancing support, including FPESP, teacher, inservice and pre-service training, curriculum development, supervision and assessment, quality assurance and standards and other professional support for children learning in NFSs and NFECs;
- vi. Updating and expanding the national NFSs and NFECs database (NFEMIS) and linkages with the mainstream Educational Management Information System (EMIS); and
- vii. Teachers' support for improved quality and equity

The MOEST finalize, approve and implement the NFE curriculum, particularly for primary school age learners who enter at different ages including working children, nomadic children, street children, adolescent mothers and others. It will develop Syllabus, provide training and learning materials, training of trainers, training of teachers, management committees and staff, and develop a national equivalence framework thus creating linkages for learners from both formal and NFE programmes at all levels of education and training. The government also intends to have an alternative secondary education curriculum for learners in NFE centers to sit for KCSE. This is to ensure that those who enter through NFEC have the opportunity to access further learning. The

contemporary NFE curriculum is equivalent with the formal secondary school curriculum. The policy allows for the NFE learners to sit for the KCSE (MOEST, 2005).

### **2.3.2 Objectives of Non-Formal Education in Kenya**

The objectives of Non-Formal Education are to: develop literacy, numeracy, creativity and communication skills; enjoy learning and to develop desire to continue learning; develop ability for critical thinking and logical judgment; appreciate and respect the dignity of work; develop desirable social standards, moral/ethical and religious values; develop into self-disciplined, physically fit and healthy persons; develop aesthetic values and capacity to appreciate own and other people's cultures and to develop awareness and appreciation of the environment. Its other objectives develop awareness and appreciation of other nations and the international community; develop respect and love for own country and the need for harmonious co-existence; develop individual talents for the benefit of self and others; promote social responsibility and make proper use of leisure time and to develop awareness and appreciation of the role of technology in national development (Ekundayo, 2000).

### **2.3.3 Basic Non-Formal Education Programme**

The basic NFE curriculum is broad in nature and provides the learners with the opportunity to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for their individual and national development. It is flexible and has linkages and equivalences with the formal education. The flexibility allows entry, dropping out and re-entry at any level. The target group for this curriculum is out-of-school children and youth aged 6-17 years (Ekundayo, 2000).

The curriculum is structured in three levels (I, II and III) each of which takes two years to complete. This is an accelerated education programme which enables learners to complete within six years taking in cognizance some learner's advanced age and experiences. The curriculum has vertical and horizontal linkages and equivalences with formal education curriculum. In each level, learners are expected to acquire the same competences as learners in the corresponding levels in the formal education. Level I is

equivalent to Formal Education Standard 1-4, Level II Standard 5-6 and Level III Standard 7-8 (Ekundayo, 2000).

### **2.3.3 Subjects offered in Basic NFE Programme**

Academic subjects include: English; First Language (Mother Tongue); Kiswahili; Arabic; Science; Mathematics; Social Studies; Christian Religious Education (CRE) and Islamic Religious Education (IRE). The first language will be offered at Level I only; Learners will take one of the Religious Education subjects offered i.e CRE and IRE and Arabic language will be offered as an optional subject.

Technical/Trade subjects include: Agriculture; Art and Craft; Garment Making; Wood Work; Masonry; Welding and Fabrication; Motor Vehicle Mechanics and Home Science In this category of subjects, the learner will be expected to take one (1) technical/trade subject. Support subjects include Basic Geometry and Entrepreneurship The two support subjects will help to facilitate learning and application of knowledge and skills acquired in technical/trade subject.

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

## **2.4 Factors Affecting Non Formal Education**

### **2.4.1 The social cultural factors**

The social environment enables people to interact, to learn to live together within the social context. Learning to live together is vital throughout Africa, given the social

diversity. If people are to survive and develop, social literacy must also flourish so that the guns are silenced throughout the region. Most studies on NFE could be categorised as equity-focused; they are attempts to correct some forms of social injustice, mostly characterised by an unequal distribution of educational services which favour urban sectors of third world countries. However, because of their academic training, most of the authors are biased towards the economics of NFE. As a result, very few have addressed specifically the issue of the effect of socio-cultural factors on NFE (LaBelle, 1976; Milton and Papagiannis, 1983; Bock and Papagiannis, 1983).

As a reaction to the “individual centrism” characterising most studies in NFE, LaBelle (1976), in an attempt to demonstrate the instrumentality of NFE in the process of social change, suggested the system centred approach. His underlying assumption was that the social and political structures of societies are the sources of inequality of opportunity among individuals and, thus, any improvement in individuals’ lives must be conditioned by the modification of these structures.

LaBelle (1976) defined social change as implying not only an alteration in people’s behaviour and in the relationship between that behaviour and the respective human and physical environment, but also an alteration in societal rules and structures enabling the new behaviour and relationship to be established. According to him, NFE should be supportive of social change with respect to five strategic principles: understanding the needs of clients; involving clients in their own learning; facilitating the transfer and application of new behaviours to the environment; establishing linkages between the programme and the components of the wider system; and, attending to incentives both internal and external to the programme. LaBelle’s study was limited to Latin America where, according to him, NFE programmes failed to increase the power and prestige of its clients because of behavioural constraints fostered by the social structure.

Another view derived from the modernisation standpoint is provided by Milton and Papagiannis (1983). From this perspective not only does NFE have the potential to provide skills training in various areas, it also does contribute to attitude formation. As

far as society and social change are concerned, NFE seems to be an efficient low-cost strategy to instill modern values while providing opportunities for technical training, literacy, numeracy, modern information in agriculture, family planning and health. As for Bock and Papagiannis (1983), NFE institutions are like social organisations embodied with important socialisation and stratification potential that also “serve as a system of social exchange.”

From a socialisation standpoint, they identified three major functions to be performed through non-formal educational activities:

- (1) Socialisation and Social-Mobility Function, addresses the capacity of NFE institutions to meet societal demands for competent adult participants as well as participants’ chances to move to new socio-economic status and perform new roles;
- (2) Selection and Recruitment Function, is involved in the critical task of obtaining the maximum output possible from social-economic investments in the disadvantaged segment of the population by providing the “cooling-out” function of NFE; and
- (3) The Exchange Function, which is the exchange value of NFE determined by both the clients’ perceptions and the extent to which NFE is linked to the occupational structure of the society. In their conclusion, Bock and Papagiannis suggested that NFE has the potential of widening the gap between the rich and the poor segments of the population. They also argued, following Fagan (1969) and in agreement with LaBelle (1976) that all outcomes depend on the socio-political context and the programme content.

From a cultural point of view, there seems to be implicit support for NFE following Benedict’s (1934) concept of cultural relativity in the sense that there is no universal norm of culture. Similarly, following Durkheim (1956), if each culture is unique then each culture has its own needs to be met through a specific and appropriate kind of education which may include NFE for most developing nations. This analysis seems consistent with Brameld’s (1961) contention that “formal education can only scratch the surface of social and cultural change” for the essence of cultural change lies in the history and daily practices of people which seem to be embodied in most NFE activities. Since cultural diversities and variations are to be taken into consideration in NFE educational

activities, and following Kimbal (1974), the failure to take cultural differences into account turns some educational ideals and practices into farces, and agreeing with Schwartz (1975), that the lack of cultural continuity between school and home turns school socialisation into a more acculturative mode.

NFE is unquestionably an ideal complement, if not a substitute to formal schooling, in the process of education and cultural development. As such, NFE should be conceived, as Nyerere (1976) suggested, as a two stage strategy: firstly, as an instrument to inspire a desire for change, and secondly, as a way to identify what kind of change is needed and what is the best way of inducing it. In summary, it is the contention of the authors that, in spite of some important criticisms, most of which are expressed from a radical perspective, NFE seems to provide a better answer to the cumulative developmental problems facing most third world countries. We also contend that the overemphasis of the existing literature on rural areas does not detract from the potential of NFE to contribute to national development including development of urban areas.

Another reason is that the inefficiency of the formal school system, added to the ever-increasing migration of “uneducated” or partially educated youth from the rural areas create an unprecedented number of unemployed in cities and their peripheries. As a result, there is a pressing need for NFE programmes in urban areas for many developing countries. Although interest in NFE appeared to have waned in the 90s, there are indications of resurgence (Okech, 2004). This is due to a combination of factors including the large number of out-of-school youths, increasing levels of poverty and the seemingly intractable problems which have bedeviled the formal education system. The World Conference on Education for All and subsequent international conferences in the 1990s, have undoubtedly contributed to the apparent revival of interest in NFE.

#### **2.4.2 Economic Factors**

The economic environment is very important in terms of poverty alleviation plans. Economic literacy becomes central to alleviating poverty, as people have to understand the dynamics of why they are poor. Financial constraints on post-conflict reconstruction programmes often lead to the neglect of educational needs of the present generation in

favour of the next. Evidence suggests, however, that improving adult literacy and numeracy levels can help promote peace building and reconciliation (Okech, 2004).

At the pre-biennial Symposium and Exhibition on the Dynamics of Non-Formal Education held in Johannesburg South Africa, in 1999, it was clear that non-governmental organisations (NGOs), which were very active during the apartheid era, now have inadequate funding. The reasons provided for lack of funding included development agencies transferring the funds, which used to go to NGOs for NFE, to government, as well as NGOs misappropriation of funds (Okech, 2004). Benoit Ouoba wanted to know how the stakeholders were going to deal with this serious problem.

According to Rajabu who attended the Johannesburg meeting, he was of the opinion that it was vital that NFE be provided with a fair share of the education budget: “The tendency in all our countries is to treat NFE as the poor cousin of formal education.” While Michel Carton was of the opinion that development agencies should fund the professional development of NFE educators and skills development programmes. He concurred with Prinsloo that it is important for the South African NFE programme to develop a national identity. The NFE policy should incorporate major reforms such as building bridges between formal and non-formal education, exchange of ideas at national, regional and international levels and the formation of NFE country working groups in which all stakeholders are represented and working in partnership (Okech, 2004).

However, in practical terms, financing non formal education in Nigeria takes into account the following cost categories: the personnel costs incurred at different levels; the instructors/ facilitators’ costs; course fees (tuition, examination, instructional materials, etc); equipment and materials; building and facilities used for classes; administration, especially fuel, subsistence and other transport costs and; learners cost (opportunity costs /earning forgone).

Okech (2004) identifies a number of problems or difficulties involved in having access to information on financing of adult education in Uganda. There is the difficulty on having



access to adult and non-formal education programmes which may be due to the complexity of activities that constitute adult education. The diversity of provision, without focus or co-ordination, complicated the effort to identify the budgets or expenditure dedicated to adult education. In many cases, budgets that serve adult education are not in budget line explicitly designed as adult education.

What Okech (2004) reported in Uganda is similar to the difficulty being encountered in most African countries. It is in recent years, for example, that local government councils in Nigeria now have votes for community development programmes; this makes department of community development become functional in the local government administration. Furthermore, the Federal and States Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Commerce, Industry and Cooperative carry out adult and non-formal education activities. The budget in these Ministries is not clearly dedicated to adult education. Even some civil society organizations involved in adult education often have adult education as part of other activities and may not necessarily have a distinct budget for it. When these organizations do have distinct budget for adult education, it is often more specifically for adult literacy. One other difficulty is that both government and non governmental organizations are usually reluctant to reveal information on their finances. The consequence of this problem is that there may be the lack of researched information on the economics and financing non formal and related activities.

In the same vein, Appiah–Donyina (2004) found out in Ghana that civil servants who play advocacy roles for the allocation of money to non-formal education do not understand the concept of non-formal education. The result is low budget for the non formal education. The World Bank as well recognizes the need for public, individuals and companies to make contribution in financing education generally. This is contrary to what Appiah-Donyina (2004) found out in Ghana. She found out that the Department of Community Development (DCD) and the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) of the University of Ghana subsist almost entirely on state budgetary allocation. This finding has implication for adult participation and sourcing fund for adult and non formal

education in a growing economy like Kenya so that more people would benefit from adult education programme.

Conversely, according to World Bank (2003), Australia, Canada, Chile, Philippine, Brazil, Namibia, France and Malaysia now device financial schemes funded by the mortgage institutions, government and individual learners to the lifelong education which encompasses various forms of non-formal education and solve aspects of formal education. In Cambodia, there are not sufficient human and financial resources, nor enough institutional capacity currently available in either the government or non-government sector, to adequately meet all the learning needs of the population in a timely way. If the national education goals are to be met by 2015, a tremendous mobilization of resources will be needed. This will require a massive expansion in the capacity of national and provincial authorities to train and support district and commune organizations. Additional external human resources, including those from professional volunteer organizations, will undoubtedly be required to assist for many years. Non-governmental agencies, currently at the forefront of piloting and implementing non-formal education programs, will need to expand their programs. Additionally, there will need to be a correspondingly large increase in multi-lateral and bi-lateral funding from external sources.

### **2.4.3 Learning Conditions**

The quality of education process is enhanced by the availability of teaching and learning materials like textbooks and curriculum as schools becomes more adept at producing their own whole school development plans. At the Johannesburg meeting (1999), there was consensus as to the urgent need to continue developing user friendly, gender sensitive and contextualised materials that provide a scope for good parenting and help business and environmental conservation, based on the needs expressed. It was noted that for effective delivery of NFE, learning materials should move to the communities so as to reach as many communities as possible, and independent learning should be promoted. Some of the learning centres should be made into multi-purpose centres with the capacity to provide books and a wide variety of other materials. The aim should be building an

environment in which reading is encouraged by supporting the production and dissemination of easy reading materials for all learners including adults.

Wafula (2003) giving an example of the Kenya Adult Literacy programme which was launched 20 years ago, with the aim of promoting the development of a reading environment. To her the programme is a good example of the lack of farsightedness in making provision for support of reading after standard IV (lower primary). No facilities were provided for further reading and quite a substantial number of children relapsed into illiteracy. She went on to say that all ideas for promoting reading will come to nothing if there is no integrated national programme supported by all stakeholders including the government. In this case, she reasoned that the stakeholders would have to include the media, government, the private sector and all the creative minds of the country. Collaboration should be encouraged at district and national levels with other NFE organisations and other departments, which have a non-formal education component.

In Kenya it is relevant to note that the general condition of the school buildings are very poor, compared to public/government schools. Most community schools are housed in temporary structures in the slum areas of Nairobi where most of the non formal schools are found. The exceptions are the cases where construction of school buildings benefitted from donations made by NGOs, as was the case for Reuben Centre, which benefits from Japanese NGOs contributions.

The majority of community schools such as Kangemi, Mukuru and Gatoto have building walls which are made of iron sheets, and the classrooms lack most of the necessary furniture and equipment. Most of the classroom floors are not cemented and become muddy during the rainy seasons. In July-August the rooms are very cold and may cause health problems for learners. Classroom and office furniture is in a poor condition. Adequate cupboards are not available for keeping school books and registers. Teachers lack proper sitting and writing places. Case study on community participation in funding and managing schools which benefitted from good facilities put up with the help of international NGOs, these facilities are deteriorating very rapidly because of lack of

resources for maintenance. In Gatoto and Kangemi Youth Centre, for example, school managements were in agreement with different churches (RUSSO, 2004). Consequently, the buildings were in use during the school days while the churches utilized the same facilities for church services on Sundays and Saturdays.

Alternatively, all over Uganda NFE has very few facilities exclusively or even partially dedicated to it. Very often, where facilities and equipment are used, NFE is a side activity in facilities that are dedicated to other purposes. Some institutions have conference or meeting rooms that are available also for training, seminars and workshops. For example, the researchers found seminars taking place in meeting rooms of Abim and Kaabong hospitals. There are a few training or seminar and workshop centres in other parts of Uganda that are used mainly for that purpose. Examples are District Farm Institutes for farmer training, many of which have been turned into zonal agricultural research and development institutes, such as the one in Nabuin mentioned above, and Rural Training Centres, which do not seem to be found in Karamoja. The researchers were able to observe workshops and seminars taking place in commercial premises such as hotels (RUSSO, 2004).

The regular Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) and Alternative Basic Education (ABEK) programmes in Uganda for instance operate with very limited facilities. Both hold classes mainly under trees. In the case of ABEK one officer explained that it was to some extent a deliberate choice to hold the classes under trees, which used to be “offices” for the old people, so that the children remain near the community and the elders could observe what was being done to them. However, there are now some arrangements in place to construct some shelters at selected ABEK centres with the support of development partners. The government has put up some model shelters including one at Nakapelimoru, near Kotido. At the beginning one storage box was provided per centre but they may not be there any more because of the periodic disturbances in the region. Slates, chalk board and exercise books are also provided.

Some non-formal education groups have put up learning shelters in some cases with support from civil society organisations, but most classes are held under trees. Adventist

Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) Kotido has established Propagation Centres that provide facilities and equipment for non-formal education from around to learn and practice agriculture and to obtain seedlings to transplant to their own home gardens. The fact that ABEK and to some extent FAL have performed well without structures may show that that structures may not be an absolute requirement for good performance. However, lack of facilities provides unfriendly learning conditions such as dust, rain and other interference. For supervision, the community development officers have motorcycles and so do ADRA community facilitators.

#### **2.4.4 Management/ leadership of Non-Formal Education.**

Management strategies such as decentralization should be focused on power-sharing and providing communities with the capacity and resources to empower themselves. The South African panellists announced that they were making plans to establish a country working group which will bring all the NFE stakeholders together as partners. They explained that they would be delighted to receive the support of the ADEA WG-NFE and their fellow educators gathered at the symposium. In response, Jean-Marie Byll Cataria welcomed the decision of the South African representatives to establish a country working group and explained that the WG-NFE will be willing to provide the support the country may need in establishing a country working group on NFE.

In Brazil, Instituto Ayrton Senna, (2009) systematizes permanent programs both inside and outside the school as educational solutions. And according to their website, the professionals who participate in the educational initiatives receive specific training for working with the projects. Senna (2009) noted that managing the learning and teaching process is the most important thing, not the method. The teaching practice is what makes the difference; the teacher must resort to teaching alternatives to ensure learning occurs. A few simple things are required for the pupil's success: lessons, both teacher and pupil must be present, and the pupil must learn, mainly how to read and write. But the teacher needs to work in a systemized and organized way, show the pupils that they themselves are the agents of their own development. Therefore, it is important that the pupils should know what is up to them and what they must learn.

In the 1980s, Paro (1986 apud RUSSO, 2004) in Brazil often questioned the insistence on using the General Theory of Business Administration as a reference for school administration. From the perspective of this analysis, the incorporation of the logic of capitalist thinking into school generates internal and external irrationality, which can be confirmed in the very school practice that results from the conflicts and contradictions between the assumptions of the capitalist administration and the nature of the pedagogical production process.

However, the transition from the school administration approach to democratic management was regulated in the Federal Constitution of 1988. Nevertheless, the necessary knowledge and practices are still being developed, as it is difficult to change paradigms (Luck, 2000). These changes do not happen rapidly since they are a historical process that is constructed by society.

In a schematic way, Luck (2000) indicates that the paradigm of NFE school management is based on a few fundamentals that are necessary for implementing the dynamic model of school: a) the reality is global, everything is interconnected; b) the reality is dynamic and built through the interactions between people; c) the social environment and human behavior are dynamic and unpredictable; d) uncertainty, ambiguity, contradictions, tensions, conflict and crisis are seen as natural and as conditions and opportunities for growth and transformation; e) seeking achievement and success is a process, not a goal; f) the leader's major responsibility is networking; g) good experiences should not be duplicated but rather changed to adapt to local and organizational peculiarities; h) organizations should prioritize joint participation and mobilize active teams, since talent and human synergy are powerful resources in an organization. These aspects are essential in the democratic view in order to ensure behavioral and organizational changes during the overall management of the entire NFE systems.

Almond and Verba (1963) found some positive and causal relationships between formal education and political participation in the sense that the educated segment of the

population is, politically speaking, more competent, more productive and more participative than the non-educated. One major conceptual and methodological criticism of Almond and Verba's comparative study came from Coleman (1965). According to Coleman, the concept of education as formally defined is "too narrow because the formal educational system is only one among the many agencies and processes involved in the formation of political culture, in the recruitment of political elites, in the inculcation of a sense of national identity, and in the performance of a variety of other political relevant functions." Many of the alternative sources of education mentioned by Coleman, including family, church, peer group, army, and professional associations may come under the umbrella of NFE.

Thus, keeping in mind Coleman's concentration on formal education, respectful of his definition of political development, and provided that according to him "literacy, as well as attitudes congruent with modernisation, is crucial for effective political penetration by government as well as for meaningful citizenship," it is our contention that a well targeted and carefully designed NFE programme could be a perfect complement to formal education if not a more appropriate tool for political socialisation, recruitment and integration as far as third world countries are concerned.

Friere (1970) is even more precise in articulating the positive use to which NFE can be put in the political process. Introducing the concept of education for "conscientisation," a process of consciousness development, he argues that formal education is oppressive and the process of conscientisation through NFE channels, such as literacy, will bring about cultural change to end class stratification and exploitation promoted by formal education.

Further, strong support for NFE as an instrument of political process was provided by Kindervatter (1979). She defined NFE as an "empowering process" oriented towards systems change rather than individual change. Empowering is operationally defined here in terms of "people gaining an understanding of, and control over social, economic and/or political forces in order to improve their standing in society." Thus, for Kindervatter (1979), NFE can be transformative in "empowering" disadvantaged classes to understand

and change the relation of domination and subordination in their society. The positive role of NFE was also supported by Evans' (1981) studies in Ghana and Indonesia. He concluded with the contention that NFE could be highly instrumental in solving problems of equity, access to education and the promotion of citizens' effective participation in national development.

At this juncture, one could fairly extrapolate by assuming that NFE could perform the same functions identified by Dean (1984) for formal education as at once conserver of the political system, and contributor to political development. We could, for instance, argue that in terms of political socialisation, NFE programmes could reach a larger audience represented by millions of school "dropouts" and "pushouts." In terms of the selection and training of elites, NFE is likely to provide more opportunities for the identification and civic training of local leaders.

## **2.5 Theoretical Framework**

This study adopts Cultural Deprivation and institutional theories.

### **2.5.1 Cultural Deprivation theory**

Cultural Deprivation is a term referring to the absence of certain expected and acceptable cultural phenomena in the environment which results in the failure of the individual to communicate and respond in the most appropriate manner within the context of society (Howe, 1998). According to the proponents of the theory, one can only decide that someone is culturally deprived by having a clear conception about such things as what is normal in society (and, by extension, the education system). However, leaving this idea to one side for a moment, we can note that a number of witnesses have come forward in support of the concept of cultural deprivation. In the case of the NFE, the learners learn in poor learning conditions such as poor sanitation, lack of adequate learning facilities such as trained teachers among others.

In general, the evidence in support of the concept has focused on social class, whereby the cultural attributes of those who succeed in the education system are identified and, by



extension, the cultural attributes of those who fail are similarly identified. In this way, it is argued, a model of the 'successful' can be build-up, identify the cultural attributes that contribute towards success and suggest ways that those who lack these cultural attributes can be educationally compensated (Howe, 1998).

In terms of cultural deprivation theory, the "solution" to working class underachievement lay in two areas:

- a) Working class culture would have to change - to become, in effect, a mirror-image of middle class culture.
- b) Working class children would have to be compensated for their home background by the provision of extra educational resources that would give them an equal opportunity to compete with their culturally advantaged middle class peers.

This usually involved pre-school educational compensation (since, according to educational psychology, the 'damage' to working class children done by exposure to working class culture through the experience of primary socialisation was too far advanced by the time a child reached school age for 'compensatory education' to be of any real benefit). The case of NFE in Kibera, the government can come in to compensate for the deficiency provide for the lacking facilities, provide resources and harmonies the supervision of the quality of education and examination.

### **2.5.2 Institutional Theory**

Institutional theory is a widely accepted theoretical posture that emphasizes rational myths, isomorphism, and legitimacy (Scott, 2008). Institutional theory focuses on the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemes, rules, norms, and routines, become established as authoritative guidelines for social behavior (Scott, 2004). Institutional Theory examines the structure of organizations through the lens of "rationalized myths" which are simply the socially constructed reality discussed by Berger and Luckmann (1967). The theory states that organizations will take on structures that are isomorphic with the institutional

environment in which the organization exists and that doing so confers legitimacy, resources and a survival advantage to these organizations. This leads directly to the first key assumption in Institutional Theory, bounded rationality. Rational decisions of the actors are bounded by the “reality” of the normative and/or regulative environment. There is also an underlying assumption that particularly “powerful” organizations can in turn influence the institutions that make up it’s environment. While Meyer and Rowan (1977) acknowledge this fact, they spend considerably more time describing how institutions affect organizations. They list three key consequences of Institutional Theory for organizations. First, organizations will adopt structural characteristics that are considered legitimate in spite of their impact on efficiency. Second, they will let external measures dictate the value of these structures. Finally, and most importantly, conforming to rationalized institutional myths reduces uncertainty and therefore promotes the organization’s survival.

Most institutional theories see local actors whether individuals, organizations, or national states as affected by institutions built up in much wider environments. Individuals and organizations are affected by societal institutions, and national-states by a world society. There is substantial evidence that firms in different types of economies react differently to similar challenges (Knetter, 1989). Social, economic, and political factors constitute an institutional structure of a particular environment which provides firms with advantages for engaging in specific types of activities there. Businesses tend to perform more efficiently if they receive the institutional support.

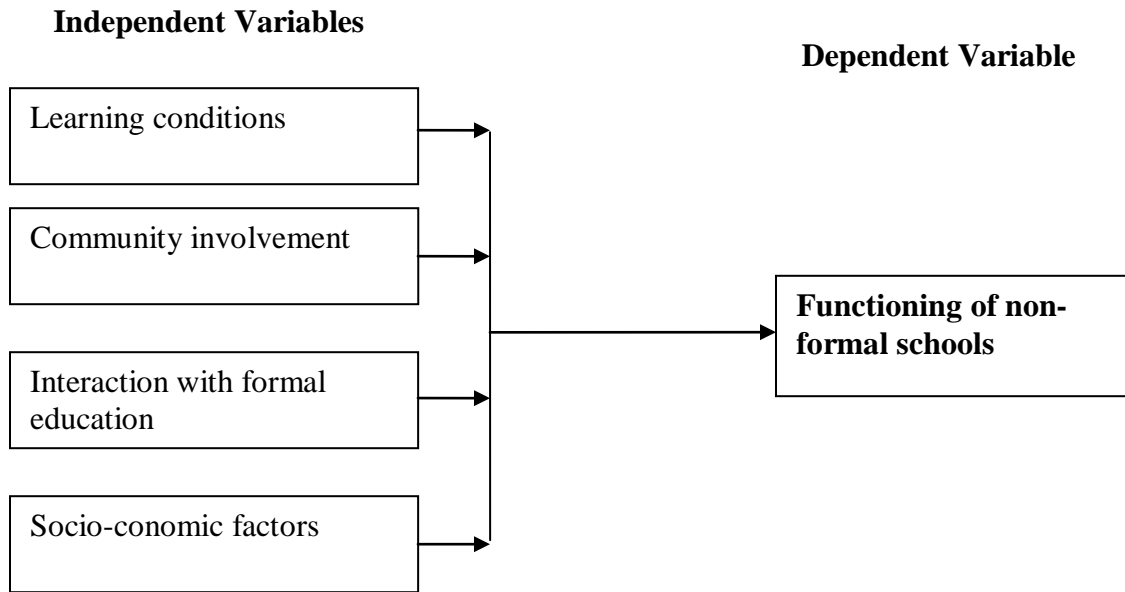
The emergence of non-formal education was as a result of the ever increasing poverty levels among the community and more and more children found themselves out of school as their parents were unable to pay for their school fees. The actors in the education sector came up with a strategy where the learning process did not follow the norm as the learners are not required to be in school uniform, the children are not locked out because of age and lack of school levies among others. This is in an effort to ensure that the children remain in school. The government ratified this through an act of parliament and today the non-formal education is legal. Modern social science, following on modern

ideology, celebrates a social world made up of strong actors, in the realist sense. Theory and ideology give great emphasis to notions of society as a product of such actors and their purposes. The participation of the community and their socio-economic influenced has affected the non-formal education in Kibera.

## **2.6 The conceptual framework**

A conceptual framework is a formal way of thinking or conceptualizing about a process or system under research study. This study is based on the concept that in order to achieve the goals non-formal education various factors affecting its achievement must be understood and addressed by taking the necessary action. Like any strategy of programme the management is very important for its success. This is true according to Senna (2009) who noted that managing the learning and teaching process is the most important thing and not the method. Learning can only take place in a society that is supportive through understanding, involvement, facilitation of transfer and application of new behaviour and providing linkages between the programme and the components (LaBelle, 1976). Economic environment is very important in the realization of NFE. It is more likely that the government will neglect educational needs for other programmes/project which it deems important like security (Oketch, 2004). The quality of education process is enhanced by the availability of teaching and learning materials like textbooks and curriculum (Wafula, 2003). This framework therefore demonstrates how these factors affect non-formal education in Kenya.

**Figure 2: Conceptual Framework**



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the procedure that was used in conducting the study. It is organized into the following sub-headings: introduction, research design, target populations, sampling frame and size, data collection and data analysis.

#### **3.2 Site Description**

The study was conducted in Kibera Slums. Kibera is one of the divisions of Nairobi County with 13 villages, each varying in terms of population, culture, ethnicity and religion. Kibera has been identified as the largest informal settlement in Eastern and Central Africa and one of the areas most affected by poverty (CBS 2001). Statistics from the last census (KNBS, 2010) indicate that Kibera has a total population of 634,491, majority of whom are children aged 0 - 17 years (42%) and youth aged 18 - 35 years (39%). This means that nearly 40% of Kibera's population constitutes of school-age children. It has the highest representation in terms of number of non-formal centers in Kenya.

While there exists a few state schools serving Kibera's population, these schools are far inadequate. Subsequently, many individuals, religious organizations and community based organizations have set up schools, commonly known and even registered as Non-formal schools. However, most of these schools follow the state curriculum, though many fall short of quality expectations. The 'private' schools charge some fees to parents, while a few have received limited capitation by the government. But even with all these educational provisions, many children in Kibera remain out of school, deeply engraved in child labour.

### **3.3 Unit of Analysis**

According to Babbie (1994) a unit of analysis is the object of attention. A unit of analysis is what or who is to be described or analyzed. Therefore the unit of analysis was the quality of non formal education.

### **3.4 Unit of Observation**

The unit of observation were selected learners, teachers, community, secondary data and observation in the sampled non-formal education centres.

### **3.5 Research Design**

This study adopted a survey research design in which the study sought to establish the factors that influence non-formal education in Kenya. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) surveys enable researchers to obtain data about practices, situations or views at one point in time through questionnaires and interviews. Survey research is concerned with the questions as what, how and why of a phenomenon which is the concern for the study (Kothari, 2003). The purpose of survey was to produce quantitative descriptions of some aspects of the study population. This study sought to describe how these factors such as the community participation, state of learning conditions, cultural and social economic factors and the level and forms of participation affected non formal education. Travers (1969) argued that surveys are conducted to establish the nature of the existing conditions. Good (1963) outlined the purpose of descriptive survey research is to secure evidence concerning all existing situations or current conditions, to identify standards or norms with which to compare present conditions in order to plan how to take the next step and also to determine how to take the next step having determined where we are and where we are to go. The choice of survey as a preferred method was because survey analyses are primarily concerned with relationships between variables (Kothari, 2003). The study sought to establish the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The design was therefore appropriate in enabling the researcher to find out the factors affecting the NFE in Kenya.

### **3.6 Target Population**

The target population was the learners in the non formal education centres in Kibera slum. According to the District Education Officer (DEO), Lang'ta District, there were 106 non-formal primary schools registered in Kibera slums but could not establish the exact number as the non-formal schools in the slum keeps mushrooming. It is therefore not possible to ascertain the actual number of learners in the non-formal schools in Kibera. Other secondary respondents were teachers, community members and City County Education Department officers in Kibera.

### **3.7 Sampling**

The study sampled 14 NFE centers located in Kibera using stratified random sampling from the 106 NFS in Kibera slum with an approximate of 10,000 learners. This represents a proportion of 14.3 percent. According to Gay and Airasian (2003) a sample size of between 10 and 20 percent of the population is representative. The proportion of 14.3 percent is representative of the population. Multi cluster stage sampling was done at two levels: the first was the selection of the NFE centres and the second in the selection of the learners at school level. Proportionate sampling was done in line with the total NFE schools per location hence Laini Saba had 8, Kibera 4 and Sarangombe 3. In each of the schools, 24 learners were sampled using simple random sampling from each of the sampled schools. The study sample was 336 pupils. The study used purposive sampling to select 20 key informants comprising of 8 head teacher, 8 teachers, one DEO, one County Education Officer, three community member and three chiefs.

### **3.8 Methods of Data Collection**

Primary data was collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The data was collected using face to face interviews, surveys, observations and key informants. Secondary data e.g. registers, returns etc was used to collect data from the sampled NFE centres.

## **Survey**

Survey was used to collect the quantitative data from the learners.

## **Key Informant Interviews**

The key informants were 14 head teachers, 14 teachers, area chiefs, Education Officers of the Ministry of Education and officers at the City County Education Department. In total there were 36 key informants.

## **Observation**

Observations were made on the status of the infrastructures, the dressing code, and school feeding programmes in the NFE centers. The aim of the observation was to have first hand information on the status of school infrastructure.

## **3.9 Tools of Data Collection**

### **i. Questionnaire**

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data. Questionnaires were made for the primary respondents (students). The questionnaire had questions developed to address the objectives of the study. Best and Khan (1993) observes that questionnaires enable the person administering them to explain the purpose of the study and to give meaning of the items that may not be clear. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) argues that, questionnaires are used to obtain important information about the population and able to reach large audience at minimum cost.

### **ii. Interviews Schedule**

Key informants were interviewed using an interview schedule. The main purpose of the interview is to elicit responses from the interviewees by directing questions to them. The researcher made use of semi-structured interview schedules (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, by means of open-ended questions, the researcher hopes to get an in-depth understanding of the responses of the participants (Kothari, 2003) with regard to the effect of the independent variable on the NFE. The researcher interviewed teachers, PTA and Ministry of Education officers. Each respondent group was interviewed using a relevant schedule that helped to address their areas of concern.



### **Observations Checklist**

The researcher used observation to take note of the infrastructure, the dressing code and the school feeding programme in the non-formal schools including the state of classroom, desks, chairs and the general learning environment. The researcher also observed the number of pupils per school as compared to the teachers available. The researcher also observed the physical facilities available in the school such as toilets, playing grounds, availability of waters and electricity. An observation checklist was used to guide the observation.

### **3.9 Validity**

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (Borg and Gall 2003). To test the validity of the instruments, the study sought expert judgment from the supervisor who sought to validate and enhance the value and content of research instruments. The researcher modified any item that was found ambiguous in eliciting relevant information.

### **3.10 Instrument Reliability**

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). The researcher pilot tested the instruments by administering the instruments to 10 NFEs in areas outside the study area. The researcher administered the questionnaires and the interview schedule to same respondents after about one week. Computation of the correlation between the scores of the two sets was carried out and coefficient obtained became the reliability estimate (Shiundu, 2008).

To compute the coefficient, the researcher used the formula:

$$Re = \frac{2r}{r + 1}$$

Where Re = reliability of the original test

r = reliability of the coefficient resulting from correlating the scores of the odd items with the scores of the even items.

The research instruments were deemed reliable if the reliability coefficient was between 0.7 and 0.8. The data from the field were entered into the software from where the reliability test was run. Cronbach's Alpha test was used to test the reliability of the instruments. According to the results presented in table 3, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.676 which is about the recommended value of 0.7. The instruments were therefore considered reliable.

**Table 3: Reliability Statistics**

<b>Cronbach's Alpha Based on</b>		
<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Standardized Items</b>	<b>N of Items</b>
.676	.659	41

### **3.11 Executing the Study**

Prior to actual data collection, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the University which stated the purpose of the study. The researcher then booked appointments with the heads of the sampled centers and notified them of the mission and purpose of the study. The researcher self administered the questionnaires to clarify any question not clear to the respondents. Semi-structured interviews schedules were used to get in-depth information by the researcher himself. A few participants from all the categories were interviewed and each interview was recorded in form of jotting and transcribing.

### **3.12 Data analysis**

Data from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed using a system called coding schemes. The purpose of coding schemes is to categorize the data into smaller clusters of similar content to allow simple analysis of the data. Content analysis was then used to analyse the qualitative data. Quantitative data from the questionnaires was equally coded and analyzed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS). Data was analysed using descriptive statistics such as and percentages frequency distribution and presentations done in tables, graphs and charts.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents information on background information of the respondents, number of informal schools in Kibera, forms and patterns of community participation, learning materials, government support to non-formal education, sponsorship of the schools, state and conditions of the learning environment, the effect of socio-cultural factors on non-formal education and participation by the students.

#### 4.2 Background Information

##### 4.2.1 Gender

Majority of the learners were male, 62% and female 38%.

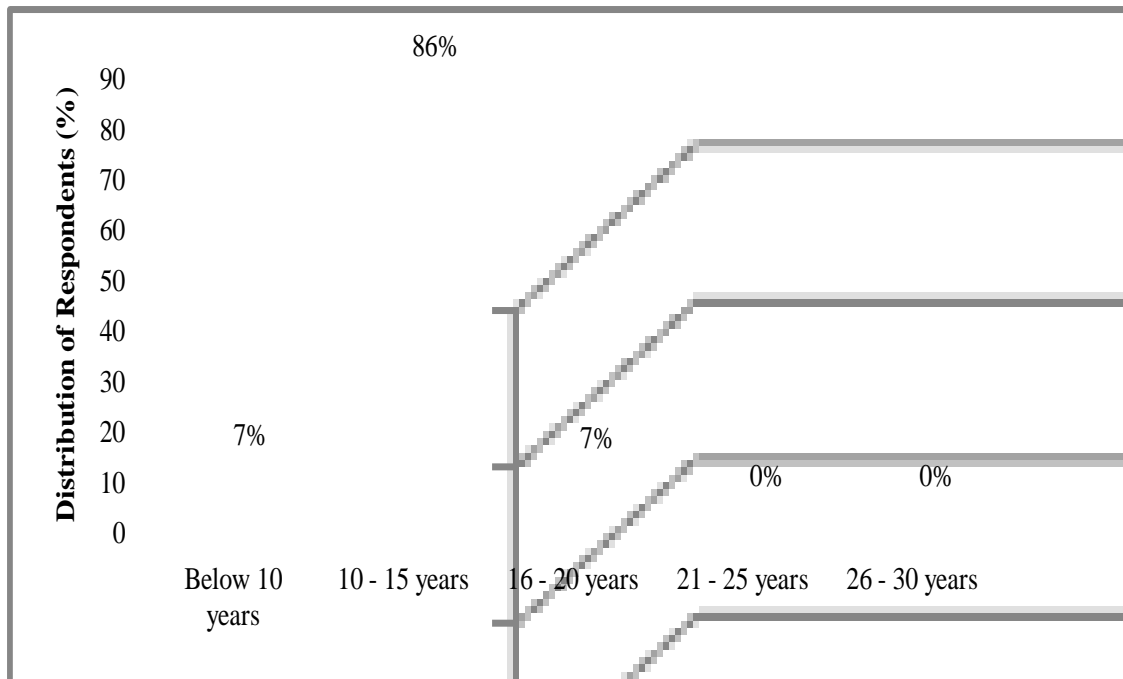
**Figure 3: Distribution by Gender**



##### 4.2.2 Age Profile

The findings presented in Figure 4 show that majority of the pupil respondents were aged between 10 and 15 years which means that they delayed to go to school hence the joining of NFE. In the formal system learners of this age are supposed to be in secondary school.

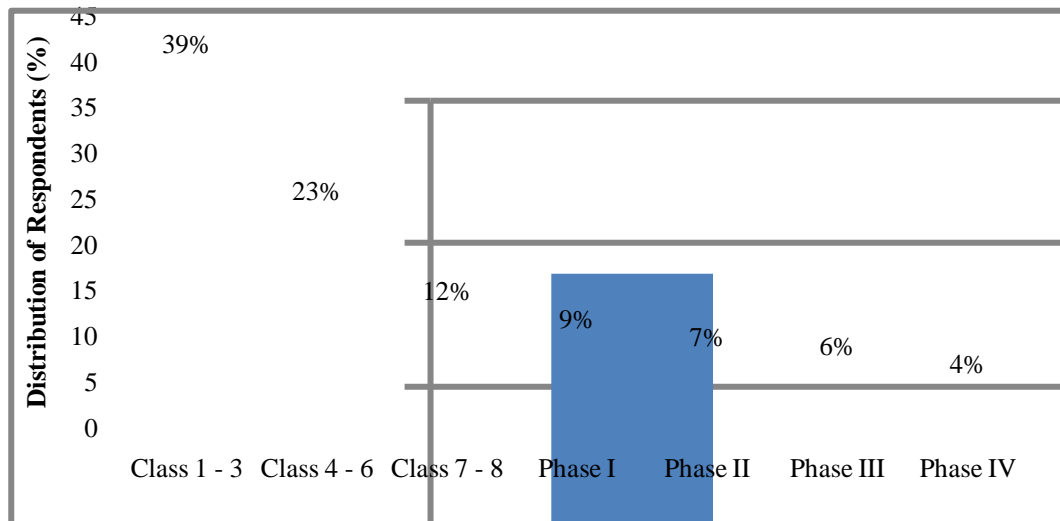
**Figure 4: Distribution by Age**



#### **4.2.3 Respondents Current Class**

The results show that most of the pupils in the non-formal schools are in classes 1 – 3 (39%), 4 – 6 (23%), 7 – 8 (12%) and the least were in phase IV (4%). The results show that as the classes advance the number of pupils reduce. In the formal system children in classes follow the mental age and chronological age whereby the mental age involves mental development while chronological age involves progressive or spontaneous body growth. The classes entry age is 6 years. In phases, the learning is accelerated or have the mental age not relating with chronological age. The curriculum content is consolidated or put together in order to take care of the elderly students as the entry age is 12 years and above.

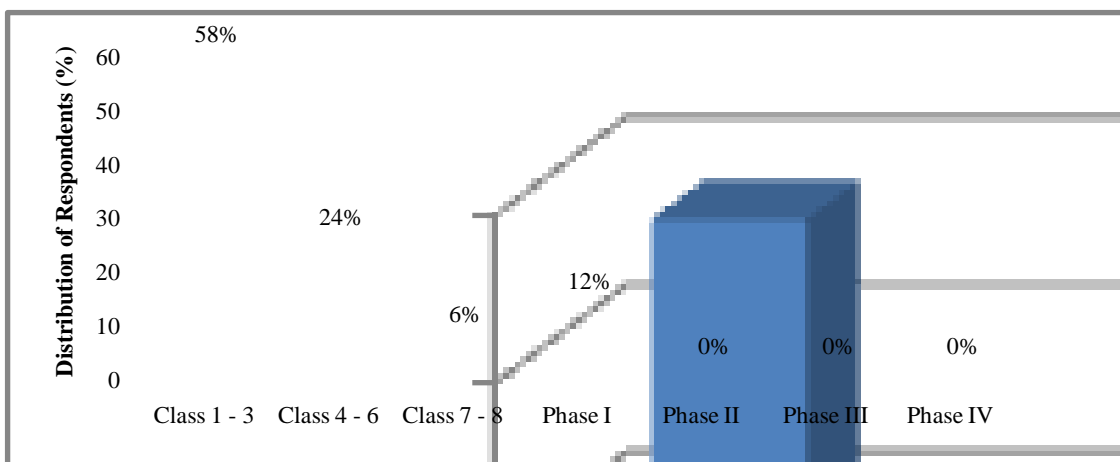
**Figure 5: Respondents Current Class**



**4.2.4 Stages of Joining School**

Most of the pupils joined in classes 1 – 3 (58%) 4 – 6 (24%), 7 – 8 (6%) and phase I (12%). The results show that a small proportion joined in Phase I. This implies that pupils mostly joined at the introduction that is Class 1 or Phase I.

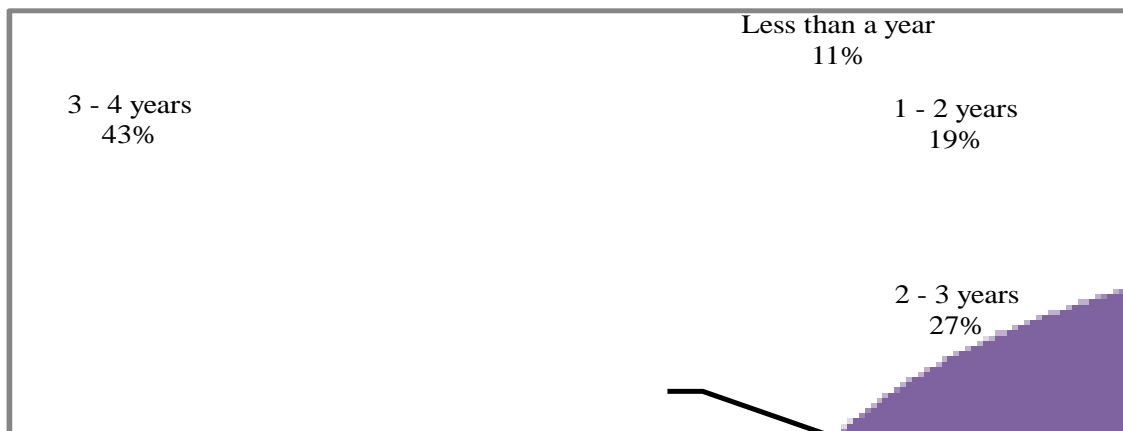
**Figure 6: Stage of Joining the School**



#### 4.2.5 Duration in the Centre

Most of the respondents have been in the centers for between 3 - 4 years (43%) and 2 – 3 years (27%). The results also show that respondents have been in the centers for between 2 and 3 years. However, 11% of the respondents have been in the centre for less than one year.

**Figure 7: Duration in the Centre**



#### 4.2.6 Average Class Size

In terms of average class size, the head teachers indicated that there about 70 to 80 pupils per class in the lower classes and about 40 to 50 pupils for those in classes 4-8. The respondents indicated that in the phases, there were 20 to 30 learners in phase I and II and between 10 to 20 in phases 3 and 4.

#### 4.2.7 Number of Non-formal Schools and pupils in Kibera

According to Allavida Kenya report on access to and quality education in Kibera (2012) there are 106 non-formal schools in Langata but could not establish the number for Kibera slums alone. However, the study found that there were 150 registered non-formal schools in Kibera slum. The Education office clarified that it is difficult to know the actual number of all the non-formal schools as they keep mushrooming. Respondents indicated that the schools were distributed across the three locations of the slum namely, Kibera, Sarangombe and Laini Saba. The results in Table 4 show that most of the schools (60) are found in Laini Saba location and 28 in kibera location while 18 are found in

Sarangombe. The results however show that Laini Saba has the highest number of pupils (6,367) attending non-formal schools followed by Kibera at 2,476.

**Table 4: Number of Non-formal Schools and pupils in Kibera**

	Number of Non-formal schools	Number of pupils
Kibera	28	2,476
Sarangombe	18	1,011
Laini Saba	60	6,367
<b>Total</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>9,854</b>

#### **4.2.8 Registration of Non-Formal Schools**

From a profile of the NFS, it is apparent that most schools are registered with the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Services, as local organizations or charitable children institutions. The head teachers indicated that the registration by the Ministry of Education which was put as pre-condition for government funding has not penetrated the NFS in Kibera.

### **4.3 Forms and Patterns of Community Participation in Non-formal Schools**

In this section the study sought to establish the forms and patterns of community participation in the management of non-formal education. The findings of the study are presented in the subsequent sections.

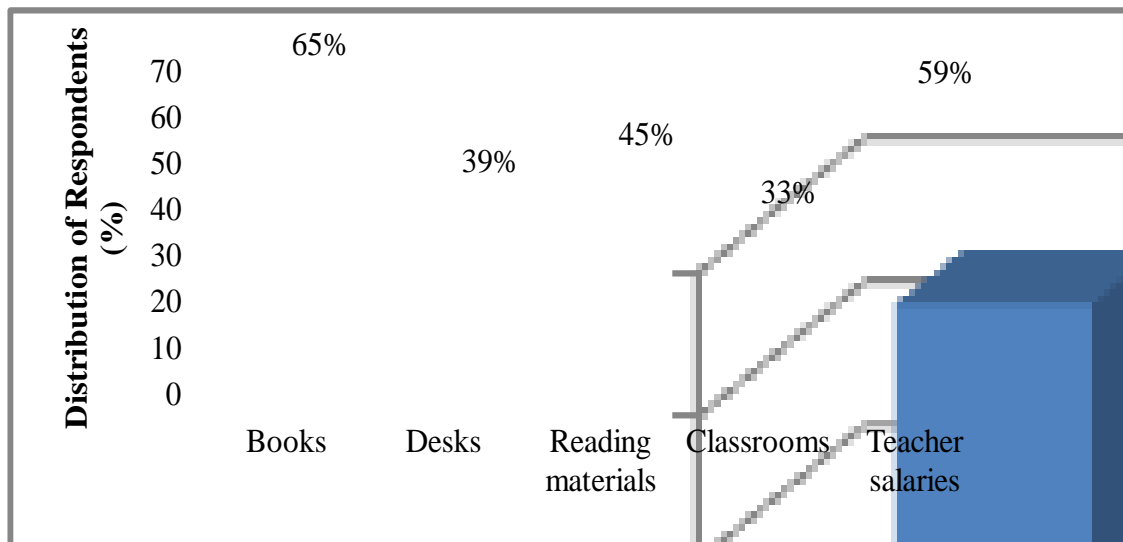
#### **4.3.1 Provision of Learning Materials**

It was found that 57% of the community members do not provide learning materials while 43% community members indeed provided the learning materials for them in school. The school head teacher indicated that without the support of the parents it would be difficult to run the schools. Headteachers also observed that most of the children come from very poor family backgrounds and therefore their parents do not pay for or provide the learning materials as regular as the schools required. This may be interpreted that although most parents never support the non-formal education within the slum due to

poverty by providing learning resources, a good proportion provided learning materials from their meagre and unreliable income. Hence the support by parents makes an irregular pattern.

In terms of types or kinds of support, most community members/parents provided books for their children. Others pay fees which is used to pay for teachers salary. The parents also provided desks and paid funds for the construction of classrooms. For desks in particular it was found that parents team up to buy physical desks and bring them to school for their children. Given the high cost of constructing a classroom, all the schools did not have enough classrooms, where they were not of standard size . It was observed that in most schools a high number of students were sitting on the floor, a considerable number of the floors were not cemented. Other pupils were sitting on plastic chairs bought by their respective parents. There was consensus among the key informants that teacher shortage was a key problem. The teacher pupil ratio was put at 1:70.

**Figure 9: Kind of Materials Provided by Parents**

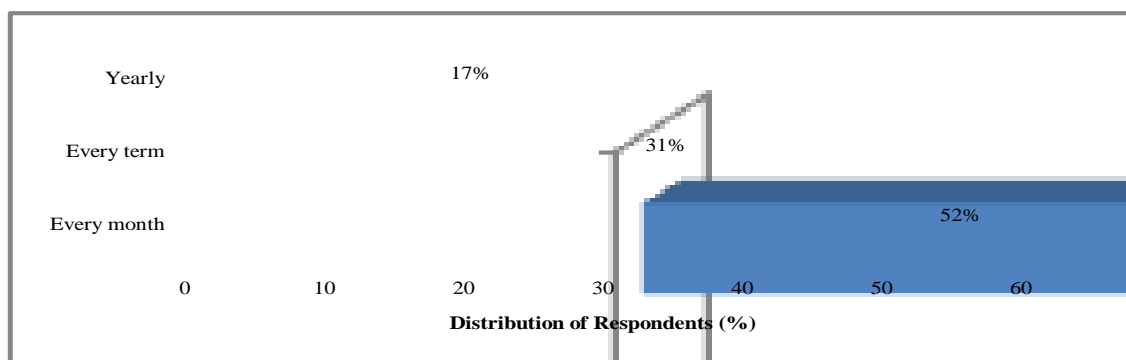




### 4.3.2 Frequency of Provision of Learning Materials

According to majority of respondents, the parents make the provisions on a monthly basis while others do on a termly basis. The head teachers indicated that the parents are informed of what they are expected to provide at the end of the term. The parents are expected to buy for their children the books when they are reporting at the beginning of the term and anytime when there is need. However, the headteachers reported that not many parents are able to do this and the school has a special arrangement with them to provide on a monthly basis. This may be interpreted to mean that due to the poverty levels of the parents, they can only make payments in small installments on monthly basis as opposed to per term basis.

**Figure 10: Frequency of Provision of Learning Materials**



### 4.3.3 Remuneration of Teachers in Non-Formal Schools

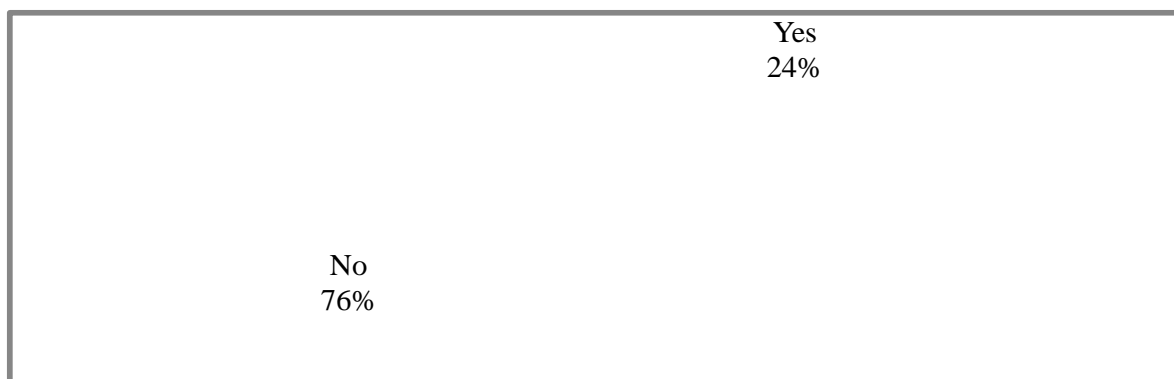
The PTA were the employers of teachers. It was found that the teachers received a monthly salary of between Kshs. 2,500 - Kshs 4,000 which is quite low. However, the payment of salary was quite irregular as some teachers were paid in instalment.

### 4.3.4 Government Support to NFE Schools

The findings of the study presented in figure 11 show that according to majority of the respondents, the government did not provide any financial support to the centres. However, respondents indicated that indeed the government provided financial support to the centres. Respondents indicated that the school their schools are mainly supported by

parents and other organizations and not the government. However, some respondents indicated that the government provided the centres with learning materials. The donation by the government was however in terms of learning materials which come in terms of exercise books. In three schools, the government had provided funds for the construction of classrooms. This was however not consistent as it may happen only once in a year or even two years. This is an indication that the government has not taken non-formal education seriously as little resources is channeled to the sector.

**Figure 11: Government Support to NFE Schools**



#### **4.3.5 Sources of Support to the NFE Centres**

Support for the NFE centres was obtained from several bodies. The results show that the respondents indicated that the NGOs supported the centres. The churches provided support to the non-formal centres which they were the sponsors or owned. It was indicated that some NGOs constructed classrooms and bought learning materials such as the text books. The study also established that the church donated land for establishment of the school. The NGOs also provided schools with furniture in form of desks, chairs and tables. In one school in Kibera a church had provided 50 desks while in another school a well wisher had donated 100 desks. Respondents also indicated that even the community has contributed by providing a good learning environment to the pupils. Most of the schools according to the study were started by the religious organizations in Kibera slums as a means of ensuring that the children, most of whom were not in school, get accessed to formal education. Other schools according to some respondents were owned and managed by Community Based Organizations which cater for their needs.

**Table 5: Sources of Support to the NFE Centres**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Churches	17	19
NGOs	23	26
Local leaders	4	4
Not aware	45	51
<b>Total</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>100</b>

#### **4.3.6 Supervision of the Schools**

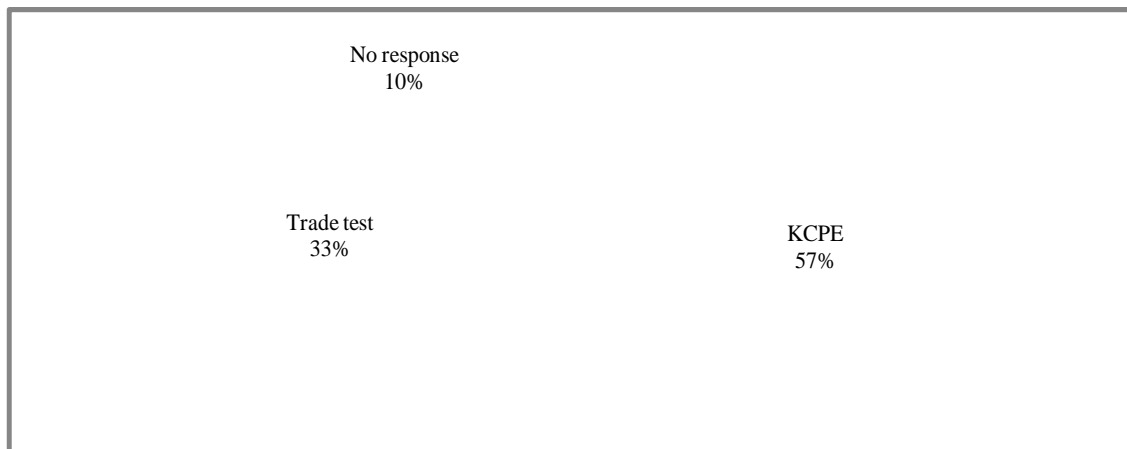
Most of the respondents indicated that the schools have their own internal supervision structures. Only a few respondents indicated that the government supervised the schools through the quality assurance department. Very few non-formal schools are supervised by the City Council of Nairobi's Education Department as the council was mainly involved in the staffing and paying salaries for the pre-school teachers. Most of the schools follow the state curriculum, though many fall short of quality expectations. The Ministry of Education indicated that all the NFE schools in the region were supervised by the Quality Assurance Officers to ensure that the children get the best and quality education despite the challenges they faced. But the respondents equally indicated that the supervision was not an easy task in the slum. Lack of the supervision by the government may be attributed to the fact that majority of these non-formal schools are not registered with the government and therefore their existence is not known by the government. However, the study established that some of the schools were registered either as CBOs through the Ministry of Gender Social and Cultural Services or FGOs through the Registrar of Societies. This means that the government recognizes the existence of the NFE by providing legal recognition to the NFE. Hence the multiplicity of organizations involved makes it difficult for consistent supervision of Ministry of Education officers.

#### **4.3.7 Type of Examination**

Most of the pupils sit the Kenya Primary Certificate Education (KCPE). The study further established that a sizable proportion of the respondents sit Trade Test by the Ministry of Trade and Industry. It was also found that most of these schools are not examination

centres due to lack of enough facilities and they therefore book examination in other examination centres which are mainly the formal schools in the area such as Olympic Primary school, Joseph Kangethe Primary, Shadrack Primary among others. Head teacher respondents indicated that whenever they take their learners, they are charged a fee for using the facilities. The respondents also indicated that their learners are not given the same index numbers, their status of non-formal is maintained.

**Figure 12: Type of Examination**



#### **4.4 State of Learning Conditions in Non-Formal Schools**

##### **4.4.1 Classrooms**

Although most schools have classrooms some did not have them as learning takes place in open structures. In some cases learning takes place in church halls in which several classes are taught at the same venue the same time. The phenomenon of one venue having more than one class at the same time is common. In terms of state of the classroom a considerable number of classrooms had earth floor, mud wall and old rusty corrugated iron sheet or metal tin sheets. In some cases the walls of the classrooms were made of iron sheets. Again the classrooms had very small windows, others had no windows which makes ventilation poor.

#### 4.4.2 Learning Facilities

The results show that majority of the respondents indicated that they are indeed provided with learning facilities. These include playing ground, library and school gardens in sacks. This may be interpreted to mean that the schools are provided with learning facilities.

**Figure 14: Learning Facilities**



#### 4.4.3 School Meals

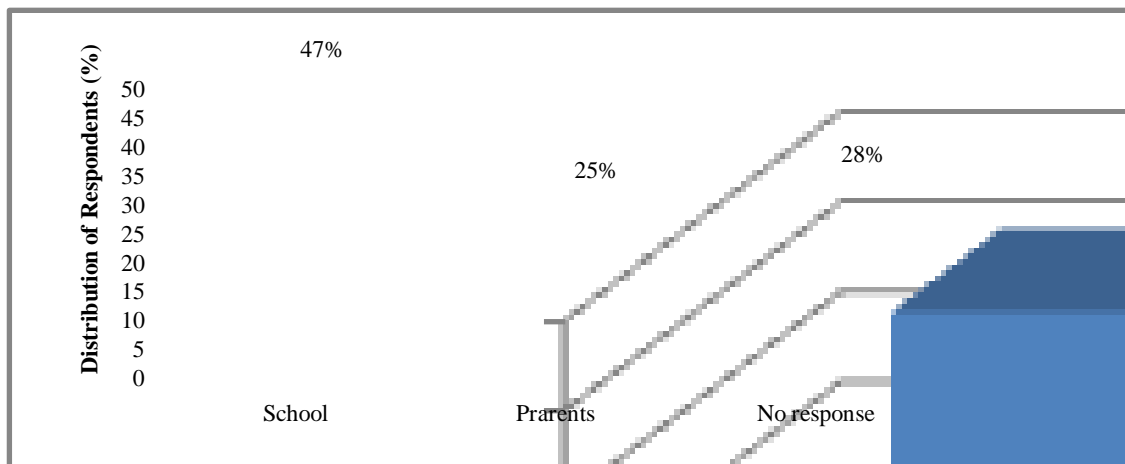
Some schools provided meals to pupils. The meals provided in the school was mainly maize/beans, porridge tea, ugali and rice. In five schools, the pupils were served tea during morning break while in the rest took just lunch. However, most of the pupils never provided with the meals. In other schools the learners go back home for lunch but they are not allowed to carry food to the school. Given the informal nature of the school, the school meal regime is largely informal as well.

**Figure 15: School Meals**



They indicated that while some parents paid for their children to have meals in school, the needy pupils are provided with the meals by the school. It was reported that in a considerable number of cases some parents have not been able to pay for their children’s meals ones a month but prefer giving them Ksh. 10 each day. Sometimes, children/pupils carry food from home.

**Figure 16: Providers of Meals**



#### 4.5 Interaction between Formal and Non-formal education

In this section the study sought to determine the interaction between the formal and non-formal education. The findings are presented in the subsequent sections.

##### 4.5.1 Source of examination

The teacher respondents were asked to state the source of their examination. The study findings revealed that most of the respondents stated that their examination came from the Kenya National Examination Council. The respondents also stated that they got internal examination from the institution or training centres. These are non examinable trades such as salon mobile repair among others. The findings mean that the institutions got their examinations from various sources. However, the fact that some got their examination from the KNEC, makes the non-formal education share platform with the formal education.

#### **4.5.2 Type of Examination**

The respondents were asked to state the type of examination they sat for. According to the findings of the study, most respondents indicated that their students sat for the Kenya Certificate of Primary education. The results further revealed that respondents equally indicated that their students sat for trade tests. Other stated that their students sat for internal examinations after undergoing trainings such as mobile phone repairs, salon among others. The findings mean that both the formal and the non-formal education sat for KCPE.

Asked to state what the formal and non-formal education had in common, the respondents indicated that the learners can move from formal to non-formal and vice versa without much problems. The respondents also indicated that both the forms of education shared the syllabus content as the non-formal education has borrowed a lot from the formal education syllabus. The respondents also indicated that both the forms of education shared in the co-curricular activities.

### **4.6 Effect of Socio-Economic Factors on Non-Formal Education**

#### **4.6.1 Low Income**

The findings in Table 7 show that majority of the respondents agreed that their joining the NFE was influenced by the fact that their parents could not afford the formal schools. The results also show that most of the respondents indicated that they believed that NFE is for the poor who cannot afford to go to the formal school. The study however shows that a few respondents did not agree that NFE is for the poor. According to teachers, the approximate income of most parents range between Kshs. 150 and 250 per day. The results show that the standard deviation for the all the tests in greater than 1, implying that there were variances in the responses. These results may be interpreted to mean that to a large extent, most of the NFE learners come from a poor family backgrounds. From the findings of the study some of the NFE pay as little as Kshs 200 per month translating to Kshs.600 per term and Kshs. 1,800 which is far much higher that the formal schools

(Kshs 1060 per year). But to the distance and over enrolment, the parents have no alternative rather than seeking for admission in NFEs.

The study sought to establish how cultural factors had influenced the NFE in Kibera. Teachers indicated that the people of Kibera believe that they cannot afford the formal education and therefore the only alternative to giving their children education is through NFE. Teachers also indicated that the Kibera residents believe in handouts and therefore take their children to schools which they perceived to be free.

**Table 7: Factors Influencing NFE**

<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
Parents cannot afford other schools	47	32	10	3	8	1.92	1.194
NFE is for the poor	32	13	18	0	37	2.97	1.716

#### **4.6.3 Drug abuse, Prostitution, Child sexual abuse**

The study sought to establish the influence of the environment on the learners. Respondents indicated that the social ills such as drug abuse, prostitution and promiscuity, idleness, early marriages and others have directly contributed to the increases non-formal schools in the slum as many children drop out of school due to the influence of these ills. The respondents indicated that some of the parents have wasted due to the influence of drugs to the extent that they no longer take care of their children. The duty of educating their children is therefore left to the well-wishers who have come in the form of church organizations, CBOs or NGOs. The head teachers indicated that some pupils start drinking as young as 10 years due to exposure to alcohol as their parents are the brewers. Two headteacher respondents, girls as young as 13 years have boy friends who are men much older than them. They explained further that these men promise to give them money in exchange for sex. In two of the centers visited, the school heads indicated that in the last three months alone they had lost six girls who had dropped out of school due to pregnancy.



According to the education officer, due to the fact that the slum setup lacks any planning, the government find it difficult to provide some of these basic necessities like the schools as there is no space for the construction of such facilities. It has therefore become the duty of the community and other well-wishers to provide the children here with education within the shanties.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents summary of the main findings and conclusions based on research conducted. The purpose of these conclusions is to address the research objectives. Each of the research objectives is addressed in separate sections. Finally, recommendations for action by relevant authorities and management and suggestion for further research is presented.

#### **5.2 Summary**

##### **5.2.1 Forms and Patterns of Community Participation**

The results revealed that according to most of the pupils, parents did not provide learning materials while most indicated that that the parents indeed provided the learning materials for them in school. The parents mainly provided materials such as books, teachers allowances and reading materials. However the number of teachers fell far much below the recommended proportion as the ration of the teacher to pupils was 1:70 which is far much beyond the recommended 1:40. The payments were made monthly as the parents could only afford to pay in several installments. Majority of the respondents indicated that the government did not provide any financial support to the centres and the school mainly relied on the support from the parents and other organizations. According to some respondents, NGOs supported the centres while others indicating that the churches were providing support to their institutions. This was in the forms of building classrooms, donating land for the establishment of the centre and buying of furniture for the schools. The community also contributed by providing a good learning environment to the pupils. The supervision of the school is mainly done by the quality assurance officers from the Ministry of Education and the NCC. The schools also have their own internal supervision structures. The study established that most of the learners in the non-formal schools sit for KCPE while one third did trade test.

### **5.2.2 State of Learning Conditions on Non-Formal Education**

The study results revealed that majority of the respondents indicated that schools have classrooms where learning takes place. The results further revealed that according to most of the respondents, learning facilities were provided for by the school. The results revealed that although most of the schools did not provide meals in schools, most of the schools provided meals. Respondents indicated pupils were not allowed to get food from outside the school. Most of the schools provided the meals while some indicated that their parents and guardians. Some schools have two system of providing school meal. The well to do parents paid for their children to have meals in school, while the needy pupils are provided with the meals by the school.

### **5.2.3 Interaction between Formal and Non-formal Education**

The study established that in both the forms of education, the examining body was mainly KNEC. The study also established that the examination for by formal and some non-formal education sat for KCSE even though the non-formal education also had trade tests and internal examinations. It was revealed that the formal and some non-formal education shared syllabus and co-curricular activities.

### **5.2.4 Effect of Cultural and Socio-Economic Factors on Non-Formal Education**

The results revealed that majority of the respondents agreed that their joining the NFE was influenced by the fact that their parents could not afford the other schools. The results also show that most of the respondents indicated that they believed that NFE is for the poor who cannot afford to go to the formal school. Respondents indicated that the people of Kibera believe that they cannot afford the formal education and therefore the only alternative to giving their children education is though NFE. Economic factors according to respondents influenced NFE as most of the learners had dropped out of school due to lack of school fees. Some dropped out school due to lack of food at home which forced some to look for economic activities. The social environment in which the slum is found has contributed to the development of NFE as some of the parents have been wasted and no longer take care of their children's needs. The government has also

failed to provide such necessities as education to the children living in slums leaving it to well-wishers.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

From the findings of the study it was revealed that the community which comprises of the local community, parents, NGOs, churches and to a small extent the government. This was in the forms of building classrooms, buying of school furniture and land for establishment and learning materials. The study can therefore conclude that the community participated in the NFE in various forms including provision of conducive learning environment.

The findings of the study revealed that most of the schools have classrooms, and learning facilities besides the learners being provided with meals. The study therefore describes the learning conditions in the NFE in Kibera as comfortable to their level and social class. This however could be improved if the government together with other stakeholders in the sector could increase financial support.

The study established that the formal and some non-formal institutions shared examination body, examination, and moved freely from one form of education to another and shared co-curricular.

Most of the respondents believe that the poverty has to a large extent influenced the NFE in Kibera as the community view formal education as beyond their reach and therefore believed in overdependence on aids which come in the form of NFE. The study therefore concludes that culture and socio-economic factors have influenced NFE in Kibera. However, this may be changed if the government can empower the community through entrepreneurship.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

- Government participation was very minimal in support of NFE. This study recommends increased government support towards NFE to ensure realization of education for all children.
- The study revealed that the NFE centres had poor classrooms and other learning facilities. The study therefore recommends that the government and other stakeholders need to work to support to improve learning conditions for the learners by providing learning facilities.
- The study revealed that the two forms of education interacted in various forms including examination, syllabus, and co-curricular activities. The study recommends that the government should harmonize the two forms of education for ease integration.
- Most of the learners do not participate in most of issues in the school such as choosing their leaders. The study therefore recommends that the non-formal school administrations in Kibera should give the learners an opportunity to participate in some issues which directly touch on them.

#### **5.5 Recommendations for Future Research**

This study was done on the non-formal education in Kenya with particular focus on Kibera. It is suggested that similar study should be replicated in other regions with the aim of determining the factors affecting their existence. The study was limited to three factors, namely community participation, the state of the learning conditions, cultural and socio-economic factors and the level and forms of participation by learners. However, further research is recommended to determine the effect of other factors not considered in this study.

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## **APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

March ,2012

Dear Respondent,

### **REQUEST FOR RESEARCH DATA**

I am a Master of Rural Sociology and Community Development pupil at University of Nairobi. I am required to submit as part of my course work assessment, a research project report on **study of non-formal education in Kenya: a case study of non-formal schools in Nairobi slums**. I am kindly requesting you to assist me in this study by filling the attached questionnaire to the best of your ability as it applies to your institution.

Please be assured that the information you provide will be used solely for academic purposes and all responses will remain confidential.

Thank you very much for your time.

Elias Ngare Ireri,  
Researcher



## APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PUPILS

### SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Gender?      Male ( ) Female ( )
2. Age? Below 15 Years      ( )                  16 – 20 Years      ( )  
          21 – 25Years              ( )                  26 – 30 Years 9 ( )
3. How long have you been in the centre?  
          Less than one year      ( )      1 – 2 years      ( )  
          2 – 3 years                  ( )      3 - 4 years      ( )

### SECTION 2: FORMS AND PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

4. Do your parents/guardian provide for the learning materials in the school?  
Yes ( ) No ( )
5. a) Does the government provide financial support to your school?  
Yes ( ) No ( )

b) Explain your answer\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

6. What other organizations provide support to the organization?  
          Churches ( ) NGOs ( ) Local learders ( ) Not  
aware ( )
7. In your opinion, to what extent has the community participation enhanced the  
NFE?\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION 3: LEARNING CONDITIONS**

8. Do you have classrooms where you learning takes place?

Yes ( ) No ( )

9. How would you describe the size of the classrooms?

Small ( ) Adequate ( ) Very spacious ( )

10. Is small how are the pupils learning? \_\_\_\_\_

11. Are you provided with learning facilities like books, pens, etc?

Yes ( ) No ( )

12. a) Are you provided with meals in school? Yes ( ) No ( )

b) Explain your answer\_\_\_\_\_

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13. If yes who provides the meals? School ( ) Parents/guardian ( )

14. If none, where do you get your meals\_\_\_\_\_

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**SECTION 4: CULTURE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS**

15. To what do the following explain the factors that influenced you to join NFE on a scale of 1-5 where 1 represents strongly agree and 5 strongly disagree?

	1	2	3	4	5
My parents could not afford the other school	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
NFE is for the poor who can not go to formal school	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

16. In your opinion, how has the cultural factors influenced existence of NFE in Kibera\_\_\_\_\_

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17. In your opinion, have economic factors influenced the existence of non-formal education in Kibera? \_\_\_\_\_

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**Thank you, God Bless.**

### **APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

1. Where does the school get its finances\_\_\_\_\_
2. Who are the other donors of the school?\_\_\_\_\_
3. For how long have they been donors?\_\_\_\_\_
4. From where do you get your examinations?\_\_\_\_\_
5. What type of exam do you sit for?\_\_\_\_\_
6. In your opinion, what does the formal and non-formal education have in common? \_\_\_\_\_
7. What is the economic status of the parents of the learners?\_\_\_\_\_
8. Has this influenced their children to attend NFE?\_\_\_\_\_
9. Is NFE linked to any cultural practices?\_\_\_\_\_
10. Which is the form of learning most preferred by most learners?\_\_\_\_\_
11. What reason would you give to this?\_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you, God Bless**